The CaMV 35S promoter is the most widely used promoter in plant biotechnology - despite
 being derived from a pathogenic virus. How and why did that happen? Here's...

### **A Short History of the CaMV 35S Promoter**

#### **Marc Somssich**

Persson Lab, School of BioSciences, the University of Melbourne, Parkville 3010, VIC, Australia Email: marc.somssich@unimelb.edu.au ; Twitter: @somssichm

#### 7

4

5

6

#### 8 The Mosaic Disease (1921 – 1937)

9 The effects of the Cauliflower mosaic virus (CaMV) were first noted in 1921 in Chinese cabbage, where it caused mosaic-like necrotic lesions on leaf surfaces<sup>1</sup>. In the following years, the disease 10 was regularly observed on Chinese cabbage, turnip or pot-herb mustard<sup>2</sup>. However, it was only in 11 the **1930s**, that scientists invested more time and resources to investigate the disease<sup>2</sup>. This was 12 spawned by severe yield losses on cabbage fields in the American Midwest, which strikingly 13 were preceded by a heavy infestation of the field with aphids<sup>2</sup>. During this time, similar mosaic-14 15 like lesions were found on cauliflower in California, prompting investigations if these were caused by the same disease<sup>3</sup>. In a **1937** study, using infected cauliflower plants collected in 16 17 California, C. M. Tompkins found that he could transmit the disease from the infected 18 cauliflower plants to 51 different vegetable varieties, all belonging to the crucifer family 19 (Cruciferae/Brassicaceae)<sup>3</sup>. This family includes, e.g., cauliflower, broccoli, cabbage, kale, turnip, kohlrabi or Chinese cabbage<sup>3</sup>. In the same study, he found that at least three different 20 21 aphids can function as insect vectors, all three common inhabitants of cauliflower crop fields, thereby indicating that it is indeed a virus that causes the disease<sup>3</sup>. Although originally referred to 22 23 simply as the 'mosaic disease', the virus was named Cauliflower mosaic virus, due to its 24 described isolation from cauliflower<sup>3</sup>.

#### 25 The Cauliflower Mosaic Virus (1937 – 1978)

In the late **1940s**, research on the CaMV intensified once more, this time primarily in Europe, where it caused devastating losses in cauliflower and broccoli harvests across Great Britain<sup>4</sup>. As this was just after the end of World War II the impact was especially dramatic, as food was

already a scarcity<sup>4</sup>. One of the first important findings in the following years was that CaMV is a 29 30 non-circulative (and non-persistent) virus, meaning that it does not enter its aphid vector, but just 31 'sticks' to the insects stylet, and is thereby transported from an infected plant to a healthy one<sup>5</sup>. 32 Interestingly, in 2007, researchers were able to pinpoint the exact position, at which the virus is perceived by the insect, an area roughly 5 µm long and less than 1 µm wide at the most distal tip 33 34 of the aphid's stylet<sup>6</sup>. Through another important finding in the **1960s**, the CaMV was identified as the first plant virus containing double-stranded DNA<sup>7</sup>. This is of particular importance, 35 36 because this feature is a pre-requisite for the viral DNA to be transcribed in plant cells'. 37 Furthermore, this was the first indication that CaMV is a pararetrovirus (in contrast to the more 38 commonly known single-strand RNA-containing retroviruses), even though this was only determined much later<sup>8</sup>. In **1980**, the whole genome (8024 double-stranded, circular base pairs 39 (bp)) of the virus was annotated and found to contain six putative open reading frames $^{9,10}$ . At this 40 point, scientists started to focus on deciphering the molecular details of plant infection by the 41 42 virus. In the early 1980s it was discovered that the six coding regions are transcribed as only two mRNAs, the short, monocistronic 19S RNA, and the whole-genome covering 35S mRNA<sup>11</sup>. 43 44 While the 19S RNA encodes a single protein, which was later found to be involved in gene 45 silencing suppression in the host cell, the long 35S RNA serves as a template for whole genome replication, and is furthermore spliced into four individual mRNAs<sup>12-14</sup>. The 35S RNA also has 46 47 two very curious features; (I) although serving also as a template for the genome, it is actually 48 longer than the genome, as the 5' and 3' ends overlap by 200 nucleotides (nt); and (II) it has an unusually long 600 nt leader sequence<sup>15</sup>. This 600 nt leader was later found to be transcribed into 49 50 'massive amounts' of 21 to 24 nt sense and antisense RNAs, which could function as 'decoys' 51 during infection, to divert the host cell's silencing machinery from the actual coding 35S mRNAs<sup>16</sup>. However, the most important finding during that period was that the 19S and 35S 52 53 reading frames were found to be highly expressed in infected plant cells, implying that the virus 54 must have inserted its own double-stranded DNA into the plant cell, and that this inserted piece 55 of viral DNA must contain all elements necessary to initiate transcription at high levels in host cells<sup>11,15</sup>. 56

### 57 The Cauliflower Mosaic Virus meets Plant Biotechnology (1978 – 1985)

58 At this point it is important to note that in the late 1970s and early **1980s**, the field of plant 59 molecular biology and genetics/genomics was still in its infancy<sup>17</sup>. *Arabidopsis thaliana* had just

60 been accepted as a model system (see also 'A Short History of Arabidopsis thaliana (L.) Heynh. Columbia-0<sup>,18</sup>)<sup>17</sup>. Direct transformation of a living plant with a transgene was not possible yet 61 and very few individual genes had been cloned or studied at all. Furthermore, only a single 62 promoter functional in plants had been fully described - the bacterial octopine synthase gene 63 promoter, while a single promoter from plants, the pea *Ribulose-1.5-bisphosphate carboxylase* 64 small subunit promoter, had been roughly located<sup>17,19,20</sup>. Accordingly, when it became clear that 65 CaMV inserted its DNA into plant cells, and that this DNA was then expressed at high levels, 66 67 plant biologists immediately recognized the potential use of CaMV as a cloning vector for plant transformation, and for expressing their genes of interest in the plant<sup>11,21,22</sup>. This resulted in two 68 69 paths of research: First, researchers tried to insert a foreign gene into the genome of CaMV to 70 determine whether this will get inserted and expressed in the host cell as well. Secondly, they 71 attempted to identify the exact DNA sequences responsible for the strong expression of the CaMV genes in plant cells. Regarding the first path, researchers quickly progressed, and in the 72 73 mid-eighties had successfully cloned bacterial and mammalian genes into the CaMV genome, and demonstrated that these genes were then transferred and expressed in plant cells<sup>23-25</sup>. 74 75 However, they also realized that CaMV would only tolerate the insertion of short DNA fragments 76 (~250 bp), and with the recent establishment of Agrobacterium-mediated plant transformation (see also 'A Short History of Plant Transformation<sup>26</sup>), the research in CaMV-mediated plant 77 transformation was subsequently abandoned in the early 1990s<sup>27,28</sup>. However, the second research 78 79 path, the identification of the exact sequences that control gene expression in CaMV-infected 80 cells, turned out to be a much bigger success.

#### 81 The CaMV 35S Promoter (1985-2000)

Up until 1985 it was almost impossible to over- or misexpress a gene of interest in planta -82 83 nowadays an invaluable and indispensable tool to study the function of a specific gene. The 84 identification of the CaMV 35S promoter would finally change this. In order to define the exact 85 sequences controlling viral gene expression *in planta*, researchers first created several deletion variants of the roughly 1000 bp promoter region of the 35S gene and fused these variants 86 upstream of the human growth hormone (hgh) gene<sup>29</sup>. Notably, they used Agrobacterium 87 *tumefaciens* to transform plant cells with their 35S::hgh variants, not the CaMV itself<sup>29</sup>. They 88 89 found that DNA sequences 46 bp upstream of the 35S gene resulted in minimal expression, while a 343 bp fragment led to strong gene expression across all plant tissues tested<sup>29</sup>. The full 343 bp 90

91 segment was therefore designated the 'CaMV 35S promoter', while the 46 bp segment was considered as the so-called 'minimal promoter'<sup>29</sup>. In follow-up studies, these 343 bp could then 92 93 be further subdivided into several individual stretches, which would promote expression in different cell types or tissues, in either an additive or combinatorial fashion<sup>30,31</sup>. Based on these 94 95 groundbreaking findings, numerous versions of the promoter emerged over the course of the 96 following years; for example, simply placing two CaMV35S promoters in a tandem led to enhanced strength of the expression system<sup>32</sup>. Furthermore, the 46 bp minimal promoter also 97 98 proved to be a highly useful tool: In the following years, short regulatory sequences within different gene promoters were identified that were bound by specific transcriptional activators<sup>33–</sup> 99 100 <sup>36</sup>. By combining these activating elements with the minimal 35S promoter, scientists generated promoters that could promote gene expression in combination with the right activator<sup>33-36</sup>. This 101 102 could be a plant hormone, such as auxin, therefore activating gene expression in a pattern 103 reflecting the endogenous auxin concentration, or in response to external addition of the 104 hormone<sup>33</sup>. Moreover, effectors could also be animal hormones such as estrogen and 105 glucocorticoid, or ethanol, all of which are normally not present in the plant, therefore giving researchers complete control over when and where expression could be induced<sup>35–37</sup>. Finally, by 106 107 combining the minimal 35S promoter with transcriptional binding sites for pathogen-responsive 108 activators, researchers could engineer constructs that would confer enhanced resistance in the event of a pathogen attack<sup>34</sup>. 109

110 This last point was not the main finding that made the CaMV 35S promoter so appealing to crop 111 scientists, however. In 1986, merely a year after the CaMV 35S promoter was correctly 112 described, it was used to promote expression of the *5-enolpyruvylshikimate-3-phosphate synthase* (EPSP) gene in transgenic petunia<sup>38</sup>. The EPSP is an essential enzyme in the aromatic amino acid 113 114 biosynthetic pathway<sup>39</sup>. And this enzyme is also the specific target for the herbicide glyphosate<sup>40</sup>. Accordingly, plants that overexpress the EPSP gene from the 35S promoter acquire an increased 115 116 tolerance towards glyphosate treatment<sup>38</sup>. This successful engineering of the first transgenic 117 herbicide-tolerant plants combined two major scientific breakthroughs of the early 1980s – the establishment of Agrobacterium-mediated plant transformation and the identification of the 118 119 CaMV 35S promoter – and together these three milestones, all published within three years, meant a giant leap forward for both the plant science community and the developing field of plant 120 biotechnology<sup>29,38,41</sup>. Over the course of the following 20 to 30 years, the 35S promoter became 121

122 the most frequently used promoter in plant biotechnology, and almost every genetically modified 123 crop plant that made it into our fields carries a version of this promoter<sup>42</sup>.

#### 124 The CaMV 35S Promoter as Target for Anti-GE Activists (1990-today)

125 The creation of genetically engineered crop plants not only gave a boost to plant science, it also 126 activated the anti-GE (Genetic Engineering) movement. And in the 1990s, the 35S promoter became one of their main targets<sup>43</sup>. Interestingly though, there was no biosafety-incident or 127 128 something comparable, that spawned a reasonable fear of the 35S promoter - it was a combination of insufficient outreach and bad public relations work from the scientific 129 community, and the mere origin of the 35S promoter from a pathogenic virus<sup>42</sup>. There were, 130 131 however, two incidents that clearly contributed to tarnishing the reputation of the 35S promoter in 132 the public eye: the Petunia field trial in Germany, in 1990, and the Pusztai affair in Great Britain, in 1998<sup>44,45</sup>. 133

134 In the 1980s, researchers at the Max-Planck Institute for Plant Breeding Research (MPIPZ) in 135 Cologne, Germany, were working on transposable elements in maize (so called 'jumping genes' or 'transposons')<sup>46,47</sup>. They found that white flowers from petunia could be converted into salmon 136 red flowers, by introducing a maize transgene under control of the CaMV 35S promoter<sup>46</sup>. They 137 138 then used these red flowering plants in a field trial to identify transposons in petunia, arguing that if enough plants are sowed out, the rare 'jump' of a transposon into the introduced maize 139 transgene would be readily identified<sup>48</sup>. This insertion event should render the maize transgene 140 141 inactive, thereby turning the red flower back to white – a clear visible sign that a transposon had been 'trapped'<sup>48</sup>. The chance for this to happen was estimated to be around 0.0001 %, and so the 142 expectation was that only a few individual flowers in the population of over 30 000 plants would 143 revert back to their white color<sup>48</sup>. The result, however, was a reversion rate of almost 60  $\%^{48}$ . The 144 145 researchers later discovered that this was mostly due to epigenetic gene silencing, the auto-146 inactivation of gene expression - a protective mechanisms of the plant cell if expression appears to get out of control<sup>48,49</sup>. The plant cell had simply turned off the CaMV 35S promoter because it 147 148 was too strong, which also demonstrates why the CaMV had evolved its 19S protein as a silencing suppressor - something only discovered many years later in  $2007^{12,48}$ . While this was an 149 150 exciting but surprise finding for the plant science community ('epigenetic gene silencing' was not 151 well studied or understood at that time), it also became a public relations problem for the

MPIPZ<sup>44</sup>. The petunia experiment was the first field trial with transgenic plants in Germany, a 152 country that is notoriously critical and reserved when it comes to genetic engineering 44,50,51. The 153 154 trial therefore was accompanied by protests from anti-GE activists claiming that the scientists did 155 not understand genetic engineering well enough to undertake such an experiment outside of the controlled environment of a green house without considerable risks<sup>51</sup>. The scientists, on the other 156 157 side, were both interested in the scientific outcome of the experiment, but also to demonstrate to the public that they were able to control such an experiment<sup>44,51</sup>. Needless to say, the results did 158 159 not go over well with the public, and the protesters felt reassured of their claim<sup>44</sup>. In the following 160 two decades, there were some further field trials of GE-plants in Germany, but as of 2015, 75 % 161 of Germans are still opposed to growing genetically modified crops and since 2013 no further field trials with GE crops were approved (www.bvl.bund.de/EN/)<sup>52</sup>. Interestingly, more than 25 162 163 years after the petunia trial, in 2017, red-colored commercial petunias were recalled from stores 164 worldwide when it was discovered that they were actually transgenic – they carried the same maize transgene that was used at the MPIPZ in 1987<sup>53,54</sup>. This episode was widely publicized in 165 166 Germany at the time, and certainly contributed to a majority of Germans still remaining critical when it comes to genetic engineering<sup>52</sup>. However, even though the 35S promoter was indeed 167 168 indirectly responsible for this public relations debacle for the German plant science community. 169 at the time, the 35S promoter was not yet singled out as a threat to the environment and human 170 health, and the activists focused on genetic engineering as a whole instead. This would change with the Pusztai affair in 1998<sup>55</sup>. 171

172 In the wake of increasing consumer concerns over the safety of genetically modified food, 173 renowned protein scientist Árpád Pusztai, who was in the midst of conducting the first major study on possible health effects of transgenic crops, was interviewed on British TV about his 174 ongoing experiments<sup>56</sup>. He stated that the trials included rats that were fed genetically modified 175 potatoes and that they seemed to be less healthy than rats that were fed the unmodified 176 177 counterpart<sup>56</sup>. He also acknowledged that he could not tell what caused these effects, and that he actually had concerns about the experimental design and the controls included<sup>56</sup>. Accordingly, he 178 stated that more testing was needed until any firm conclusions could be reached<sup>56</sup>. However, he 179 then went on to state that, if given the choice to eat transgenic crops now he 'wouldn't eat it', 180 adding that he thought it was 'very very unfair to use our fellow citizens as guinea pigs'<sup>56,57</sup>. Not 181 182 surprisingly, this last sentence resulted in a major pushback against genetic engineering from the

183 public, which was further exacerbated by how the Rowett Research Institute (Pusztais employer) subsequently handled the situation<sup>56,58</sup>. Overwhelmed by the massive backlash the institute 184 185 received from the public and media, the Rowett Institute panicked and shut down Pusztai's lab, 186 collected all lab books, suspended him indefinitely, and, worst of all, forbade him from talking to the press<sup>56,57</sup>. The director also released a statement, in which he described Pusztai's data as 'a 187 188 total muddle', and apologized for releasing 'misleading information', before an investigation into the case had even begun<sup>58</sup>. This reaction drew massive criticism from both, fellow scientists and 189 190 the public<sup>57</sup>. The scientific community, who valued Pusztai as a highly reputable colleague, and 191 certainly an authority in the field, were shocked by his harsh treatment, and noted that 'it is an 192 unacceptable code of practice by the Rowett and its Director, Professor James, to set themselves 193 up as arbiters or judges of the validity of the data which could have such a profound importance 194 not only for scientists, but also for the public and its health<sup>57</sup>. For members of the public, 195 similarly, the actions taken by the institute seemed as if the Institute was trying to silence a 196 dissident member, and cover up his findings<sup>57,58</sup>.

197 So what was all of this about? In his experiments, Pusztai fed transgenic potatoes expressing a 198 snowdrop lectin (Galanthus nivalis agglutinin (GNA)) to rats, to test for any effects this would have on their health<sup>59</sup>. Plant lectins are sugar-binding proteins involved in cell immunity by 199 200 detecting specific sugar chains on the surfaces of proteins, but also on viruses or bacteria<sup>60</sup>. GNA was shown to be toxic to some insects, among them several major crop pests<sup>61</sup>. So in this case, 201 binding of GNA to the insect pest would kill the insect<sup>61</sup>. At the same time, GNA was shown not 202 to be toxic to mammals, including rats (as demonstrated by Pusztai himself in 1990)<sup>62</sup>. Based on 203 204 these findings the idea was developed to create transgenic crops expressing GNA, to enhance their tolerance to insect pests<sup>60</sup>. One of the first such crop plants was a potato expressing the GNA 205 206 from the CaMV 35S promoter<sup>63</sup>. Pusztai's feeding trial was now intended to check for any health 207 risks for mammals coming from such transgenic crop plants. In order to do this, he fed the rats 208 either transgenic potatoes, non-transgenic potatoes, or non-transgenic potatoes that were laced with GNA<sup>59</sup>. And what he found was that several of the rats that were fed the transgenic potatoes, 209 210 were less healthy than the rats that were fed the unmodified counterpart, or the unmodified but GNA-laced potatoes<sup>59</sup>. However, the observed effects were also highly variable from potato to 211 212 potato, and most effects could not be traced back to the expressed GNA, as GNA-213 supplementation, even at high concentrations, did not result in the same effects on the rats as

GNA transgene expression<sup>57,59,64</sup>. Therefore, Pusztai speculated that most of the effects were not 214 215 due to the expressed GNA protein, but to the transgene itself, the position where it was inserted, 216 the transformation procedure, or general alterations in the composition of the potato caused by the procedure to obtain the genetically modified plant<sup>59,64</sup>. Eventually, further analysis of 217 218 Pusztai's data by external experts and an investigation by a commission set up by the Royal 219 British Society all found that the Pusztai experimental setup was indeed clearly flawed, and that for this reason, no conclusions could be drawn from his findings<sup>57,64-66</sup>. They showed, for 220 221 example, that the nutritional value varied widely between the different transgenic potatoes, as 222 well as to their parental line, which already makes it impossible to distinguish if any effects were caused by the transgene, or simply were due to this variation<sup>64</sup>. Furthermore, as this diet is not 223 224 suitable for rats, the animals were all protein-starved, affecting their general physiology, again making it impossible to trace any effects back to the transgene<sup>64</sup>. Also, the controls were flawed. 225 226 The transgenic potatoes were created by transformation of cultured cells and regeneration of plants from these cells<sup>63</sup>. However, the wild type control plants had not gone through such a 227 procedure<sup>57,64,65</sup>. This is especially important, as plants derived from tissue culture exhibit 228 229 somaclonal variation, which can account for a wide spectrum of effects, most of all the observed differences in nutritional value between the different potatos<sup>57,64,65,67</sup>. And there are many more 230 problems with the study as detailed in the various reports<sup>57,64–67</sup>. Thus, it is clear that this study 231 232 did not provide any evidence for or against any effects caused by the transgene or the expressed 233 protein. However, one thing almost everybody agreed on in the end, is that the Pusztai affair is a 234 prime example for how *not* to handle potentially troubling findings, and how essential it is for 235 scientists to stay in contact with, and explain their work to, the general public.

236 Now how does this relate to the CaMV 35S promoter? Several anti-GE groups and activists immediately picked up this story and, for some reason, highlighted the CaMV 35S promoter as 237 the potential culprit of the observed health effects<sup>43,55</sup>. Greenpeace released a statement saying, 238 'For all we know they might have been caused by the virus used to transfer the alien DNA to the 239 240 potatoes. This is the same virus used in Monsanto's Roundup Ready soy that is available in 241 markets around the world', clearly ignorant to the fact that the CaMV 35S promoter is not a 242 virus, but a short stretch of DNA, and the active ingredient in Roundup Ready Soy is also not a virus, but the EPSP synthase<sup>55</sup>. In this case, it was solely the origin of the CaMV 35S sequence 243 244 from a virus that brought it to the attention of these groups. The word 'virus' certainly has a 245 negative connotation in most people's mind, and thus seemed to be a good way to activate as 246 many people against GE as possible. And other activists published work along similar lines<sup>43</sup>. So 247 overall, the Pusztai study was simply a badly planned and poorly executed work, which most 248 likely would have been significantly improved during a peer-review process, if some of the 249 results had not been prematurely broadcast publicly on TV. But the poor handling by the people 250 involved, in combination with a scientific community that failed to sufficiently inform and 251 educate the public about genetic engineering and genetically modified organisms in general for 252 over a decade, allowed this to escalate into an affair that shifted public perception of genetic 253 engineering and genetically modified crops from healthy criticism to outright rejection. 254 Unfortunately, the damage done could not be rectified to this day. Furthermore, due to the 255 continuing lobbying of anti-GE activists, the reputation of the CaMV 35S promoter was also 256 severely tarnished by this event, and it has since become one of the buzzwords of the GEmovement. This is probably best illustrated by a 2009 paper from famed anti-GE activist and 257 258 pseudo-scientist Mae-Wan Ho, who claimed that eating transgenic crops carrying the CaMV 35S promoter could promote HIV in humans<sup>68</sup>. This claim is 'backed up' in the paper by a truly 259 260 amazing line of argumentation: "In humans, P-TEFb is required by HIV-1 for its transcription 261 and replication. The long terminal repeat of HIV-1 has minimal promoter activity in the absence 262 of the viral Tat protein. The CaMV 35S promoter, on the other hand, is strongly active in plant 263 cells in the absence of any viral protein. Thus, the presence of CaMV 35S promoter effectively facilitates the transcription of HIV and other viruses<sup>368</sup>. 264

### 265 The CaMV 35S Promoter Today (2000-today)

266 To this day the CaMV 35S promoter remains the most commonly used promoter in plant science. 267 Nonetheless, use of the CaMV 35S promoter is slowly decreasing due to several reasons. The 268 number one reason being that today, in contrast to the 1980s, many alternatives to the CaMV 35S 269 promoter are available to researchers. In academia, the Arabidopsis UBIOUITIN10 promoter was 270 identified in the mid-1990s as a strong promoter, active in all tissues of the plant body – indeed, 271 the two major selling points of the CaMV 35S promoter - and was ready to replace it as a plantderived promoter to use in plants<sup>69,70</sup>. By that time researchers had also discovered that the 35S 272 promoter was actually not active in all tissues and cell types, but sometimes exhibited a 'patchy' 273 pattern, something not seen for the UBQ1 or 10 promoters<sup>71</sup>. Furthermore, by the year **2000**, the 274 Arabidopsis genome had been sequenced and annotated, uncovering all genes and their putative 275

regulatory sequences<sup>72</sup>. Such sequences could now be easily cloned and enabled scientists to 276 277 express their genes of interest under control of their respective native promoters, or very targeted 278 in specific cells and tissues, and at physiological concentration levels. Gene silencing, which 279 caused the problem in the Petunia field trial, prompted scientists to employ the 35S promoter in conjunction with the p19 silencing suppressor, further complicating the applicability of this 280 281 promoter<sup>73</sup>. Finally, reports emerged that the 35S promoter could affect the expression not only 282 of the downstream transgene, but also other genes in its vicinity, possibly via its enhancer regions, which further confounded the use of the 35S promoter<sup>74–76</sup>. Thus, while the CaMV 35S 283 284 promoter is still used heavily in scientific studies, many now favor the use of endogenous 285 promoters and/or the UBIQUITIN10 promoter.

286 In agriculture, over 80 % of GE-crops in the field still carry a version of the CaMV 35S 287 promoter, among those the most widely farmed varieties such as the Roundup Ready soybean, Bt corn and cotton, and the 'Sunset' papava resistant to the papava ringspot virus 77-80. These crops 288 289 have been found to be safe by all the major scientific institutions, and have been consumed by humans and livestock for decades now, without any negative health effects<sup>81–86</sup>. Since the 290 291 generation, subsequent field-trials, safety tests and governmental approvals of a transgenic crop 292 line are arduous, time-consuming and expensive, a switch to a different standard promoter will be 293 a long-term project. The use of the CaMV 35S promoter is, however, limited because of multiple overlapping patents on it<sup>87</sup>. Among other things, this has led to enhanced use of similar, or related 294 promoters, such as the figwort mosaic virus 34S promoter (FMV 34S)<sup>87,88</sup>. It was also found that 295 in monocots, such as rice and corn, the CaMV 35S is not as active as it is in dicots, leading 296 297 researchers to switch to, e.g., the later discovered *rice actin 1* or *maize Ubi-1* promoters<sup>89–92</sup>. So 298 even though the switch is happening at a slower pace in applied agriculture than it is in academia, 299 the variety of promoters used is steadily increasing also in this area.

300 Nonetheless, since its description in 1985 the CaMV 35S promoter has been the standard 301 promoter used in all plant science and plant biotechnology, and has certainly propelled the 302 research field forward like hardly any other discovery.

303

304

### 305 Acknowledgements

Thanks to Staffan Persson, Imre E. Somssich, Edward P. Rybicki, Raymond D. Shillito, and the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (German Research Foundation; Project 344523413) for comments and support.

#### 309 **References**

- Schultz ES. A transmissible mosaic disease of Chinese cabbage, mustard and turnip. J
   Agric Res. 1921;22: 173–177.
- Larson RH, Walker JC. A mosaic disease of cabbage. J Agric Res. 1939;59: 367–392.
- 313 3. Tompkins CM. A transmissible mosaic disease of cauliflower. J Agric Res. 1937;55: 33–
- 314 46. Available: https://naldc.nal.usda.gov/download/IND43968984/PDF
- Broadbent L. Investigation of Virus Diseases of Brassica Crops. Agric Res Counc Rep
   Ser. Cambridge University Press; 1957;: 94–ff. Available:
- 317 https://books.google.com.au/books?id=alS2CgAAQBAJ
- 318 5. Day MF, Venables DG. The Transmission of Cauliflower Mosaic Virus by Aphids. Aust
  319 J Biol Sci. 1961;14: 187. Available at doi:10.1071/BI9610187
- Uzest M, Gargani D, Drucker M, Hébrard E, Garzo E, Candresse T, et al. A protein
   key to plant virus transmission at the tip of the insect vector stylet. Proc Natl Acad Sci U
   S A. 2007;104: 17959–64. Available at doi:10.1073/pnas.0706608104
- 323 7. Shepherd RJ, Wakeman RJ, Romanko RR. DNA in cauliflower mosaic virus.
  324 Virology. 1968;36: 150–152. Available at doi:10.1016/0042-6822(68)90127-X
- Schultze M, Jiricny J, Hohn T. Open Reading Frame-Viii Is Not Required for Viability
   of Cauliflower Mosaic-Virus. Virology. 1990;176: 662–664.
- Franck A, Guilley H, Jonard G, Richards KE, Hirth L. Nucleotide sequence of
  cauliflower mosaic virus DNA. Cell. 1980;21: 285–94. Available at doi:10.1016/00928674(80)90136-1
- 330 10. Hohn T, Hohn B, Lesot A, Lebeurier G. Restriction map of native and cloned

331		cauliflower mosaic virus DNA. Gene. 1980;11: 21–31.
<ul><li>332</li><li>333</li><li>334</li></ul>	11.	<b>Covey SN, Hull R</b> . Transcription of cauliflower mosaic virus DNA. Detection of transcripts, properties, and location of the gene encoding the virus inclusion body protein. <b>Virology</b> . <b>1981;</b> 111: 463–74. Available at doi:10.1016/0042-6822(81)90349-4
<ul><li>335</li><li>336</li><li>337</li></ul>	12.	Love AJ, Laird J, Holt J, Hamilton AJ, Sadanandom A, Milner JJ. Cauliflower mosaic virus protein P6 is a suppressor of RNA silencing. J Gen Virol. 2007;88: 3439–44. Available at doi:10.1099/vir.0.83090-0
338 339 340	13.	<b>Kiss-László Z, Blanc S, Hohn T</b> . Splicing of cauliflower mosaic virus 35S RNA is essential for viral infectivity. <b>EMBO J</b> . <b>1995;</b> 14: 3552–62. Available at doi:10.1002/j.1460-2075.1995.tb07361.x
<ul><li>341</li><li>342</li><li>343</li></ul>	14.	<b>Pfeiffer P, Hohn T</b> . Involvement of reverse transcription in the replication of cauliflower mosaic virus: a detailed model and test of some aspects. <b>Cell</b> . <b>1983;</b> 33: 781–9. Available at doi:10.1016/0092-8674(83)90020-X
344 345 346 347 348	15.	Guilley H, Dudley RK, Jonard G, Balàzs E, Richards KE. Transcription of Cauliflower mosaic virus DNA: detection of promoter sequences, and characterization of transcripts. Cell. 1982;30: 763–73. Available: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citatio n&list_uids=7139714
<ul><li>349</li><li>350</li><li>351</li><li>352</li></ul>	16.	Blevins T, Rajeswaran R, Aregger M, Borah BK, Schepetilnikov M, Baerlocher L, et al. Massive production of small RNAs from a non-coding region of Cauliflower mosaic virus in plant defense and viral counter-defense. Nucleic Acids Res. 2011;39: 5003–14. Available at doi:10.1093/nar/gkr119
353 354	17.	Meyerowitz EM, Pruitt RE. Arabidopsis thaliana and Plant Molecular Genetics. Science. 1985;229: 1214–8. Available at doi:10.1126/science.229.4719.1214
355 356	18.	Somssich M. A short history of Arabidopsis thaliana (L.) Heynh. Columbia-0. PeerJ Prepr. 2018;e26931v3: 1–7. Available at doi:10.7287/peerj.preprints.26931v3
357	19.	Koncz C, De Greve H, André D, Deboeck F, Montagu MCE van, Schell J. The opine

358 359 360		synthase genes carried by Ti plasmids contain all signals necessary for expression in plants. <b>EMBO J</b> . <b>1983;</b> 2: 1597–603. Available at doi:10.1002/j.1460-2075.1983.tb01630.x
361 362 363	20.	<b>Cashmore AR</b> . Nuclear Genes Encoding the Small Subunit of Ribulose-1,5-Bisphosphate Carboxylase. Genetic Engineering of Plants. Boston, MA: <b>Springer US</b> ; <b>1983.</b> pp. 29–38. Available at doi:10.1007/978-1-4684-4544-2_5
364 365	21.	<b>Hull R</b> . The possible use of plant viral DNAs in genetic manipulation in plants. <b>Trends</b> <b>Biochem Sci. 1978;</b> 3: 254–256. Available at doi:10.1016/S0968-0004(78)95435-X
366 367 368	22.	Hohn B, Hohn T. Cauliflower Mosaic Virus: A Potential Vector for Plant Genetic Engineering. Molecular Biology of Plant Tumors. Elsevier; 1982. pp. 549–560. Available at doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-394380-4.50028-1
369 370 371	23.	<b>Brisson N, Paszkowski J, Penswick JR, Gronenborn B, Potrykus I, Hohn T</b> . Expression of a bacterial gene in plants by using a viral vector. <b>Nature</b> . <b>1984;</b> 310: 511–514. Available at doi:10.1038/310511a0
372 373	24.	<b>Lefebvre DD, Miki BL, Laliberté J-F</b> . Mammalian Metallothionein Functions in Plants. Nature biotechnology. <b>1987.</b> pp. 32–34. Available at doi:10.1007/978-94-009-4482-4_7
374 375 376 377	25.	<b>Paszkowski J, Pisan B, Shillito RD, Hohn T, Hohn B, Potrykus I</b> . Genetic transformation of Brassica campestris var. rapa protoplasts with an engineered cauliflower mosaic virus genome. <b>Plant Mol Biol</b> . <b>1986;</b> 6: 303–12. Available at doi:10.1007/BF00034937
378 379	26.	Somssich M. A Short History of Plant Transformation. PeerJ Prepr. 2019;: 1–28. Available at doi:10.7287/peerj.preprints.27556v1
380 381 382	27.	Haas M, Bureau M, Geldreich A, Yot P, Keller M. Cauliflower mosaic virus: still in the news. Mol Plant Pathol. 2002;3: 419–29. Available at doi:10.1046/j.1364-3703.2002.00136.x
383 384	28.	<b>Gronenborn B, Gardner RC, Schaefer S, Shepherd RJ</b> . Propagation of foreign DNA in plants using cauliflower mosaic virus as vector. <b>Nature</b> . <b>1981;</b> 294: 773–776. Available at

385		doi:10.1038/294773a0
386 387 388	29.	<b>Odell JT, Nagy F, Chua N-H</b> . Identification of DNA sequences required for activity of the cauliflower mosaic virus 35S promoter. <b>Nature</b> . <b>1985;</b> 313: 810–2. Available at doi:10.1038/313810a0
389 390 391	30.	<b>Benfey PN, Chua N-H</b> . The Cauliflower Mosaic Virus 35S Promoter: Combinatorial Regulation of Transcription in Plants. <b>Science</b> . <b>1990;</b> 250: 959–966. Available at doi:10.1126/science.250.4983.959
392 393 394	31.	<b>Fang R-X, Nagy F, Sivasubramaniam S, Chua N</b> . Multiple cis regulatory elements for maximal expression of the cauliflower mosaic virus 35S promoter in transgenic plants. <b>Plant Cell. 1989;</b> 1: 141–50. Available at doi:10.1105/tpc.1.1.141
395 396 397	32.	Kay R, Chan A, Daly M, McPherson J. Duplication of CaMV 35S Promoter Sequences Creates a Strong Enhancer for Plant Genes. Science. 1987;236: 1299–302. Available at doi:10.1126/science.236.4806.1299
398 399 400	33.	<b>Ulmasov T, Murfett J, Hagen G, Guilfoyle TJ</b> . Aux/IAA Proteins Repress Expression of Reporter Genes Containing Natural and Highly Active Synthetic Auxin Response Elements. <b>Plant Cell</b> . <b>1997;</b> 9: 1963–1971. Available at doi:10.1105/tpc.9.11.1963
401 402 403 404	34.	Rushton PJ, Reinstädler A, Lipka V, Lippok B, Somssich IE. Synthetic plant promoters containing defined regulatory elements provide novel insights into pathogen- and wound-induced signaling. Plant Cell. 2002;14: 749–762. Available at doi:10.1105/tpc.010412
405 406 407	35.	<b>Zuo J, Niu Q-W, Chua N-H</b> . An estrogen receptor-based transactivator XVE mediates highly inducible gene expression in transgenic plants. <b>Plant J</b> . <b>2000</b> ;24: 265–273. Available at doi:10.1046/j.1365-313x.2000.00868.x
408 409 410	36.	Aoyama T, Chua N-H. A glucocorticoid-mediated transcriptional induction system in transgenic plants. Plant J. 1997;11: 605–12. Available at doi:10.1046/j.1365-313X.1997.11030605.x
411	37.	Caddick MX, Greenland AJ, Jepson L, Krause K-P, Qu N, Riddell K V., et al. An

412 413		ethanol inducible gene switch for plants used to manipulate carbon metabolism. <b>Nat Biotechnol</b> . <b>1998;</b> 16: 177–180. Available at doi:10.1038/nbt0298-177
414 415 416	38.	Shah DM, Horsch RB, Klee HJ, Kishore GM, Winter JA, Tumer NE, et al. Engineering Herbicide Tolerance in Transgenic Plants. Science. 1986;233: 478–481. Available at doi:10.1126/science.233.4762.478
417 418 419	39.	Koshiba T. Shikimate Kinase and 5-Enolpyruvylshikimate-3-phosphate Synthase in Phaseolus mungo Seedlings. Zeitschrift für Pflanzenphysiologie. Gustav Fischer Verlag, Stuttgart; 1978;88: 353–355. Available at doi:10.1016/S0044-328X(78)80138-X
420 421 422	40.	<ul> <li>Steinrücken HC, Amrhein N. The herbicide glyphosate is a potent inhibitor of 5-enolpyruvyl-shikimic acid-3-phosphate synthase. Biochem Biophys Res Commun.</li> <li>1980;94: 1207–12. Available at doi:10.1016/0006-291X(80)90547-1</li> </ul>
423 424 425	41.	Herrera-Estrella L, Depicker A, Montagu MCE van, Schell J. Expression of chimaeric genes transferred into plant cells using a Ti-plasmid-derived vector. Nature. 1983;303: 209–213. Available at doi:10.1038/303209a0
426 427 428	42.	<b>Hull R, Covey SN, Dale P</b> . Genetically modified plants and the 35S promoter: assessing the risks and enhancing the debate. <b>Microb Ecol Health Dis</b> . <b>2000</b> ;12: 1–5. Available at doi:10.1080/089106000435527
429 430 431	43.	Ho M-W, Ryan A, Cummins J. Cauliflower Mosaic Viral Promoter - A Recipe for Disaster? Microb Ecol Health Dis. 1999;11: 194–197. Available at doi:10.1080/08910609908540827
432 433 434	44.	Lange M. Erster Freilandversuch mit gentechnisch manipulierten Pflanzen. Deutschlandfunk. 2015;: 18–20. Available: http://www.deutschlandfunk.de/koeln-erster- freilandversuch-mit-gentechnisch-manipulierten.871.de.html?dram:article_id=319729
435 436	45.	Randerson J. Arpad Pusztai: Biological divide. Guard. 2008;: 18–23. Available: http://www.guardian.co.uk/education/2008/jan/15/academicexperts.highereducationprofile
437 438	46.	Meyer P, Heidmann I, Forkmann G, Saedler H. A new petunia flower colour generated by transformation of a mutant with a maize gene. Nature. 1987;330: 677–8. Available at

439		doi:10.1038/330677a0
440 441	47.	McClintock B. The origin and behavior of mutable loci in maize. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 1950;36: 344–55. Available at doi:10.1073/pnas.36.6.344
442 443 444 445	48.	Meyer P, Linn F, Heidmann I, Meyer z. A. H, Niedenhof I, Saedler H. Endogenous and environmental factors influence 35S promoter methylation of a maize A1 gene construct in transgenic petunia and its colour phenotype. Mol Gen Genet. 1992;231: 345– 52. Available at doi:10.1007/BF00292701
446 447 448	49.	Linn F, Heidmann I, Saedler H, Meyer P. Epigenetic changes in the expression of the maize A1 gene in Petunia hybrida: role of numbers of integrated gene copies and state of methylation. Mol Gen Genet. 1990;222: 329–36. Available at doi:10.1007/BF00633837
449 450 451	50.	<b>Specter M</b> . West Germany's anguished science. <b>Washington Post</b> . <b>1990;</b> April 11: 1–4. Available: https://www.washingtonpost.com/archive/politics/1990/04/11/west-germanys-anguished-science/41026c6c-c574-46bc-88c2-45491f9daa2d/?utm_term=.1f45ce3efb2a
452 453	51.	Billstein H. Ein Zaun schützt die Petunien. Zeit. 1988;46: 7–10. Available: http://www.zeit.de/1988/46/ein-zaun-schuetzt-die-petunien
454 455 456 457	52.	Federal Ministry for the Environment; Nature Conservation; Building and Nuclear Safety. 2015 Nature Awareness Study - Population survey on nature and biological diversity. 2015 Nature Awareness Study. Bonn; <b>2015</b> . Available: https://www.bfn.de/themen/gesellschaft/naturbewusstsein/studie-2015.html
458 459	53.	<b>Servick K</b> . How the transgenic petunia carnage of 2017 began. <b>Science</b> . <b>2017</b> ; 0–3. Available at doi:10.1126/science.aan6886
460 461 462 463	54.	Haselmair-Gosch C, Miosic S, Nitarska D, Roth BL, Walliser B, Paltram R, et al. Great Cause—Small Effect: Undeclared Genetically Engineered Orange Petunias Harbor an Inefficient Dihydroflavonol 4-Reductase. Front Plant Sci. 2018;9: 1–12. Available at doi:10.3389/fpls.2018.00149
464 465	55.	Institute for Agriculture & Trade Policy. Greenpeace Calls for Immediate Total Ban on GMO Food. Inst Agric Trade Policy. 1999;: 18–20. Available:

466		https://www.iatp.org/news/greenpeace-calls-for-immediate-total-ban-on-gmo-food
467	56.	Enserink M. Institute Copes With Genetic Hot Potato. Science. 1998;281: 1124b–1125.
468		Available at doi:10.1126/science.281.5380.1124b
469	57.	Fedoroff N V., Brown N. Mendel in the Kitchen, a Scientist's View of Genetically
470		Modified Food. Mendel in the Kitchen, a Scientist's View of Genetically Modified Food.
471		Joseph Henry Press; 2004.
472	58.	Enserink M. Preliminary Data Touch Off Genetic Food Fight. Science. 1999;283: 1094-
473		1095. Available at doi:10.1126/science.283.5405.1094
474	59.	Ewen SWB, Pusztai Á. Effect of diets containing genetically modified potatoes
475		expressing Galanthus nivalis lectin on rat small intestine. Lancet. 1999;354: 1353-4.
476		Available at doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(98)05860-7
477	60.	Macedo MLR, Oliveira CFR, Oliveira CT. Insecticidal activity of plant lectins and
478		potential application in crop protection. Molecules. 2015;20: 2014–33. Available at
479		doi:10.3390/molecules20022014
480	61.	Du J, Foissac X, Carss A, Gatehouse AMR, Gatehouse JA. Ferritin acts as the most
481		abundant binding protein for snowdrop lectin in the midgut of rice brown planthoppers
482		(Nilaparvata lugens). Insect Biochem Mol Biol. 2000;30: 297–305. Available at
483		doi:10.1016/S0965-1748(99)00130-7
484	62.	Pusztai Á, Ewen SWB, Grant G, Peumans WJ, Van Damme EJM, Rubio L, et al.
485		Relationship between Survival and Binding of Plant Lectins during Small Intestinal
486		Passage and Their Effectiveness as Growth Factors. Digestion. 1990;46: 308–316.
487		Available at doi:10.1159/000200402
488	63.	Gatehouse AMR, Down RE, Powell KS, Sauvion N, Rahbé Y, Newell CA, et al.
489		Transgenic potato plants with enhanced resistance to the peach-potato aphid Myzus
490		persicae. Entomol Exp Appl. 1996;79: 295–307. Available at doi:10.1111/j.1570-
491		7458.1996.tb00837.x
492	64.	Kuiper HA, Noteborn HP, Peijnenburg AA. Adequacy of methods for testing the safety

493 494		of genetically modified foods. Lancet. 1999;354: 1315–6. Available at doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(99)00341-4
495 496	65.	The Royal British Society. Review of data on possible toxicity of GM potatoes. <b>R Br</b> Soc. 1999;10: 391–399.
497 498	66.	Enserink M. The Lancet scolded over Pusztai paper. Science. 1999;286: 656. Available at doi:10.1126/science.286.5440.656a
499 500 501 502 503	67.	Down RE, Ford L, Bedford SJ, Gatehouse LN, Newell C, Gatehouse JA, et al. Influence of plant development and environment on transgene expression in potato and consequences for insect resistance. Transgenic Res. 2001;10: 223–36. Available: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citatio n&list_uids=11437279
504 505 506	68.	Ho M-W, Cummins J. New evidence links CaMV 35S promoter to HIV transcription. Microb Ecol Health Dis. 2009;21: 172–174. Available at doi:10.3109/08910600903495053
507 508 509	69.	<b>Sun CW, Callis J</b> . Independent modulation of Arabidopsis thaliana polyubiquitin mRNAs in different organs and in response to environmental changes. <b>Plant J</b> . <b>1997;</b> 11: 1017–27. Available at doi:10.1046/j.1365-313X.1997.11051017.x
510 511 512	70.	Norris SR, Meyer SE, Callis J. The intron of Arabidopsis thaliana polyubiquitin genes is conserved in location and is a quantitative determinant of chimeric gene expression. Plant Mol Biol. 1993;21: 895–906. Available at doi:10.1007/BF00027120
513 514 515	71.	<ul> <li>Holtorf S, Apel K, Bohlmann H. Comparison of different constitutive and inducible promoters for the overexpression of transgenes in Arabidopsis thaliana. Plant Mol Biol. 1995;29: 637–46. Available at doi:10.1007/BF00041155</li> </ul>
516 517	72.	<b>Arabidopsis Genome Initiative</b> . Analysis of the genome sequence of the flowering plant Arabidopsis thaliana. <b>Nature</b> . <b>2000;</b> 408: 796–815. Available at doi:10.1038/35048692
518 519	73.	Van Der Hoorn RAL, Rivas S, Wulff BBH, Jones JDG, Joosten MHAJ. Rapid migration in gel filtration of the Cf-4 and Cf-9 resistance proteins is an intrinsic property

520		of Cf proteins and not because of their association with high-molecular-weight proteins.
521		Plant J. 2003;35: 305–15. Available at doi:10.1046/j.1365-313X.2003.01803.x
522	74.	Yoo SY, Bomblies K, Yoo SK, Yang JW, Choi MS, Lee JS, et al. The 35S promoter
523		used in a selectable marker gene of a plant transformation vector affects the expression of
524		the transgene. Planta. 2005;221: 523–30. Available at doi:10.1007/s00425-004-1466-4
525	75.	Weigel D, Ahn JH, Blázquez MA, Borevitz JO, Christensen SK, Fankhauser C, et al.
526		Activation Tagging in Arabidopsis. Plant Physiol. 2000;122: 1003–1013. Available at
527		doi:10.1104/pp.122.4.1003
528	76.	Gudynaite-Savitch L, Johnson DA, Miki BLA. Strategies to mitigate transgene-
529		promoter interactions. Plant Biotechnol J. 2009;7: 472-85. Available at
530		doi:10.1111/j.1467-7652.2009.00416.x
531	77.	U.S. Department of Agriculture. USDA/APHIS Petition 96-051-01P for the
532		Determination of Nonregulated Status for Transgenic "Sunset" Papaya Lines 55-1 and 63-
533		1. Fed Regist. 1996;61: 1–23. Available:
534		https://www.aphis.usda.gov/brs/aphisdocs2/96_05101p_com.pdf
535	78.	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Cry1Ab and Cry1F Bacillus thuringiensis (Bt)
536		Corn Plant-Incorporated Protectants. Biopestic Regist ACTION Doc. 2010; Available:
537		https://web.archive.org/web/20130127095310/http://www.epa.gov/oppbppd1/biopesticides
538		/pips/cry1f-cry1ab-brad.pdf
539	79.	Perlak FJ, Deaton RW, Armstrong TA, Fuchs RL, Sims SR, Greenplate JT, et al.
540		Insect resistant cotton plants. Bio/technology. 1990;8: 939-43. Available at
541		doi:10.1038/nbt1090-939
542	80.	Padgette SR, Kolacz KH, Delannay X, Re DB, LaVallee BJ, Tinius CN, et al.
543		Development, Identification, and Characterization of a Glyphosate-Tolerant Soybean Line.
544		Crop Sci. 1995;35: 1451. Available at
545		doi:10.2135/cropsci1995.0011183X003500050032x
546	81.	Norero D. More than 280 scientific and technical institutions support the safety of GM
547		crops. Chile Bio. 2014; Available: http://www.siquierotransgenicos.cl/2015/06/13/more-

548		than-240-organizations-and-scientific-institutions-support-the-safety-of-gm-crops/
549 550 551 552	82.	AAAS Board of Directors. Statement by the AAAS Board of Directors On Labeling of Genetically Modified Foods. Am Assoc Adv Sci. 2012;: 1. Available: https://www.aaas.org/news/statement-aaas-board-directors-labeling-genetically-modified- foods
553 554	83.	European Commission. A decade of EU-funded GMO research (2001–2010). Research*eu. 2010;: 1–264. Available at doi:doi 10.2777/97784
555 556 557	84.	<b>Pellegrino E, Bedini S, Nuti M, Ercoli L</b> . Impact of genetically engineered maize on agronomic, environmental and toxicological traits: a meta-analysis of 21 years of field data. <b>Sci Rep. Springer US; 2018;</b> 8: 3113. Available at doi:10.1038/s41598-018-21284-2
558 559	85.	Yi D, Fang Z, Yang L. Effects of Bt cabbage pollen on the honeybee Apis mellifera L. Sci Rep. Springer US; 2018;8: 482. Available at doi:10.1038/s41598-017-18883-w
560 561 562 563	86.	<b>Snell C, Bernheim A, Bergé J-B, Kuntz M, Pascal G, Paris A, et al.</b> Assessment of the health impact of GM plant diets in long-term and multigenerational animal feeding trials: A literature review. <b>Food Chem Toxicol. Elsevier Ltd</b> ; <b>2012;</b> 50: 1134–1148. Available at doi:10.1016/j.fct.2011.11.048
564 565 566 567	87.	<b>Chi-Ham CL, Boettiger S, Figueroa-Balderas R, Bird S, Geoola JN, Zamora P, et al.</b> An intellectual property sharing initiative in agricultural biotechnology: development of broadly accessible technologies for plant transformation. <b>Plant Biotechnol J. 2012;</b> 10: 501–10. Available at doi:10.1111/j.1467-7652.2011.00674.x
568 569 570	88.	<ul> <li>Graff GD, Cullen SE, Bradford KJ, Zilberman D, Bennett AB. The public-private structure of intellectual property ownership in agricultural biotechnology. Nat Biotechnol. 2003;21: 989–95. Available at doi:10.1038/nbt0903-989</li> </ul>
571 572 573	89.	Park S-H, Yi N, Kim YS, Jeong M-H, Bang S-W, Choi Y Do, et al. Analysis of five novel putative constitutive gene promoters in transgenic rice plants. J Exp Bot. 2010;61: 2459–67. Available at doi:10.1093/jxb/erq076
574	90.	Christensen AH, Sharrock RA, Quail PH. Maize polyubiquitin genes: structure, thermal

575		perturbation of expression and transcript splicing, and promoter activity following transfer
576		to protoplasts by electroporation. Plant Mol Biol. 1992;18: 675-89. Available at
577		doi:10.1007/BF00020010
578	91.	McElroy D, Zhang W, Cao J, Wu R. Isolation of an Efficient Actin Promoter for Use in
579		Rice Transformation. Plant Cell. 1990;2: 163–171. Available at doi:10.1105/tpc.2.2.163
580	92.	Nuccio ML. A Brief History of Promoter Development for Use in Transgenic Maize
581		Applications. Methods in Molecular Biology. 2018. pp. 61–93. Available at
582		doi:10.1007/978-1-4939-7315-6_4

583