The steroid-inducible pOp6/LhGR gene expression system is fast, sensitive and does NOT cause plant growth defects in rice (*Oryza sativa*)

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Significance statement: The non-monocot codon-optimized version of the dexamethasone inducible pOp6/LhGR system does not cause severe developmental perturbations in rice plants!

Summary

Inducible systems for transgene expression activated by a chemical or an inducer of non-plant origin
are desirable tools for both basic plant research as well as advanced biotechnological utilizations.
Although, the technology has been widely exploited in model plant species, optimal solution is
missing for the major monocotyledonous crop species – rice. Here, we characterise the inducible
properties of the pOp6/LhGR adapted for rice as fast, sensitive, tight, with high levels of induction
that remain stable over several generations. Most importantly, the system does not cause negative
growth defects *in vitro* or in soil grown plants. We describe various methods of application and
optimization of induction by finding out that another steroid, triamcinolone acetonide, is more
potent inducer then dexamethasone in rice. We present serious considerations for the construct
design to avoid undesirable effects caused by the system in plants, leakiness and possible silencing,
as well as simple steps how to maximize translation efficiency of a gene of interest. Finally, we
compare the performance of the pOp6/LhGR system with other chemically inducible systems tested
in rice in terms of the properties of an ideal inducible system.

INTRODUCTION

Chemically inducible systems for regulated gene expression are crucial tools for basic plant biology
research as well as biotechnology applications. They allow analysis of gene primary effects before
homeostatic mechanisms start to counteract and reveal a clear correlation between induction of a
transgene and occurrence of an altered phenotype. Their applications include expression of gene
products that interfere with regeneration, growth or reproduction; regulated expression at different
stages of plant development and for specific duration; conditional genetic complementation, co-
suppression and overexpression studies. However, to adapt existing inducible systems developed in
model plants to other species including monocots and crops *e.g.* rice, it is not an easy task.

The systems typically contain two transcription units. Whereas the first unit employs a constitutive
or tissue-specific promoter to express a chemical-responsive transcription factor, the second unit
consists of multiple copies of the transcription factor binding site linked to a minimal plant
promoter, which is used to express the target gene. The most optimal systems developed to date
include dexamethasone-inducible GVG (Aoyama and Chua, 1997) and pOp6/LhGR (Craft *et al.*, 2005;
Samalova *et al.*, 2005) systems, estrogen-inducible XVE (Zuo *et al.*, 2000), ecdysone agonist-inducible
VGE (Padidam *et al.*, 2003; Koo *et al.*, 2004) and ethanol-inducible *alc* systems (Caddick *et al.*, 1998;
Roslan *et al.*, 2001; Salter *et al.*, 1998). Their characteristics were compared in details (Moore *et al.*,
2006) and potential applications in plant biotechnology reviewed (Corrado and Karali, 2009)
previously.

Rice is the world`s staple diet crop and there have been several attempts to develop an inducible
system for gene manipulation in this important monocotyledonous species. The XVE system was
tested in rice (Sreekala *et al.*, 2005; Okuzaki *et al.*, 2011) but its use remains very limited due to the
lack of systemic movement of the estradiol inducer (Hirose *et al.*, 2012, Chen *et al.*, 2017). Other two
steroid-inducible systems tested, GVG and a modular gene expression system (Vlad *et al.*, 2019)
derived from the pOp6/LhGR system met with a mixed success in rice, as they caused severe growth
and developmental defects of the plants (Ouwerkerk *et al.*, 2001; Vlad *et al.*, 2019).

Therefore, easier and more common strategy exploited in rice so far is the use of conditional
promotors that can be activated by heat (Khattri *et al.*, 2011; Sun *et al.*, 2012; Rerksiri *et al.*, 2013),
pathogens (Helliwell *et al.*, 2013; Quilis *et al.*, 2014) or wounding (Quilis *et al.*, 2014), oxidative (Woo
et al., 2015) and other stresses (Nakashirma *et al.*, 2007). For various other crops promoters induced
by heat in maize (Du *et al.*, 2019) and potato (Kopertekh *et al.*, 2018), by light in tomato (Timerbaev
and Dolgov, 2019) or cold in barely (Eva *et al.*, 2018), wheat (Meszaros *et al.*, 2015) and sweet
potato (Honma *et al.*, 2019) were adopted. Often the conditional expression is combined with the
Cre-lox technology (Khattri *et a*l., 2011; Meszaros *et al.*, 2015; Eva *et al.*, 2018; Kopertekh *et al.*,
2018; Du *et al.*, 2019) or an alternative site-specific recombinase system (Woo *et al.*, 2015) to
generate marker-free genetically modified plants.

Adaptation of the breakthrough CRISPR/Cas9 technology to plants (Jiang *et al.*, 2013) including rice
(Zhang *et al.*, 2014) allows genome editing and creates a powerful tool for engineering knockdown,
knockout or chimeric plants. The genome editing system was combined with a heat-shock-inducible
promoter to generate heritable mutations in rice (Nandy *et al.*, 2019) and a virus-inducible system
was developed that confers resistance to geminiviruses in model plants *Arabidopsis* and tobacco (Ji

et al., 2018). Only recently, the technology was integrated with the estradiol-inducible XVE-based
cell-type-specific system (Siligato *et al.*, 2016; Zuo *et al.*, 2000) to create an inducible genome editing
(IGE) system in *Arabidopsis* that enables efficient generation of target gene knockouts in desired cell
types and developmental stage (Wang *et al.*, 2020).

Over the years we and others have made considerable efforts to evolve the dexamethasone-
inducible transcription activation systems pOp6/LhGR into a desirable tool for the growing demands
on modern gene technologies. It is a widely used system for which a comprehensive library of cell-
type specific activator lines was created in *Arabidopsis* (Schurholz *et al.*, 2018); the system was
combined with artificial micro-RNA (amiRNA) to knockdown multigene expression (Goth *et al.*, 2012;
Samalova *et al.*, 2020) and hairpin RNAi molecules to silence gene expression (Wielopolska *et al.*,
2005; Liu and Yoder, 2016). Apart from *Arabidopis* (Craft *et al.*, 2005) and tobacco (Samalova *et al.*,
2005) the system was tested in various other species including citrus plant (Rossignol *et al.*, 2014)
and *Medicago truncatula* (Liu and Yoder, 2016) and most recently in rice (Vlad *et al.*, 2019).
However, the specific modifications made to the original version of the pOp6/LhGR system caused
undesirable effects in plants.

This report describes the functionality of pOp6/LhGR system in rice, its stability over several
generations, time course and dose response characteristics, optimization of induction by testing
various steroids as inducers and finally methods of systemic and localised applications without
causing any detrimental effects in rice even after prolonged induction.

RESULTS

The pOp6/LhGR system is functional in rice

The pOp6/LhGR system (Craft *et al.*, 2005; Samalova *et al.*, 2005) comprises of a transcription
activator LhGR which is a fusion between a high-affinity DNA-binding mutant of *Escherichia coli lac*
repressor, *lacI*[His17], transcription-activation-domain-II of Gal4 from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and the
ligand-binding domain (LBD) of the rat glucocorticoid receptor (GR). The pOp6 is a chimeric
promoter that consists of six copies of *lac* operators (*lacOp*) cloned upstream of a minimal
cauliflower mosaic virus (*CaMV*) 35S promoter (-50 to +8) and is apparently silent when introduced
into plants. The principle of the system is that in the absence of the steroid ligand, dexamethasone
(Dex), the transcription factor is trapped in an inactive complex via interaction of the GR LBD and
heat-shock protein HSP90. However, upon induction with Dex, this complex is disrupted and the
LhGR activator binds to the pOp6 promotor and induces expression of the target gene of interest.

To adopt the pOp6/LhGR system for rice, firstly we choose a binary pVec8-overexpression vector
(Kim and Dolan, 2016) in which we placed the LhGR2 activator sequence that incorporates the
Arabidopsis codon-optimized *GAL4* sequence (Rutherford *et al.*, 2005) under the control of a maize
ubiquitin promoter that contains an intron (*pZmUbi*). The inclusion of an intron is well known to
greatly increase expression efficiency in monocots, but similar effects have been reported in dicots
and other eukaryotes (Rose, 2004). Secondly, we checked in the literature (Mitsuhara *et al.*, 1996;
Segal *et al.*, 2003) that none of the sequences of the pOpIn2 bidirectional reporter cassette

(Samalova *et al.*, 2019) including the *lacOp*, minimal promoters and tobacco mosaic virus (*TMV*)
omega (Ω) translation enhancers have been reported to be toxic or non-functional in monocots and
cloned it into the activator construct to create pVecLhGR2 as depicted in Fig. 1 and Supp. Fig. 1. For
simplicity of testing the regulated expression of the pOp6/LhGR in rice, we used the *uidA* (encoding
β-glucuronidase; GUS) and the yellow fluorescent protein (*YFP*) as the genes of interest.

To create stable transgenic rice lines, we used a protocol for *Agrobacterium*-mediated
transformation of calli induced from seeds of *Oryza sativa spp. japonica* cultivar Kitaake as described
by Vlad *et al.*, 2019. We generated several independent transgenic lines (T1) in which the induced
GUS staining was comparable to that from the constitutive promoter *pZmUbi* (Fig. 1B) and the *YFP*
expression (Fig. 1C) was inducible by Dex, proving that the pOp6/LhGR system is in principle
functional in rice. However, the transformation efficiency was relatively low and to induce higher
levels of expression required some optimization as described below.

Transformation efficiency and reliability of induction in subsequent generations

We tested GUS activity by histochemical staining in 120 generated putative transformants that
included mostly little plantlets with a piece of callus and some roots (Table 1). We induced them in
liquid ½ MS with 30 μM Dex and stained for GUS activity 24h later. Approximately a half of them
showed visible (by eye) GUS staining in roots after 2h and shoots after 4h. The reaction was stopped
and scored at 24h with the following pattern: 30.8% root staining only, 9.2% shoots only, 12.5%
stained shoots, roots and callus (data not shown).

We grew 166 putative primary transformants (T0) into maturity and tested the first generation of
seedlings (T1) for resistance to hygromycin by germinating them on ½ MS medium supplemented
with the antibiotics (Table 1). Only 33 lines germinated and grew, suggesting that only 20 % were
real transformants, out of which 8 lines (25 %) showed positive GUS staining after induction with
Dex. Five most strongly inducible lines were grown to the next generation (T2) and these lines
retained HYG-resistance and showed positive GUS staining upon Dex induction. Two lines (65 and
121) were tested further and proved stable inducible GUS expression in the subsequent (T3)
generation (Fig. 2A).

We determine the GUS activity fluorometrically in segregating T1 and T2 progeny in roots (Fig. 2B)
and shoots (Fig. 2C) of 7-day-old rice seedlings germinated and grown on ½ MS plates containing 30
μM Dex or the same concentration of DMSO (-Dex control). Interestingly, the induced GUS activity
was up to 8-fold higher in roots compared to shoots and in some cases in roots comparable to the
activity from the constitutive *pZmUbi* promoter. Perhaps a low transpiration rate in Petri dishes
impaired the uptake and distribution of Dex into the shoots.

Time course and dose response characteristics of Dex-induced GUS activity

To characterise the induction property of the pOp6/LhGR system in rice we performed time course
and dose response experiments. To increase the efficiency of induction in shoots, we induced the
newly developed leaves of app. 2-week old seedlings in open air condition by paining the leaves with
a Dex solution supplemented with 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20. Significant increase in fluorometrically
determined GUS activity was detected 12h after induction with 10 μM Dex in two independent

transgenic lines (65B and 121C) and reached app. a half of the *pZmUbi* constitutive promoter activity

within 72h of induction (Fig. 3A). The GUS activity was induced in plants treated with 0.01 μM Dex

and while one line (65B) reached maximum levels of induction with 0.1 μM Dex, the other line

(121C) increased the activity with increasing Dex concentration and reached levels similar to the

constitutive *pZmUbi* promoter with 10 μM Dex after 48h induction (Fig. 3B).

To confirm the similar characteristic of the pOp6/LhGR system in roots, we induced detached roots

of 10-day old seedlings in liquid ½ MS media supplemented with increasing concentrations of Dex

and performed histochemical GUS staining after specific time durations. First visible GUS staining

was detected mainly in developing lateral roots and tips after 12h of induction and increased in

intensity throughout the root system up to 72h tested (Fig. 3C). The maximal GUS staining intensity

was detected with 1 μM Dex, the lowest concentration tested (Fig. 3D), predominantly in growing

root tips after 24h induction.

We also tested the feasibility of inducing whole seedlings (10-day old) in a liquid ½ MS medium

supplemented with 10 μM Dex. Histochemical GUS staining revealed the induction after 12h

predominantly in roots and the staining pattern did not change significantly in the 48h time-span

tested (data not shown).

Optimization of induction by testing different steroids as inducers

We tried to improve the levels of induction of the pOp6/LhGR system in rice by testing different

glucocorticoid derivatives (steroids) as inducers. In an attempt to reduce the surface tension at the

air–liquid interface that is high in rice leaves due to epicuticular waxes preventing water vapor loss,

we tested different concentrations of Tween-20 as the wetting agent rather than Silwet L-77 used

previously (Craft *et al.*, 2005; Samalova *et al.*, 2005). Fig. 4A (i-iv) shows clear differences in the

intensity of GUS staining of the 10-day-old shoots (leaves and stems) induced with a 30 μM Dex

solution supplemented with 0.1% Tween-20 compared to 0.01%. Almost no staining was visible

without the addition of the surfactant apart from damaged cells.

It is known that other glucocorticoid derivatives such as triamcinolone acetonide (TA) or

deoxycorticosterone (Doc) can be used as inducers to replace Dex (Aoyama and Chua, 1997). We

tested both in a 30 μM water solution supplemented with 0.1% Tween-20 (Fig. 4A v and vi) and

compared the GUS staining intensities. Doc induction was negligible; however, TA induction was

comparable if not higher than with Dex. To confirm this observation, we repeated the experiment on

cuttings of the same leaf of 6-week-old plants that were submerged in water supplemented with

0.1% Tween-20 and 10 μM Dex or 10 μM TA for 24h (Fig. 4B). Depending on the efficiency of the

substrate penetration, the GUS staining pattern with both inducers was comparable, but more

importantly, also comparable to the staining of pZmUbi::GUS line of the same age. No GUS staining

was detected without the inducers (Fig. 4B, 0.1% Tween-20).

We expanded the range of possible steroid inducers readily available and tested them in a 30 μM

water solution supplemented with 0.1% Tween-20. We painted leaves of 5-week-old plants (Fig. 4C,

lines 65A top and 121C bottom) with steroids: betamethasone (Bet), fludrocortisone acetate (Flu),

prednisone (Pre) or prednisolone (Plo) and Dex and performed histochemical GUS staining 24h later.

None of the new glucocorticoids reached GUS activity levels comparable to Dex in both transgenic

lines tested and the GUS staining was also much weaker than that of the constitutive *pZmUbi*
promotor activity.

Systemic and localised induction of soil-grown plants

To test the feasibility of inducing gene expression at later stages of plant development, either in a
systemic or in a localized manner, Dex or the glucocorticoid TA were applied to soil-grown plants by
watering (subterranean irrigation) or painting. Local induction of expression was detected after 24 h
when leaves were painted with a 10 μM steroid solution supplemented with 0.1 % Tween-20 (Fig.
5A). The treatment was repeated and GUS activity determined 24 h and 72 h following first
application of the inducer. Interestingly, the TA treatment doubled the induced levels of GUS activity
compared to Dex, and both treatments exceeded the levels of *pZmUbi* promoter activity at 72 h post
induction (hpi).

Similarly, plants were watered with a 30 μM steroid solution and the treatment was repeated twice
at 0h and 24h later. The induction triggered the reporter gene expression at the whole plant level as
GUS activity was detectable in leaves 24 h after application of TA and 72h with both Dex and TA (Fig.
5B). The induced levels again exceeded the GUS activity detected in the pZmUbi::GUS line, however,
only with one line tested (65B). The variability in the measurements could be due to segregating
plant populations and a small sample size.

Both painting and watering experiments were repeated with a small modification of the treatment
done at 2-day intervals and leaves were imaged using a confocal laser scanning microscope to
observe induction of the second reporter gene, YFP (Fig. 5C-K). A bright YFP signal was detected
already 24h after paining the leaves (Fig. 5C) but not watering the plants (Fig. 5D) with Dex. The
signal became stronger at 96 hpi with both methods of treatment (Fig. 5F and 5G) and more cells
seemed to be expressing YFP with the TA treatment than Dex (Fig. 5I and 5J). No signal was detected
without any induction (Fig. 5E and 5H) as in the WT (Fig. 5K).

To summarise, higher levels of GUS activity and *YFP* expression were obtained by painting the leaves
rather than watering the plants and using TA at equivalent concentrations of Dex, suggesting that TA
is more potent inducer. Thus, whole plant and single leaf phenotypes can be assessed after
induction using both methods.

Long-term induction of the pOp6/LhGR system has no negative effects on rice plants

The final experiment that we conducted was to observe whether there are any undesirable effects
due to long term induction of the pOp6/LhGR system in rice. We watered 4-week old plants with
either 30 μM Dex or 30 μM TA or a control solution (DMSO) at 2-day intervals for a week (Fig. 6, left)
or two weeks and let to recover for further 6 weeks (Fig. 6, right). The images suggest that the plants
grew and developed normally compared to WT plants treated with the control solution. However,
for the long-term induction through soil, DMSO should be avoided and ethanol should be used as a
solvent for the inducers to prevent accumulation of DMSO in the soil over several weeks of watering
(Moore *et al.*, 2006; Samalova *et al.*, 2019).

DISCUSSION

A construct design: possible reasons for toxicity, leakiness and silencing

In the publication of Vlad and colleagues (2019) the activator LhGR was codon optimized for use in
rice (*rcoLhGR*) and further "domesticated" to remove all recognition sites for the Golden Gate
cloning. However, severe growth defects on 10 μM Dex media were observed with all their
constructs tested and in all transgenic lines. As addition of isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside
(IPTG) to the growth media reduced the severity of the growth arrest phenotype, the authors
concluded that it was a direct consequence of LhGR activity. However, in our work, we used the
activator LhGR2 version that was only partially codon optimized for *Arabidopsis* to eliminate
premature polyadenylation events in the Gal4 domain (Rutherford *et al*., 2005) and we did not
observe any undesirable growth defects. Therefore, it is possible that the rice codon optimization
rendered the system too efficient and prone to non-specific off-target binding due to high rcoLhGR
protein levels in the growth inhibited lines. In this regard, to optimize efficiency of an expression
system it is recommended to maximize the translational efficiency of a gene of interest (Moore *et*
al., 2006). This can be achieved by taking some simple steps such as ensuring that the initiation
codon conforms to the consensus for efficient initiation in plants (Koziel *et al*., 1996) and including
translation enhancers in the 5`UTR such as the *TMV* Ω in our study.

Similarly, the GVG synthetic transcription factor that incorporates the glucocorticoid receptor (GR)
ligand binding domain was found to be detrimental when activated in rice (Owerkverk *et al*., 2001)
and other species including *Arabidopsis* (Kang *et al*., 1999; tobacco, Amirsadeghi *et al.,* 2009; *Lotus*
japonicus, Andersen *et al*., 2003). The growth perturbations were caused probably by the GVG
activator that was binding to cis-regulatory elements in the plant genome with sequence homology
to *GAL4* upon Dex activation (Kang *et al*., 1999). Nevertheless, the system was used successfully in a
number of studies in rice (Chern *et al*., 2013; Nakayama *et al*., 2013; Onodera *et a*l., 2018, Park *et al*.,
2012; Qu *et al*., 2009) in which the negative effects were reduced by shortening the time of Dex
exposure or selecting lines with low GVG expression levels and mild phenotype that could be used as
activator lines.

Moreover, when designing a construct for an inducible system, care must be taken to ensure that
enhancers in the promoter that drives the activator do not activate the target promoter (*e.g.* pOp6;
Moore *et al*., 2006) as such arrangement might result in transgene activation in the absence of
inducer. In the pOp6/rcoLhGR constructs (Vlad *et al*., 2019), the arrangement was not ideal, as the
pOp6 promoter was positioned directly next to the *pZmUbi* promoter driving the *rcoLhGR*.
Furthermore, two other potent promoters were used on the same T-DNA; the constitutive rice actin
promoter (*pOsACT*) to drive dsRed for identification of transgenic seeds, and another copy of
pOsACT or the CaMV 35S promoter (for hygromycin-resistance selectable marker) that can also
affect the expression of a transgene (Yoo *et al*., 2005). Curiously, the authors also used an intron in
the reporter gene (GUS) placed again right next to the *pOp6* promoter and revealed that the
presence of the intron had an enhancing effect on GUS activity levels both in the absence and
presence of inducer.

Also, it must be recognized that any transgene may be susceptible to post-transcriptional gene
silencing (PTGS) if transcripts accumulate to sufficient levels whether it is expressed constitutively or

when induced (Moore *et al.*, 2006). Individual reporter genes have a gene-specific threshold of
mRNA abundance that will trigger PTGS (Schubert *et al.*, 2004) and the probability of silencing of an
inducible transgene locus in increased if the locus is induced (Abranches *et al.*, 2005). In an attempt
to minimize gene silencing, in our construct design we tried not to repeat the same sequence more
than once, for example we used different polyadenylation signals (namely the octopine synthase
terminator Tocs, nopaline synthase terminator Tnos, and T35S; Fig. 1A). However, we were not able
to avoid silencing as only 25 % of hygromycin-resistant transgenic lines (T1) displayed GUS activity
after Dex induction compared to 50 % of tested transgenic calli (T0). Others described similar
decrease, for example a reporter gene (GUSPlus) was expressed in 84% of rice calli but only in 25-
68% of adult plants (Wu *et al.*, 2003); and with the XVE system only 50 % of calli derived from
inducible T1 seeds showed detectable GFP signal (Okuzaki *et al.*, 2011).

pOp6/LhGR compared with other systems: is there an ideal inducible system for rice?

The development of chemical-inducible systems for tight control of plant gene expression is a
challenging task. There are a number of properties that are required for an ideal system, such as low
basal expression level, high inducibility, specificity and dynamic range of response with respect to
inducer. Also, fast response and induction by various methods is desirable. An ideal system should
work in several plant species and should not cause any adverse physiological effects in plants by
itself or its inducer. The inducer is further required to show high specificity for the transgene, high
efficiency at low concentrations and must not be found in target plants.

The pOp6/LhGR system described here **is fast**, first GUS activity was detected in painted leaves (Fig.
3A) and visible GUS staining in growing root tips (Fig. 3C) after 12h of induction and increased up to
72h tested. Similarly, with the rcoLhGR activator, 6h of induction was sufficient to induce high levels
of GUS activity in transgenic calli and reached maximum levels at 24-96h depending on the construct
(maximum levels of activity were reached after 24h in lines containing constructs with introns in the
reporter gene but required 4 days of induction in the intron-less versions) (Vlad *et al.*, 2019). On the
other hand, the GVG system tested in rice (Ouwerkerk *et al.*, 2001) required 4 days for the activity to
be detected and 2 weeks of induction for GUS activities to reach levels comparable to those
conferred by the strong *CaMV 35S* promoter. With the XVE system, a GFP signal was detected in rice
calli 48 h after induction (with 1 μM 17-β-estradiol) and reached maximum (with treatment at 25
μM) in 8 days. However, in calli and leaves of transgenic lines the GFP signals were weaker than
those in the leaves of p35S::GFP line, only in roots the signals were similar with 17-β-estradiol
treatment at > 10 μM (Okuzaki *et al.*, 2011).

The pOp6/LhGR system is **very sensitive**, 0.01 μM Dex was sufficient to induce GUS activity in
painted leaves (Fig. 3B) and in roots of *in vitro* grown seedlings of the pOp6/rcoLhGR (Vlad *et al.*,
2019). Interestingly, in some lines maximum levels of induction were reached with 0.1 μM Dex,
while others required 10 μM Dex to reach levels similar to the constitutive *pZmUbi* promoter (Fig.
3B). This makes the pOp6/LhGR system ten-times more sensitive than the GVG system that required
minimum of 0.1 μM Dex for induction and 1-10 μM for maximum.

The pOp6/LhGR system **is tightly regulated and strong**, the average fold induction was app. 500 in
shoots of plants induced *in vitro* (Fig. 2C) or in soil by Dex, however, reached 1000-fold induction

when plants were treated with TA (Fig. 5). In roots the magnitude of Dex-induction reached at least 1000- to 6000-fold (Fig. 2B), similar to the values reported for the GVG system (Ouwerkerk *et al*., 2001). Both the pOp6/LhGR as well as the pOp6/rcoLhGR systems used the same line that constitutively expressed a synthetic GUS variant from *Staphylococcus* (GUSPlus) under the control of the *pZmUbi* promoter as a positive control. The GUSPlus was reported to be ten-fold more active than the enzyme encoded by *E. coli uidA* that was used in the inducible constructs (Broothaerts *et al*., 2005; Jefferson *et al*., 2003), suggesting that activation of the pOp6 promoter by the activators is very effective.

The pOp6/LhGR system is **inducible by various methods** *in vitro* and in soil-grown plants. Painting the leaves with an inducer solution supplemented with 0.1% Tween-20 (to help the inducer to penetrate through the protective wax layer) proved to be more effective than subterranean irrigation (watering). It is worth to note that using these methods of application, TA proved to be almost twice more efficient inducer than Dex (Fig. 5). This could be due to the nature of the inducer as Dex could be more rapidly metabolized or compartmentalized than TA (Aoyama and Chua, 1997). Ouwerkerk and colleagues (2001) reported that Dex was taken up efficiently by roots of mature plants in hydroponics and induced GUS activity throughout the whole plant body.

The major limitation and possible reasons for low levels of target gene induction in rice leaves using the XVE system is inefficient estradiol uptake from hydroponics. Interestingly, cut leaf segments placed in liquid MS media with 10 μM estradiol showed detectable GFP fluorescence in whole leaf segments within 48 h (Okuzaki *et al*., 2011) and similar activation was confirmed by PCR in another study (Hirose *et al*., 2012). Also spraying of leaves with the inducer proved as possible method of induction (Hirose *et al*., 2012). The limiting factor therefore seems to be the estradiol uptake that is depending on the roots. The inducer might have been trapped by XVE expressed in roots or diffused and attenuated in leaves. Interestingly, activation by soaking transgenic seeds (Chen *et al*., 2017) with estradiol solution induced highly efficient site-specific recombination in germinating embryos, resulting in high-level expression of target gene or RNAi cassette in intact rice plants.

The pOp6/LhGR system **is not toxic in rice** and does not cause any undesirable negative developmental growth effects even at higher concentration of Dex (up to 30 μM tested) and after prolonged exposure of the plants (Fig. 6). Very unexpected were the findings of Vlad and colleagues (2019) that the pOp6/rcoLhGR transgenic plants manifested severe developmental perturbations when grown on concentrations > 0.1 μM Dex. The direct cause of these growth defects is not known, but the authors suggested that the rice genome contains sequences with high similarity to the *lacOp* sequence, suggesting non-specific activation of endogenous genes by Dex induction. Although, the pOp promoter was not activated by endogenous factors in maize (Moore *et al*., 2006; Segal *et al*., 2003) it is possible that the rice-codon optimization rendered the system too efficient. The off-target effects can be minimized by quenching with IPTG that acts as an effective antagonist for the LacI DNA binding domain in LhGR (Craft *et al.,* 2005).

Also, the GVG system caused growth defects in rice (Owerkverk *et al*., 2001) and other species (Kang *et al*., 1999; Andersen *et al*., 2003; Amirsadeghi *et al.,* 2009). It is not clear why GVG generates these effects as each domain of the molecule have been used successfully in other expression systems, however, one possibility is that GVG requires higher expression levels to achieve full promoter

activation, resulting perhaps in squelching or non-specific binding to *CCG(N11)CGG* sequences in the genome (Moore *et al.*, 2006). Apparently, the GVG level was not limiting for target-gene activation (Aoyama and Chua, 1997), therefore, selection of plants with a mild GVG phenotype in combination with optimized induction conditions was recommended for the system applications. Although, the XVE system had no effect on growth, all tested lines including controls grown in hydroponics presented a different root pattern with oestradiol treatment so the system does not appear to be suitable for root morphology studies (Okuzaki *et al.*, 2011).

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Construct preparation

To prepare the pVecLhGR2 construct (Fig. 1A, Fig. S1), firstly, the LhGR2 and the octopine synthase terminator (Tocs) sequences were amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using vector pOpIn2 (Samalova *et al.*, 2019) as the template. The two PCR fragments, LhGR2 (forward primer P1: 5'-AAAAAGGTACCATGGCTAGTGAAGCTCGAAAAACAAAG-3'; reverse primer P2: 5'-GCATATCTCATTAAAGCAGGACTCTAGTTCACTCCTTCTTAGGGTTAGGTGGAGTATC-3') and Tocs (forward primer P3: 5'-TACTCCACCTAACCCTAAGAAGGAGTGAACTAGAGTCCTGCTTTAATGAGATATGC-3'; reverse primer P4: 5'- AAAAAGGTACCCTAAGGCGCGCCGTTGTCG CAAAATTCGCCCTGGACCC -3') were joined together by overlapping PCR with primers P1 and P4 and cloned into the unique *Kpn*I site of the binary rice overexpression vector pVec8-*Kpn*IOX (Kim and Dolan, 2006). Secondly, an *Asc*I fragment containing the bidirectional pOp6 operator array together with *TMV* Ω translation enhancer sequences driving expression of YFP and GUS (including 35S terminator sequence) reporters of the pOpIn2YFP vector (generated by M. Kalde, I. Moore lab) was cloned into a unique *Asc*I site created in the previous cloning step. The correct orientation of the fragment as well as the LhGR2 in the final pVecLhGR2 vector was confirmed by sequencing.

Plant material and growth conditions

To generate stable transgenic rice lines, we used *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation of *Oryza sativa spp. japonica* cultivar Kitaake. Calli were induced from dehulled mature seeds before co-cultivation with *A. tumefaciens* strain EHA105 transformed with the pVecLhGR2 construct. Callus transformation and seedling regeneration were performed at 28 °C according to a protocol modified from Toki *et al.*, (2006) as described by Vlad *et al.*, 2019. Independent pVecLhGR2 lines were tested together with positive *pZmUbi*::*GUS* (Vlad *et al.*, 2019) and negative wild-type (WT) controls. Soil-grown plants were cultivated in a greenhouse at 28-30 °C with a 16h/8h photoperiod.

Methods of steroid induction – *in vitro*, painting and watering

Dexamethasone (Dex) was prepared as a 30 mM stock solution in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and stored at -20 °C. Similarly, we prepared stock solutions of betamethasone (Bet), deoxycorticosterone (Doc), fludrocortisone acetate (Flu), prednisone (Pre), prednisolone (Plo) and triamcinolone acetonide (TA), all purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. For each treatment, either a glucocorticoid (induction) or the equivalent volume of DMSO (control) were added to obtain desired concentration.

For application to *in vitro*, seedlings were grown on half strength Murashige and Skoog (1962) medium (½ MS medium) supplemented with 15g/l sucrose and with or without agar. Dex was added to the medium after autoclaving to obtain final working concentration, typically 30 μM Dex. Shoots and leaf cuttings were also induced in distilled water supplemented with 0.1% Tween-20 and a glucocorticoid inducer (10-30 μM).

For induction of soil grown plants, 4-week-old rice plants were either watered with 50 ml of 30 μM Dex or 30 μM TA or newly developed leaves (3rd leaf) were painted on both sides with 10 μM Dex or 10 μM TA solution supplemented with 0.1% Tween-20. The treatments were repeated at 2-day intervals for one or two weeks.

Analysis of ß- glucuronidase (GUS) reporter activity

Histochemical GUS staining and fluorometric GUS assay was performed according to Jefferson (1987) at 37 ^{o}C. Extracts were prepared from ground snap-frozen samples; the protein content was determined spectrophotometrically using Bio-Rad Protein Assay (Bio-Rad laboratories). The fluorogenic reaction was carried out in 96 well-plates using protein extraction buffer supplemented with 4-methylumbelliferyl ß-D-glucuronide (4-MUG) as a substrate. A standard curve of 4-MU was used to calculate the amount of 4-MU/unit of time. Activity was calculated from three technical replicates and expressed in pmoles 4-MU/min /μg protein.

Detection of YFP fluorescence

The YFP signal was detected using a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta confocal laser-scanning microscope with 514-nm excitation from an Argon laser and a BP535-590IR emission filter.

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TABLES

Table 1: Number of putative transformants and generated transgenic lines tested for hygromycin
(HYG) resistance and induction of GUS activity in subsequent generations.

Generation	No. plants tested	HYG resistant	GUS staining
T0	120	n.d.	63
T1	166	33	8
T2	5	5	5

573 **FIGURES AND FIGURE LEGENDS**

Figure 1: The pOp6/LhGR system in rice: a proof of principle

(A) A schematic representation of the pVecLhGR2 construct that contains the *Arabidopsis* codon-optimized *GAL4* sequence (Rutherford *et al.,* 2005) of the transcriptional activator LhGR2 driven by a *pZmUbi* promoter (containing an intron), a bidirectional pOp6 promotor version with two *TMV* Ω translation enhancers driving two reporter genes - *uidA* (encoding β-glucuronidase; GUS) and a yellow fluorescence protein (*YFP*), and a pCaMV35S::HYG selectable marker cassette conferring hygromycin resistance. The construct was assembled as detailed in Supplementary Figure S1. **(B)** Twelve-day-old rice seedlings of three independent transgenic lines (number 65, 100 and 121) histochemically stained for GUS activity that was induced by seedling transfer onto ½ MS plates containing 30 μM Dex or control DMSO (-Dex) for 6 days. Seedlings of pZmUbi::GUS and wild-type (WT) were included as controls. The arrows point to an example of damaged cells/ cuts where the GUS staining substrate (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl glucuronide; X-Gluc) penetrated inside the cells.

(C) Leaves of 4-week-old plant (line 121) were painted with 30 μM Dex or control solution (-Dex) and imaged using a confocal laser scanning microscope 96 h later to detect YFP fluorescence. WT was included as a control for autofluorescence. The scale bar is 2 μm.

Figure 2: Reliability of inducible expression in subsequent generations and GUS activity in rice

(A) Ten-day-old rice seedlings (line 65) of generation T1, T2 (A and B) and T3 (A1, A2 and B1, B2) histochemically stained for GUS activity induced by germinating and growing the seedlings on ½ MS plates containing 30 μM Dex or control DMSO (-Dex) for 10 days. Seedlings of pZmUbi::GUS were included as a control for the GUS staining. **(B, C)** GUS activity determined fluorometrically in roots (B) and shoots (C) of 7-day-old rice seedlings (lines 65 and 121, T1 and T2) germinated and grown on ½ MS plates containing 30 μM Dex or control DMSO (-Dex) for 7 days. Seedlings of WT and pZmUbi::GUS were included as controls. The error bars represent SD.

Figure 3: Time course accumulation of induced GUS activity and dose-response of the pOp6/LhGR system in rice

GUS activity determined fluorometrically in 7-day-old rice seedlings (lines 65B and 121C) germinated on ½ MS plates (vertically placed in the incubator) and then stood up in 15 ml Falcon tubes with 2 ml water for further 5 days. The newly developed leaves were induced by painting with water supplemented with 0.1% Tween-20 and **(A)** 10 µM Dex for 0, 6, 12, 24, 48 and 72h or **(B)** with 0, 0.01, 0.1, 1 and 10 µM Dex for 48h. Seedlings of WT and pZmUbi::GUS were included as controls. The error bars represent SD. **(C)** Roots of 10-day-old seedlings (lines 65A, 121C) were induced in liquid ½ MS with 30 µM Dex for 0, 12, 24. 48 and 72h, then histochemically stained for GUS activity. Representative images are shown. **(D)** Roots of 10-day-old seedlings (lines 65A, 121C) were induced in liquid ½ MS for 24h with 0, 1, 3, 10 and 30 µM Dex, then histochemically stained for GUS activity. Representative images are shown.

Figure 4: Optimization of the pOp6/LhGR induction in rice by testing different steroid inducers

(A) Shoots of 10-day-old seedlings (lines 65A, 121C) were induced in water supplemented with either 0.01% or 0.1% Tween-20 and 30 μM steroid inducer Dex, deoxycorticosterone (Doc) or triamcinolone acetonide (TA) for 24 h, then histochemically stained for GUS activity. **(B)** Leaf cuttings of the same leaf of 6-week-old plants (lines 65A, 121C) were induced in water supplemented with

618   0.1% Tween-20 and 10 μM Dex or 10 μM TA for 24h, then histochemically stained for GUS activity.

619   Leaves of pZmUbi::GUS were included as controls. Representative images are shown. **(C)** Leaves of 5-

620   week-old plants (lines 65A top, 121C bottom) were induced by painting with water supplemented

621   with 0.1% Tween-20 and 30 μM steroid inducer: Dex, betamethasone (Bet), fludrocortisone acetate

622   (Flu), prednisone (Pre) or prednisolone (Plo) for 24 h, then histochemically stained for GUS activity.

Figure 5: Expression characteristics of the pOp6/LhGR system induced in soil-grown plants by painting and watering

Four-week-old rice plants grown in soil were induced either with TA or Dex by **(A)** painting with 10 μM solution supplemented with 0.1 % Tween-20 or **(B)** watering with 30 μM solutions. The treatment was repeated twice at 0h and 24h later. Leaves were sampled and GUS activity

determined 24h and 72h following first application of the inducer. WT and pZmUbi::GUS plants were
used as controls. Three plants from segregating populations were used for each treatment. The error
bars represent SD. **(C-K)** Four-week-old plants (line 121C) were induced as above except the
treatment was repeated 48h after first induction. Leaves were imaged using a confocal laser
scanning microscope at 24h and 96h post-induction, YFP signal in green, chlorophyll
autofluorescence in red. Scale bar is 20μm.

Figure 6: Long-term effect of the pOp6/LhGR system induction on mature rice plants

Four-week-old plants (65B and 121A) were watered with 30 μM Dex or 30 μM TA or a control solution containing DMSO (600 ml per a tray of 8 plants) at 2-day intervals for a week (left) or two

641 weeks and let to recover for further 6 weeks (right). WT plants treated with the DMSO solution were
642 used as controls. Scale bar represents 10 cm. Representative images are shown.

644 **SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES**

646 **Supplementary Figure S1: Cloning strategy for preparation of the pVecLhGR2 construct**