GENETIC TRANSFORMATION OF DUCKWEED LEMNA GIBBA AND LEMNA MINOR

YURI T. YAMAMOTO*, NIRMALA RAJBHANDARI², XIAOHONG LIN, BEN A. BERGMANN, YUFUKO NISHIMURA, and ANNE-MARIE STOMP²

Department of Forestry, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC 27695-8002

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SUMMARY

We developed efficient genetic transformation protocols for two species of duckweed, Lemna gibba (G3) and Lemna minor (8627 and 8744), using Agrobacterium-mediated gene transfer. Partially differentiated nodules were co-cultivated with Agrobacterium tumefaciens harboring a binary vector containing β -glucuronidase and nptII expression cassettes. Transformed cells were selected and allowed to grow into nodules in the presence of kanamycin. Transgenic duckweed fronds were regenerated from selected nodules. We demonstrated that transgenic duckweed could be regenerated within 3 mo. after Agrobacterium-mediated transformation of nodules. Furthermore, we developed a method for transforming L. minor 8627 in 6 wk. These transformation protocols will facilitate genetic engineering of duckweed, ideal plants for bioremediation and large-scale industrial production of biomass and recombinant proteins.

Key words: Agrobacterium-mediated transformation; bioremediation; recombinant protein production; genetic engineering.

INTRODUCTION

Duckweed is a group of small, free-floating, fresh-water plants belonging to Lemnaceae (Landolt, 1998). Duckweed fronds are floating photosynthetic organs that measure from less than 1 mm to several mm in diameter and multiply primarily by vegetative means. Daughter fronds are generated from meristematic regions of a mother frond, and are abscised as they mature in most species. Duckweed species in Lemna and Spirodela have one to several roots whose primary function appears to be of support rather than of nutrient uptake while other species do not form any roots (Landolt, 1998). Sexual reproduction of some duckweed species has been observed in nature and can be induced by various laboratory conditions (reviewed in Kandeler, 1985; Tanaka et al., 1994, 1997).

The worldwide Lemnaceae Germplasm Collection (Landolt, 1986) housed in our laboratory includes nearly 1000 geographic isolates within the 37 duckweed species from all four genera and provides diverse genotypes for various potential applications of duckweed. Clonal growth habit, ease of propagation, growth on liquid, and small size make duckweed ideal for large-scale production of recombinant proteins and biomass. As the first step in achieving such a production system, our laboratory has developed in vitro cultivation and callus induction of L. gibba geographic isolates (Moon and Stomp, 1997; Moon et al., 1998). We also demonstrated that certain duckweed geographic isolates grow well in swine lagoon effluent (Bergmann et al., 2000a, b), a potential nutrient source for a large-scale biomass production. In this study we established

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efficient genetic transformation protocols for two duckweed species: L. gibba (geographic isolate G3), L. minor (geographic isolates 8627 and 8744).

Particular geographic isolates used in this study were chosen for desirable characteristics of host plants for commercial applications: rapid growth and high protein content. The protein content of L. gibba G3 and L. minor 8744 was as high as 34% of the dry weight, and up to 38% was recorded for the protein content of L. minor 8627 (Monesmith et al., personal communication). Furthermore, L. minor 8627 showed promising characteristics for bioremediation of swine lagoon effluent (Bergmann et al., 2000a, b). Establishment of reliable genetic transformation protocols was an important step toward commercial application of duckweed for large-scale production of biomass and recombinant proteins, and bioremediation.

Materials and Methods

Plant material and tissue culture conditions. L. gibba G3 [originally provided by J. Slovin, USDA (Beltsville, MD, USA)] and L. minor 8627 and 8744 from the Lemnaceae Germplasm Collection were maintained in our laboratory in sterile cultures on liquid Schenk and Hildebrandt (SH) medium (Schenk and Hildebrandt, 1972) with 10 g l⁻¹ sucrose at pH 5.6. The fronds and nodules were maintained in a growth chamber at 23° C under a 16-h photoperiod with approximately 40 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ light intensity provided by Wide Spectrum fluorescent lights (F40PL/AQ/WS, GE Lighting, Cleveland, OH, USA). Light intensity for the subdued light condition (in a street on how) was approximately A umal m^{-2} s^{-1} styrofoam box) was approximately 4 $\mu \mathrm{mol\ m}^{-2}$.

Callus induction and nodule production. Callus induction from duckweed fronds was obtained through modification of published protocols for L. gibba G3 (Moon and Stomp, 1997). Five fronds from approximately 2-wk-old cultures were separated and incubated on a 100×15 mm plate containing 25 ml of callus induction medium: MS (Murashige and Skoog, 1962) basal salts (M-5519, Sigma Chemicals, St. Louis, MO, USA), 30 g l^{-1} sucrose, 4 g 1^{-1} Difco Bacto-agar, 1.5 g 1^{-1} gelrite, pH 5.6, and either 10 μ M 1naphthaleneacetic acid and $0.5 \mu M$ 1-phenyl-3-(1,2,3-thiadiazol-5-yl) urea (thidiazuron) (for L. gibba G3) or 5 μ M 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D) and 0.5 μ *M* thidiazuron (for *L. minor geographic isolates*). Six wk later,

^{*}Author to whom correspondence should be addressed: 2022C Biltmore Hall, Department of Forestry, Box 8002, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC 27695-8002, USA, Email yuri@unity.ncsu.edu

²Present address: Biolex Inc., 158 Credle Street, Pittsboro, NC 27312, USA.

small white callus pieces were subcultured to nodule production medium (NPM): MS basal medium, 30 g 1^{-1} sucrose, $1 \mu \dot{M}$ 2,4-D, 2 μM 6benzyladenine, 4 g l⁻¹ Difco Bacto-agar, 1.5 g l⁻¹ gelrite, pH 5.6. Nodules were produced from callus after 2 wk on NPM and were used for transformation or transferred to fresh NPM every 2 wk for future use. We define nodules as partially organized light green cell masses.

Agrobacterium strain and binary vectors. Agrobacterium tumefaciens C58z707 (Hepburn et al., 1985) was used as the host strain. pBI121 and pCNL56 (Li et al., 1992), binary vectors containing a bacterial reporter gene encoding bglucuronidase (GUS) (Jefferson et al., 1987), were used. While the reporter gene in pBI121 is under the control of the CMV35S promoter, the GUS gene in pCNL56 is fused to the modified CMV35S/mannopine synthase promoter, and contains an intron (Vancanneyt et al., 1990) to prevent GUS gene expression in Agrobacterium. Both vectors contain kanamycin resistance marker genes for bacterial and plant selection. The plant kanamycin resistance is conferred by the nptII gene under the control of the nos promoter. Each binary vector was introduced into Agrobacterium C58-z707 by tri-parental mating or electroporation and subsequent selection on kanamycin.

Nodule co-cultivation with Agrobacterium. Agrobacterium C58-z707 harboring either pBI121 or pCNL56 from a frozen glycerol stock was
grown at 28°C overnight on a YEB (1 g l⁻¹ Difco Yeast extract, 5 g l⁻¹ Difco Beef extract, 5 g l^{-1} Difco Bacto-peptone, 5 g l^{-1} sucrose, 0.5 g l^{-1} $MgSO_4.7H_2O$, 15 g l^{-1} Difco Bacto-agar), or a Difco Potato dextrose agar plate containing 50 mg l^{-1} kanamycin. A small amount of bacteria was then spread on a YEB or a Difco Potato dextrose agar plate containing 50 mg l^{-1} kanamycin and 100 μ M acetosyringone and incubated at 28 $^{\circ}$ C overnight. The bacteria were then suspended in bacterial resuspension medium (MS basal salts, $0.6 M$ mannitol, $100 \mu M$ acetosyringone, pH 5.6) at an approximate OD595 of 1.0 and incubated for at least 1 h at room temperature. Healthy, rapidly growing nodules approximately 3 mm in diameter were then submerged in the bacterial suspension for 3-5 min. Nodules were then placed on NPM containing 100 μ M acetosyringone (10 nodules per 100×15 mm plate) and incubated for 2 d in the dark within the growth chamber at 23° C.

Sequential selection of transformed nodules and frond regeneration on solid media. This protocol applies to all three geographic isolates. After 2 d of co-cultivation without selection, nodules were transferred to solid NPM containing $10-100$ mg l^{-1} kanamycin (Agri-Bio, Inc., North Miami, FL, USA) and 500 mg l^{-1} cefotaxime (Agri-Bio, Inc.) (NPM-KC). They were incubated for 4 wk in subdued light achieved by placing cultures in a styrofoam box in the growth chamber. Nodules were transferred weekly to fresh NPM-KC during this time. Nodules were then incubated under full light on NPM-KC for 2 wk or until selected nodules were distinct. Nodules were randomly sampled during selection and stained to monitor GUS expression. When transgenic nodules were selected, healthy nodules were transferred to fresh NPM-KC for another 2 wk. A subset of selected nodules was stained to confirm uniform GUS expression. Frond regeneration was induced by incubating selected nodules on frond regeneration medium (FRM): half-strength SH with $5 g l^{-1}$ sucrose, $4 g l^{-1}$ Difco Bacto-agar, 1.5 g l^{-1} gelrite, pH 5.6 for L. minor geographic isolates. FRM for L. gibba G3 contained only 4 g 1^{-1} Difco Bacto-agar and 1.5 g 1^{-1} gelrite at pH 5.6 with no nutrients. Although we did not always include kanamycin in FRM in this study, inclusion of kanamycin at 100 mg $\rm l^{-1}$ did not cause detrimental effects on regeneration of transgenic L. minor 8627 and was, thus, recommended. Regenerated fronds were proliferated on liquid SH medium for later confirmation of transformation.

Simultaneous selection and regeneration of transgenic fronds for L. minor 8627. This protocol was used with L. minor 8627 only. After 2 d of cocultivation, each nodule was transferred to a 125-ml flask containing 40 ml of liquid SH medium with 10 g l^{-1} sucrose, 5 mg l^{-1} kanamycin and 500 mg l^{-1} cefotaxime and incubated on a rotary shaker at 100 rpm in the growth chamber. The medium was changed weekly. Normal fronds were stained for GUS activity as they emerged. In order to avoid establishing multiple transgenic lines from a single transformation event, only one frond from each flask was used to establish an independent transgenic duckweed line.

GUS staining of nodules and fronds. GUS activity in co-cultivated nodules and regenerated fronds was monitored throughout the transformation experiments. GUS histochemical assays were performed at 37°C overnight using X-gluc as a substrate in the presence of a K^+ ferricy
anide/ferrocyanide mixture as an oxidation catalyst (Jefferson, 1987). Fronds were cleared in 95% ethanol after staining. Washing fronds for several seconds in 90% acetone followed by a rinse in deionized H2O prior to staining improved substrate penetration into older fronds.

Analysis of genomic DNA. Genomic DNA was isolated from duckweed fronds expressing GUS activity using the minipreparation method (Dellaporta et al., 1983) and the CTAB method (Doyle and Doyle, 1990). For the DNA gel blot of L. gibba G3 and Agrobacterium genomic DNA, probes were prepared from a 3 kb HindIII to EcoRI fragment of pBI121 containing the CMV35S promoter, the GUS gene and the nos terminator, and a 5.6 kb BamHI to HindIII fragment of pSL47 (kindly provided by Sharon L. Doty, Washington State University) containing the *virA*, part of *virB* and *tzs* of *Agrobacterium* strain C58. The ³²P-labeled probes were prepared using a Prime-a-Gene labeling system (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). DNA transfer, hybridization, and signal detection using 32P-labeled probes were performed according to published protocols (Sambrook et al., 1989).

A 2 kb BamHI to EcoRI fragment of pBI121 containing the GUS gene and the nos terminator was used as a probe for the DNA gel blot of L. minor strains. A DIG-High Prime DNA labeling and detection kit (Roche Molecular Biochemicals USA, Indianapolis, IN, USA) was used for probe preparation, hybridization, and signal detection.

Results and Discussion

Callus induction and nodule production. Several pale yellow or white calluses per each original frond were induced from all three geographic isolates within 6 wk using this protocol. After transfer to NPM, callus morphology changed to form partially organized light green nodules. These nodules proliferated stably on NPM for several months. We have used up to 4-mo.-old nodules of L. minor 8627 for transformation. Dark green frond-like structures or white calluses occasionally produced on nodules were not amenable for transformation. Generally, nodules of L. minor 8627 and 8744 grew well while L. gibba G3 nodules did not always grow as well (data not shown). This indicated that NPM for L. gibba G3 requires further optimization.

Sequential selection of transformed nodules and frond regeneration on solid media. We monitored GUS expression of nodules throughout the selection process. Many GUS-expressing cells were present in co-cultivated nodules beginning 2 d after cocultivation with the pCNL56-harboring Agrobacterium [\(Fig. 1A](#page-2-0)). Only the selection with 10 mg l^{-1} kanamycin was used for the transformation of L. gibba G3 and L. minor 8744 while concentrations up to 100 mg l^{-1} were tested for L. minor 8627. Nodules grew well for an extended period at low concentrations of kanamycin (e.g. 10 mg 1^{-1}) suggesting minimal selection pressure, although some transgenic lines were recovered eventually. Nodules selected at higher concentrations of kanamycin (e.g. 100 mg 1^{-1}) exhibited uniform GUS activity when either vector was used, indicating efficient selection. The kanamycin concentration needs to be optimized for each vector because expression of the nptII gene can be influenced by a strong adjacent promoter in certain vectors. Surrounding cells often escaped selection when nptII expression in transformed cells was high, resulting in non-transgenic plant regeneration.

We observed GUS-positive cells on many nodules that appeared dead. Furthermore, relatively few stable transformants were recovered compared to the large number of GUS-positive cells at early stages. These observations indicate that only a small fraction of cells transiently expressing GUS became stably transformed. While a systematic study of transformation efficiency was not

Fig. 1. Various stages of duckweed transformation. A, Typical GUS-staining pattern of L. minor 8627 nodules co-cultivated with Agrobacterium C58-z707::pCNL56 ($bar = 2$ mm). The nodules were stained with X-gluc 1 wk after co-cultivation. B, Frond regeneration from L. gibba G3 nodules (strain D) ($bar = 2$ mm). The arrow represents a regenerating frond. C, A GUS-stained frond regenerating from a selected nodule (L. gibba G3-A) ($bar = 5$ mm). The arrow indicates a regenerating frond. D, GUS expression in transgenic lines that have been maintained vegetatively for $2-3$ yr ($bar = 2$ mm). Two larger, single fronds and a long root are of L. gibba G3-B3 and other fronds are of L. minor 8627-H.

conducted, usually multiple independent transformed lines were obtained per plate of 10 original L. minor 8627 nodules.

GUS-positive fronds regenerated within 1 mo. after transfer of selected nodules to FRM (Fig. 1B, C). To insure true transgenic regeneration, inclusion of kanamycin in FRM is recommended. Generally, cefotaxime was not necessary during frond regeneration. While regenerating fronds occasionally exhibited abnormal morphology, normal fronds grew from them after they were transferred to liquid medium. Transgenic lines that have been propagated vegetatively for up to 3 yr exhibited uniform GUS activity (Fig. 1D), indicating long-term stability of the GUS expression.

Simultaneous selection and regeneration of transgenic

fronds. Variations in the sequential transformation method were tested to improve transformation efficiency. We were particularly interested in facilitating the transformation process by selecting transformants during, rather than prior to, regeneration of fronds and the use of liquid media. L. minor 8627 was used for this study because of its consistent nodule production and growth, and it is a preferred strain for swine waste effluent remediation (Bergmann et al., 2000a, b). Using the protocol with simultaneous selection and regeneration, the original nodule grew and often broke up into several nodules, from which frond-like structures began to regenerate within 4-5 wk of selection after the co-cultivation of nodules with Agrobacterium. Normal, free-floating fronds were

Fig. 2. DNA hybridization analysis of the L. gibba G3-D transformant. Total DNA of L. gibba G3-D line $(10 \mu g)$ and C58-z707::pBI121 $(10 \eta g)$ was digested with a combination of HindIII (H), EcoRI (E) and BamHI (B) and probed first with a 3 kb HindIII-EcoRI fragment of pBI121 containing the CMV35S promoter, GUS gene and the nos terminator sequence (left panel). Non-transformed L. gibba G3 (wt) with or without pBI121 (10 copies) were included as controls. The blot was stripped and reprobed with a 5.6 kb HindIII-BamHI fragment of pSL47 containing the virA, part of virB and tzs of the Agrobacterium strain C58 (right panel).

produced by the fifth to sixth week whereas sequential selection and regeneration using solid NPM and FRM resulted in transgenic fronds 12-16 wk after co-cultivation of nodules with Agrobacterium. This improvement was due to the elimination of the slow selection process of transgenic nodules rather than the use of liquid environment. A variation of this protocol in which solid FRM was used to simultaneously select and regenerate fronds has been tried successfully, resulting in transformed fronds within 8 wk. It is not possible to estimate the transformation frequency because we took only one frond from each flask while multiple independent transformation events might have occurred per nodule. Occasionally, a nodule did not generate any transgenic fronds.

Simultaneous selection and regeneration of transgenic fronds was much faster than the original sequential method for transforming L. minor 8627. Rapid recovery of transformants and the decreased requirements for kanamycin are both valuable aspects of this procedure. While $40-100$ mg l⁻¹ kanamycin was needed for efficient selection of transgenic nodules on solid NPM, 5 mg l^{-1} was sufficient using liquid SH medium. This difference was due to altered antibiotic susceptibility in the different media environments. For example, non-transformed L. minor 8627 nodules were killed within 3 wk, and no regeneration of fronds occurred in liquid SH medium supplemented with 4 mg l^{-1} kanamycin, while nontransformed nodules grew very well on solid NPM containing 10 mg l⁻¹ kanamycin for several weeks. Similar observations have been reported in kanamycin sensitivities of wild-type and transformed mango somatic embryos (Mathews and Litz, 1990;

Fig. 3. DNA hybridization analysis of L. minor 8627 and 8744 transformed with pCNL56. Ten μ g of total DNA from transformed L. minor lines H, F (geographic isolate 8627) and E (geographic isolate 8744) were digested with EcoRI (E) alone or EcoRI and BamHI (B) and fractionated on an agarose gel. EcoRI-digested non-transformed L. minor 8627 and 8744 (wt) were included as controls. The blot was hybridized with a 2 kb $EcoRI-$ BamHI fragment of pBI121 containing GUS gene and the nos promoter sequence. The probe hybridizes to a 2 kb $EcoRI-BamHI$ fragment of the GUS-intron construct of pCNL56 (arrow). The appearance of a faint doublet in all DNA preparations digested with EcoRI may be due to heterologous hybridization of the probe to duckweed genomic DNA.

Mathews et al., 1992) and selection of cucumber transformants using G418 and hygromycin (Tabei et al., 1994). Tabei et al. (1994) suggested that the liquid environment allows antibiotics to contact the entire surface of explants, thus ensuring reliable selection. This may also be due to the differences in tissue uptake of kanamycin in different media environments or different availability of kanamycin due to its binding to certain gelling agents (Chauvin et al., 1999). A third advantage of this protocol is the use of liquid medium because it may be suitable for automated handling of large numbers of samples.

Analysis of genomic DNA. Total DNA was extracted from selected transgenic duckweed lines as they were generated and subjected to molecular analyses. DNA from initial transformants (L. gibba G3 with pBI121) was tested with a GUS construct probe containing the CMV35S promoter and the nos terminator and a probe containing the vir region of C58. Figure 2 is the hybridization pattern of L. gibba G3-D transformant. The genomic integration of the GUS gene construct was demonstrated by the hybridization signal to the high molecular weight undigested DNA and a HindIII-digested band of a different size from pBI121 linearized with HindIII (Fig. 2, left panel). A 3 kb HindIII to EcoRI fragment in both C58-z707::pBI121 and L. gibba G3-D indicated the integrity of the GUS construct in the transgenic line. A 0.8 kb HindIII to BamHI fragment corresponds to the CMV35S promoter. Non-transformed L. gibba G3 did not hybridize to these probes. The absence of Agrobacterium was demonstrated by the lack of hybridization of the vir probe to L. gibba G3-D DNA (Fig. 2, right panel).

Figure 3 is the DNA analysis of three transformants of two L. minor geographic isolates by hybridization with a 2 kb GUS probe. These transformants (H, F and E) were generated using pCNL56. The EcoRI digestion pattern demonstrated that the GUS gene was inserted at independent genome locations. All strains share a 2 kb EcoRI to BamHI fragment containing the GUS gene with an intron.

We have demonstrated an efficient protocol to genetically transform two duckweed species, L. gibba (G3) and L. minor (8627 and 8744), and a second method to rapidly transform L. minor 8627. Duckweed is an excellent vehicle for commercial production of biomass and recombinant proteins. Our rapid transformation protocol will enhance its potential for automation, large-scale screening, and industrial applications.

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