

RESEARCH PAPER

Genetic engineering low-arsenic and low-cadmium rice grain

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Abstract

Rice is prone to take up the toxic elements arsenic (As) and cadmium (Cd) from paddy soil through the transporters for other essential elements. Disruption of these essential transporters usually adversely affects the normal growth of rice and the homeostasis of essential elements. Here we report on developing low-As and low-Cd rice grain through the co-overexpression of *OsPCS1*, *OsABCC1*, and *OsHMA3* genes under the control of the rice *OsActin1* promoter. Co-overexpression of *OsPCS1* and *OsABCC1* synergistically decreased As concentration in the grain. Overexpression of *OsPCS1* also decreased Cd concentration in the grain by restricting the xylem-to-phloem Cd transport in node I, but paradoxically caused Cd hypersensitivity as the overproduced phytochelatin in *OsPCS1*-overexpressing plants suppressed *OsHMA3*-dependent Cd sequestration in vacuoles and promoted Cd transport from root to shoot. Co-overexpression of *OsHAM3* and *OsPCS1* overcame this suppression and complemented the Cd hypersensitivity. Compared with non-transgenic rice control, co-overexpression of *OsABCC1*, *OsPCS1*, and *OsHMA3* in rice decreased As and Cd concentrations in grain by 92.1% and 98%, respectively, without causing any defect in plant growth and reproduction or of mineral nutrients in grain. Our research provides an effective approach and useful genetic materials for developing low-As and low-Cd rice grain.

Keywords: Arsenic, cadmium, *OsABCC1*, *OsHMA3*, *OsPCS1*, phytochelatin, rice, vacuolar sequestration.

Introduction

Cadmium (Cd) and arsenic (As) are a toxic metal and metalloid, respectively, that may cause acute and chronic adverse health effects in humans (Hughes, 2002; Fowler, 2009). Rice, feeding more than half the world's population, is a major dietary source of Cd and As (Clemens and Ma, 2016; Zhao and Wang, 2019). Compared with other cereal crops, rice is likely to accumulate more As and Cd due to its growth environment and efficient uptake and transportation systems for the two toxic elements (Ma *et al.*, 2008; Xu *et al.*, 2008; Sui *et al.*, 2018). It is a great challenge to simultaneously control Cd and As accumulation in the rice grain by using traditional approaches,

including breeding low-grain arsenic rice varieties, and water and nutrient management. However, these strategies all have their own limitations. Complicated interactions between genetics and environmental factors make the genotype selection of low-As rice varieties difficult (Norton *et al.*, 2009a, b; Ahmed *et al.*, 2010; Duan *et al.*, 2017). More importantly, the accumulation of Cd and As exhibited opposite correlations with the heading date among a broad range of rice cultivars, making it challenging to select rice varieties with both low Cd and low As (Duan *et al.*, 2017). Anaerobic conditions markedly reduce the availability of Cd, due to the formation of insoluble

cadmium sulfide (CdS). In contrast, anaerobic conditions promote the reduction of As(V) to As(III), which is more bio-available than As(V). Therefore, As and Cd exhibit opposing reactions to water management in rice (Clemens and Ma, 2016). For example, sprinkler irrigation, a water management technique, reduced As but enhanced Cd accumulation in rice grain (Moreno-Jimenez *et al.*, 2014). In addition, silicon fertilization decreases total As in straw by 78%, but only by 16% in grain (Li *et al.*, 2009).

Over the past few decades, significant progress has been made in understanding the molecular mechanisms involved in As and Cd uptake, translocation, and detoxification in rice (Clemens and Ma, 2016; Zhao and Wang, 2019). The uptake and xylem loading of As(III) is mainly mediated by the silicon transporters, *OsLsi1* and *OsLsi2*, respectively (Ma *et al.*, 2008). In the cytosol, non-coded peptide phytochelatin (PCs), synthesized from glutathione (GSH) by phytochelatin synthase (PCS) (Grill *et al.*, 1985; Ha *et al.*, 1999), chelate As(III) to form PC-As(III) complexes which are then sequestered into the vacuoles via a tonoplast transporter *OsABCC1*. This process plays an important role in As detoxification in rice (Song *et al.*, 2014; Hayashi *et al.*, 2017). In nodes, *OsABCC1* is localized in the tonoplast of phloem companion cells in vascular bundles, and limits As transport in the grain by sequestering As into the vacuoles (Song *et al.*, 2014; Hayashi *et al.*, 2017). In rice, *OsNramp5* is a major transporter for Cd uptake in the root, and it is mainly expressed in the root and localized to the plasma membrane of the distal side of the exodermis and endodermis (Ishikawa *et al.*, 2012; Sasaki *et al.*, 2012). In addition, the plasma membrane-localized transporters *OsNramp1* and *OsCd1* are also involved in root Cd uptake (Yan *et al.*, 2019; Chang *et al.*, 2020). After the uptake, Cd is transported into the vacuoles of root cells by the tonoplast transporter *OsHMA3*, which effectively inhibits Cd loading into the xylem and long-distance Cd translocation in the shoot; thereby overexpression of *OsHMA3* greatly reduces Cd accumulation in rice grain (Ueno *et al.*, 2010; Miyadate *et al.*, 2011). In addition, *OsHMA2* and *OsLCT1* are responsible for Cd distribution in nodes (Uraguchi *et al.*, 2011; Takahashi *et al.*, 2012; Yamaji *et al.*, 2013). Besides the cell-to-cell pathway, Cd can also enter plants through the apoplastic pathway, where water and solutes can move towards the stele through the extracellular space in the root. Under Cd stress, rice can enhance the apoplastic barrier development close to the root tip to reduce Cd transfer into the xylem via passive diffusion (Qi *et al.*, 2020).

Several efforts have been made to manipulate transporter genes to mitigate the accumulation of As or Cd in rice grains. However, As and Cd share transporters with other essential elements in rice, and the loss of function of these transporter genes leads to an adverse effect on plant growth, development, reproduction, or homeostasis of essential elements (Ma *et al.*, 2007, 2008; Sasaki *et al.*, 2012). For example, *Nramp5* is an essential transporter for Cd and Mn uptake. Knockout of *OsNramp5* resulted in an impaired

growth and yield, especially in low-Mn conditions (Sasaki *et al.*, 2012), although this phenomenon was not observed in a different study (Ishikawa *et al.*, 2012). Loss of function of silicon transporter genes *OsLsi1* and *OsLsi2* significantly reduced As accumulation in the grain, but also affected the normal growth of plants owing to Si deficiency (Ma *et al.*, 2007, 2008). Overexpression of the endogenous *OsPCS1* in rice significantly reduced As concentration in the grain (Hayashi *et al.*, 2017). However, the heteroexpression of the wheat PCS gene (*TaPCS1*) in rice led to Cd hypersensitivity, although the mechanism causing this phenomenon is not yet clear (Wang *et al.*, 2012). Thus, it is necessary to tackle the contradiction to utilizing PCS genes to control the accumulation of As and Cd in the rice grain. So far, no study has focused on reducing As and Cd concentrations in the rice grain simultaneously by genetic or genetic engineering approaches. Our objective was to generate low-As and low-Cd rice grain by enhancing As and Cd sequestration in vacuoles of cells in the root or other vegetative tissues without causing any pleiotropic phenotype, yield penalty, or change in the concentrations of mineral nutrients in rice.

Materials and methods

Genes, constructs, and rice transformation

Constructs for gene overexpression in rice were made based on the binary vector pCAMBIA1305.1 (accession no. AF304545). Briefly, the cauliflower mosaic virus (CaMV) 35S promoter upstream of the *GUSPlus*TM gene in the T-DNA region of pCAMBIA1305.1 was replaced by a 1414 bp promoter derived from the rice *OsActin1* gene (Os03g0718100) (Reece *et al.*, 1990). The coding region of the *GUSPlus*TM gene was substituted by the coding regions derived from the cDNA clones of *OsHMA3* (Os07g0232900) or *OsPCS1* (Os05g0415200), or the genomic clone of *OsABCC1* (Os04g0620000) to yield binary constructs pCHMA3-C, pCPCS1-C, and pCABCC1-G that harbour promoter fusion genes *P_{Actin1}:cHMA3:T_{Nos}*, *P_{Actin1}:cPCS1:T_{Nos}*, and *P_{Actin1}:gABCC1:T_{Nos}*, respectively (Supplementary Fig. S1). All constructs were introduced into the *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain AGL1 and used for rice transformation. The *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation of T5105 was performed according to the procedures described previously, with slight modification (Hiei *et al.*, 1994); the 1 mg l⁻¹ kinetin (KT) and 0.2 mg l⁻¹ 1-naphthaleneacetic acid (NAA) in the rice regeneration medium N6S3-CH were replaced with 1 mg l⁻¹ 6-benzylaminopurine (BA) and 1 mg l⁻¹ NAA.

Plant materials, growth conditions, and As and/or Cd treatment

The rice cultivar used in this study was T5105, an improved aromatic *indica* rice in the genetic background of Thai fragrance KTML 105 (Luo and Yin, 2013). T5105 and transgenic plants were grown in pots filled with 5 kg of soil in a greenhouse at 24–33 °C under natural light. The control soil used in this study contained background levels of As at 2.09 mg kg⁻¹ and Cd at 0.44 mg kg⁻¹. For soil treatment, the control soil was supplemented with 10 mg kg⁻¹ As supplied as NaAsO₂ and/or 3 mg kg⁻¹ Cd supplied as CdSO₄. Rice seedlings were grown in control soil in the nursery for 28 d. They were then transplanted onto soils with or without As and/or Cd treatment and grown to maturity in the greenhouse. Rice seeds and straws were harvested and dried for inductively coupled plasma (ICP)-MS analysis.

Southern blotting analysis

Genome DNA from transgenic rice was extracted using the HP plant DNA mini kit (Omega BIO-TEK). About 2 µg of DNA was digested with restriction enzymes *Hind*III and *Bam*HI (NEB). DNA fragments were separated on a 0.8% (w/v) agarose gel by gel electrophoresis. The fragments were then blotted from the agarose gel onto a Hybond-N⁺ membrane (GE Healthcare). Digoxigenin (DIG)-labelled specific nucleic acid probes for the *hpt* gene were amplified by PCR using DIG DNA labelling Mix (Roche) and the primer pairs listed in [Supplementary Table S1](#). Southern blot hybridization and detection of the DIG-labelled probes were performed according to the manufacturer's instruction using the DIG-High Prime DNA Labeling and Detection Starter Kit II (Roche). The ChemiDoc Touch imaging system (Bio-Rad) was used to detect the chemiluminescent signal.

Quantitative real-time PCR

Total RNA was extracted from leaf tissues of 8-week-old plants using a Favorprep plant total RNA purification mini kit (FAVORGEN), followed by DNA digestion using DNaseI (Roche). The first-strand cDNAs were synthesized from 1 µg of total RNA using a cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad). Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) with three technical replicates and three biological replicates was performed on a CFX96 real-time system (Bio-Rad) using SYB FAST qPCR Master Mix (KAPA Biosystems). The qRT-PCR results were normalized against rice elongation factor gene *OsEF-1a* (Os03g0178000) and rice ubiquitin gene *OsUBQ5* (Os01g0328400), respectively. The relative gene expression levels were determined using the 2^{-ΔΔC_t} relative quantification method with the expression level in T5105 arbitrarily set to 1 ([Livak and Schmittgen, 2001](#)). The oligo DNA primers for qRT-PCR of different genes are listed in [Supplementary Table S1](#).

Rice genome sequencing and identification of the T-DNA insertion sites

Genomic DNA was isolated from homozygous transgenic rice seedlings. High-throughput genome sequencing containing clean reads with 50-fold sequencing depth was conducted at BGI Genomics Co., Ltd. The T-DNA insertion sites were identified by aligning to the relevant regions of the T-DNA constructs, spanning from the left border to the right border, with Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (BWA) software and samtools. The T-DNA insertion sites were further confirmed by PCR.

Test of rice seedlings for tolerance to As and/or Cd

Rice seeds were surface-sterilized and germinated on half-strength Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium in Phytatray II vessels (Sigma-Aldrich) at 25 °C in a tissue culture room with a photoperiod of 16 h light and 8 h darkness. Two-week-old rice seedlings were transferred to half-strength MS medium containing different concentrations of NaAsO₂ (0–100 µM) and/or CdSO₄ (0–40 µM), and cultured for another 14 d. The root tissues of treated seedlings were washed three times with 5 mM CaCl₂ and deionized water, respectively. They were photographed before the shoot length was measured. The seedling samples were dried at 70 °C in an oven for 7 d and the dry weight of the seedlings was measured.

Measurement of the total concentration of phytochelatins in rice tissues

The non-protein thiols (NPTs) were extracted and determined according to previous reports, with minor modification ([Schat and Kalfif, 1992](#); [Devi and Prasad, 1998](#)). About 200 mg of fresh root or shoot tissues were ground in liquid nitrogen, and NPTs were extracted with 1 ml of buffer

of a 5% (w/v) sulfosalicylic acid (SSA) solution with 6.3 mM diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (DTPA) (pH <1) at 0 °C. The homogenate was centrifuged at 10 000 g for 10 min at 4 °C. The concentration of NPTs in the supernatant was measured immediately. An aliquot of 300 µl of supernatant was mixed with 650 µl of 0.5 M K₂HPO₄, and the absorbance at 412 nM was measured after a 2 min incubation. The mixture was then added with 26.6 µl of DTNB solution [6 mM 5,5'-dithiobis-(2-nitrobenzoic acid) (DTNB), 0.143 M K₂HPO₄, 6.3 mM diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (DTPA), pH 7.5] and incubated for 2 min. The absorbance at 412 nM was measured again. The increase in absorbance was corrected for the absorbance of DTNB, and GSH was used as standard. The concentration of free GSH in the supernatants was measured using the Glutathione Fluorescent Detection Kit (Invitrogen). The total concentration of PCs was calculated as the total concentration of NPTs minus free GSH.

Element analysis by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry

The concentrations of As, Cd, Co, Cu, Fe, Mn, Se, and Zn in rice grain (de-husked but unpolished brown rice) and straw tissues were determined by ICP-MS. The roots and shoots of seedling plants, grains, and different straw tissues of adult plants at the harvest stage were collected and dried in an oven at 70 °C for 7 d. About 0.1 g of dried rice seeds or straw tissues were pre-digested with 3 ml of concentrated HNO₃/H₂O₂ mixture (5:1, v/v) overnight at room temperature, and then were digested in a microwave oven (Ethos One, Milestone Technologies) for 4 h. After dilution, the concentrations of elements in the digested solution were determined by ICP-MS (7700S, Agilent Technologies, USA). The rice flour NIST SRM 1568b was used for certified reference material (CRM) to assess the precision and accuracy of analysis procedures.

Isolation of intact protoplasts and vacuoles from rice mesophyll cells

The protoplasts were isolated from rice mesophyll cells as described previously ([Trinidad et al., 2021](#)). In brief, the shoot tissues from 10-day-old rice seedlings germinated and grown in half-strength MS medium were cut into 0.5 cm strips. The protoplasts were released from the strips by adding protoplast isolation buffer [0.6 mannitol, 10 mM MES, 10 mM CaCl₂, 0.1% BSA (w/v), 1.5% (w/v) cellulase RS (C0615, Sigma, USA), and 0.75% (w/v) pectinase RS (P2401, Sigma, USA)] followed by incubation in the dark with gentle shaking at 28 °C for 4 h. The protoplasts were collected by centrifugation at 150 g and 20 °C for 5 min using a swinging bucket rotor with slow acceleration and slow deceleration setting. The pellet was washed twice with W5 buffer (154 mM NaCl, 125 mM CaCl₂, 5 mM KCl, and 2 mM MES) and re-collected by spinning at 100 g for 3 min. Vacuoles were isolated from rice mesophyll cells using a modified method ([Frangne et al., 2002](#)). Lysis buffer [0.2 M mannitol, 10% Ficoll-400, 15 mM EDTA (pH 8.0), 5 mM sodium phosphate (pH 8.0)] pre-warmed to 37 °C was added to the protoplasts. The protoplasts were resuspended gently by being pipetted up and down 5–8 times and lysed by incubation in a warm water bath at 37 °C for 5–10 min. The vacuoles released from protoplasts were purified by centrifugation on a three-step Ficoll-400 gradient. One volume of lysed protoplast suspension was overlaid with two volumes of Ficoll-400 solution (5% w/v), prepared by mixing one volume of lysis buffer and one volume of vacuole buffer (30 mM KCl, 20 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.5, 0.4 M betaine, 15 mg ml⁻¹ BSA, and 1 mM DDT). One volume of vacuole buffer was then layered on the top of the gradient carefully but quickly. The vacuoles were collected on the interface between the 5% Ficoll-400 solution and vacuole buffer after centrifugation at 1500 g for 20 min.

Collection of xylem sap and phloem exudate, and mineral analysis

To analyse the Cd concentration in xylem sap and phloem exudate, rice plants at 10 d after flowering were transferred to quarter-strength MS medium containing 10 μ M Cd for 4 d. Xylem sap collection was performed as previously described (Kan et al., 2019). Rice stalks were cut at 1 cm above node I, and the cut surface was cleaned with deionized H₂O. A tube containing absorbent cotton was placed on the cut end of node I and the xylem sap was absorbed by the cotton for 6 h. The cotton was centrifuged at 12 000 g for 10 min to collect the xylem sap. The xylem sap was subjected to Cd determination using ICP-MS. Phloem exudate collection was performed according to previous reports (King and Zeevaert, 1974; Uraguchi et al., 2011). Rice internode I with panicle removed was cut 1 cm above node I, and then the lower cut end was recut under 20 mM EDTA (pH 7.5) solution. The lower cut end of internode I was immediately immersed in 200 μ l of EDTA solution, and the detached internode I was kept in darkness at 25 °C and high relative humidity (>85%) for 3 h. The EDTA solution containing phloem exudates was subjected to Cd determination using ICP-MS.

Statistical analysis

Data were analysed using two-tailed Student's *t*-test (**P*<0.05 or ***P*<0.01) or one-way ANOVA followed by LSD test (significance level of *P*<0.05). All analyses were performed using IBM SPSS statistics 19.

Results

Generation and characterization of transgenic lines

To investigate the effect of overexpression of individual *OsPCS1*, *OsABCC1*, or *OsHMA3* genes and their combinations on As and/or Cd accumulation in rice grain, we generated independent transgenic lines in the T5105 genetic background that harboured cDNA or a genomic clone of the *OsPCS1*, *OsABCC1*, or *OsHMA3* genes under the control of the rice *OsActin1* promoter ($P_{Actin1}:cPCS1:T_{Nos}$, $P_{Actin1}:gABCC1:T_{Nos}$, or $P_{Actin1}:cHMA3:T_{Nos}$) (Supplementary Fig. S1). For each gene, three independent transgenic lines were selected for detailed characterization. They were PCS1-L1, PCS1-L2, and PCS1-L4 for the $P_{Actin1}:cPCS1:T_{Nos}$ gene, ABCC1-L3, ABCC1-L27, and ABCC1-L31 for the $P_{Actin1}:gABCC1:T_{Nos}$ gene, and HMA3-L1, HMA3-L3, and HMA3-L12 for the $P_{Actin1}:cHMA3:T_{Nos}$ gene. These transgenic lines harboured single-copy and intact T-DNA fragments free of vector backbone sequence and showed overexpression of the transgenes (Supplementary Figs S2A–C, S3A–C, S4A–C). Compared with the non-transgenic control T5105, they showed no significant difference in growth, development, or reproduction (Supplementary Figs S2D–G, S3D–G, S4D–G). The representative transgenic lines PCS1-L1, ABCC1-L27, and HMA3-L3 were selected for gene pyramiding and further studies (Supplementary Figs S2G, S3G, S4G). Whole-genome sequencing analysis revealed that the T-DNA fragments were inserted in the intergenic regions between Os01g0688300 and Os01g0688400 in PCS1-L1, between Os03g0811400 and

Os03g0811500 in ABCC1-L27, and between Os08g0300100 and Os08g0300200 in HMA3-L3 (Supplementary Fig. S5).

Co-overexpression of *OsPCS1* and *OsABCC1* in rice synergistically decreases As concentration in grain and provides enhanced As tolerance

T5105, *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines (PCS1-L1, PCS1-L2, and PCS1-L4), and *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines (ABCC1-L3, ABCC1-L27, and ABCC1-L31) were grown in As-contaminated soil, and the As concentration in grain and straw was measured by ICP-MS. The As concentration in the grain of the *OsPCS1*- and *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines ranged from 20.5% to 29.5% and from 46.9% to 64.1% of that of T5105, respectively (Fig. 1A, B). The As concentration in straw tissues was measured in the representative transgenic lines PCS1-L1, ABCC1-L31, and T5105. Compared with T5105, both PCS1-L1 and ABCC1-L31 accumulated more As in root, nodes (node I and node II), internode II, and leaf II, but similar or lower As concentration in the tissues above node I, including internode I, flag leaf, rachis, and husk (Fig. 1C). These results demonstrate that the overexpression of *OsPCS1* or *OsABCC1* in rice increases As accumulation in vegetative tissues, especially in root and nodes, and decreases As allocation to panicle and seed. An *OsPCS1*- and *OsABCC1*-co-expressing line (AP) was developed through the cross between PCS1-L1 and ABCC1-L31. The As concentration in the grain of AP was 10.1% that of T5105, which was lower than that of PCS1-L1 or ABCC1-L31 (Fig. 1D). The result indicates that co-overexpression of *OsPCS1* and *OsABCC1* synergistically decreases As concentration in grain. The seedling of *OsPCS1*- and *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines as well as AP were tested in As(III)-containing MS medium. Compared with T5105, all transgenic lines showed enhanced tolerance to As(III) in the concentration range 75–100 μ M (Supplementary Fig. S6). Among the transgenic lines tested, AP showed the highest enhanced tolerance with the longest shoot length and the greatest dry weight per plant (Supplementary Fig. S6G–I). AP also had the highest As concentration in root and the lowest As concentration in shoot among these plants (Fig. 1E, F). The results demonstrate that the overexpression of *OsPCS1* or *OsABCC1* in rice promotes As accumulation in root and decreases As transport to the shoot, which results in enhanced tolerance to As stress, and co-overexpression of *OsPCS1* and *OsABCC1* in rice enhances this process.

Overexpression of *OsPCS1* in rice decreases grain Cd concentration but paradoxically leads to Cd hypersensitivity at the seedling stage

The *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines PCS1-L1, PCS1-L2, and PCS1-L4 were also tested in Cd-contaminated soil. The Cd concentration in the grain of the three *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines was 58.9–62.6% of that in the grain of

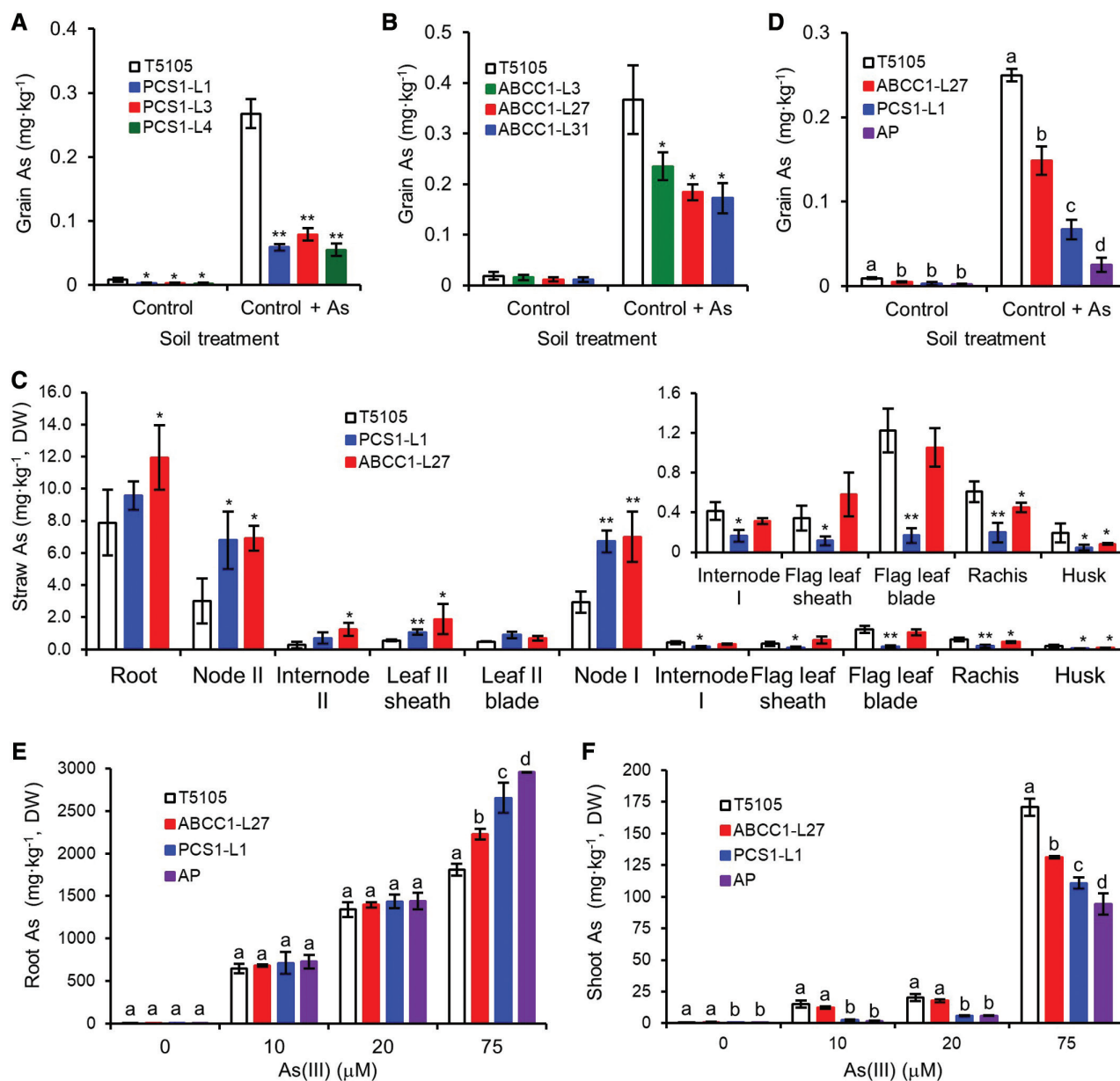


Fig. 1. Co-overexpression of *OsPCS1* and *OsABCC1* under the control of the *OsActin1* promoter in rice synergistically decreases As concentration in grain. (A and B) As concentration in the grain of T5105, *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines (A), and *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines (B) grown in As-contaminated soil. (C) As concentration in different straw tissues of T5105, PCS1-L1, and ABCC1-L27 grown in As-contaminated soil. (D) As concentration in the grain of T5105, PCS1-L1, ABCC1-L27, and AP grown in As-contaminated soil. (E and F) As concentration in root (E) and shoot (F) of seedlings of T5105, ABCC1-L27, PCS1-L1, and AP at 14 d after As treatment. The data (mean \pm SD) were obtained from three independent experiments using separately grown plants. The asterisks in (A–C) indicate a significant difference between T5105 and transgenic lines (* P <0.05; ** P <0.01 by Student's *t*-test). The different letters in (D–F) indicate a significant difference calculated by one-way ANOVA followed by LSD test at P <0.05. T5105, non-transgenic control; AP, an *OsPCS1*- and *OsABCC1*-co-overexpressing line with transgenes derived from PCS1-L1 and ABCC1-L27.

T5105 (Fig. 2A). Compared with T5105, the representative *OsPCS1*-overexpressing line PCS1-L1 had significantly higher Cd concentration in nodes (node I and node II) and internode II than T5105 (Fig. 2B). Notably, although PCS1-L1 had a lower Cd concentration in the grain than T5105, it accumulated more Cd in the husk and rachis than the non-transgenic control (Fig. 2A, B). In rice, the Cd distribution between the

xylem and phloem in node I determines the Cd concentration in husk and grain (Tanaka *et al.*, 2007; Kato *et al.*, 2010). To examine whether the overexpression of *OsPCS1* affected Cd distribution between xylem and phloem in node I, we measured Cd and potassium (K) (as a control) concentrations in xylem sap and phloem exudate from internode I in PCS1-L1 and T5105. Compared with T5105, PCS1-L1 had significantly

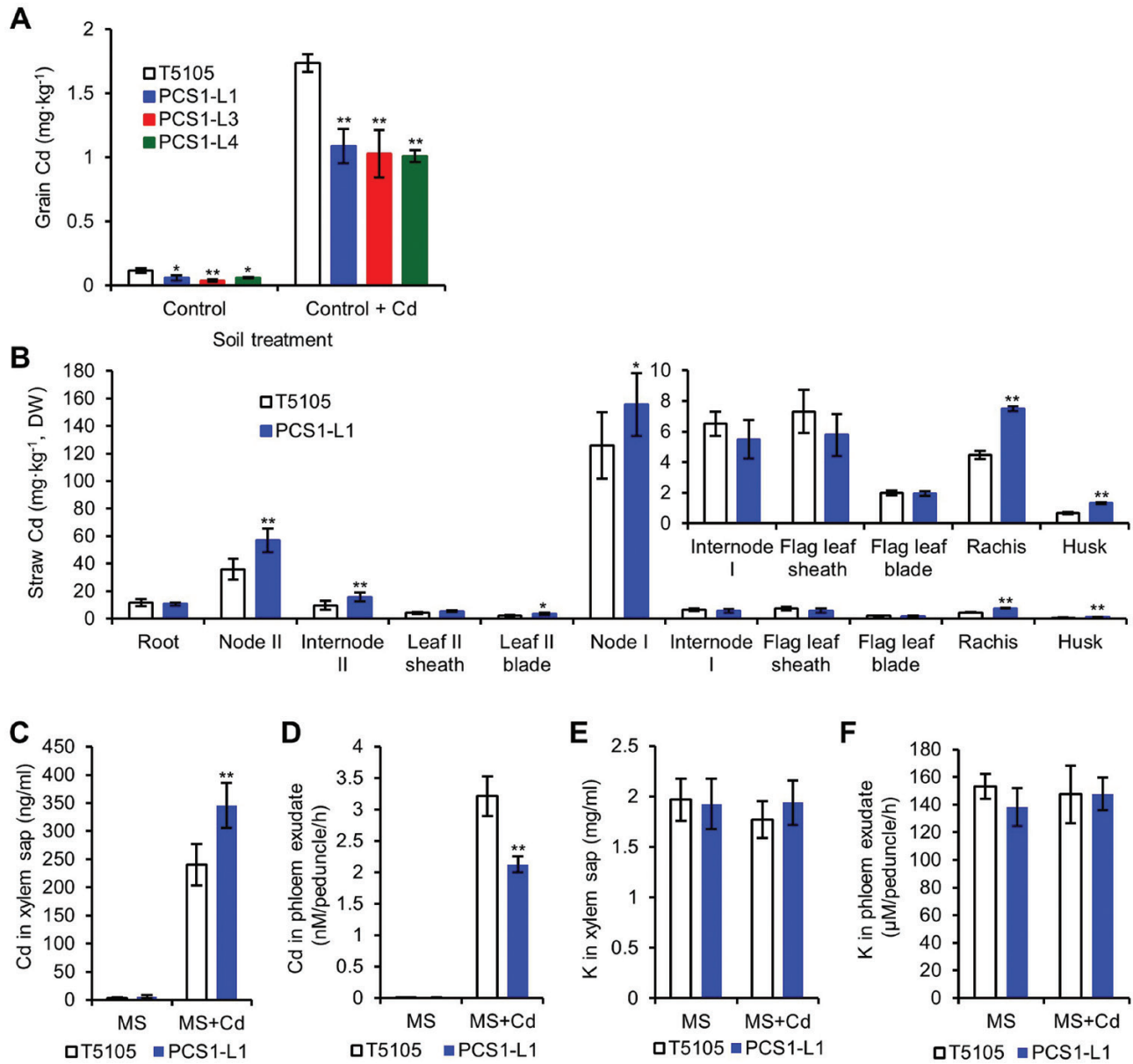


Fig. 2. Grain Cd concentration was significantly decreased in *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines. (A) Grain Cd concentration of T5105 and *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines grown in control soil or Cd-contaminated soil. (B) Cd concentration in different straw tissues of T5105 and PCS1-L1 grown in Cd-contaminated soil. (C and D) Cd concentration in xylem sap (C) and phloem exudate (D) from internode I treated in MS medium or Cd-containing MS medium. (E and F) Potassium (K) concentration in xylem sap (E) and phloem exudate (F) from internode I treated in MS medium or Cd-containing MS medium. The data (mean ±SD) were obtained from three independent experiments using separately grown plants. The asterisks in (A–D) indicate a significant difference between T5105 and the *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines (**P*<0.05; ***P*<0.01 by Student's *t*-test).

higher Cd concentration in xylem sap but much lower Cd concentration in phloem exudate (Fig. 2C, D). However, there was no significant difference in the K concentration in xylem sap and phloem exudates between PCS1-L1 and T5105 in internode I (Fig. 2E, F). The results indicated that overexpression of *OsPCS1* enhanced Cd accumulation in the rachis and husk but decreased Cd allocation to grain by suppressing Cd xylem-to-phloem transport in node I.

The *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines were then tested for Cd tolerance on Cd-containing MS medium. It was unexpected to observe that the *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines showed hypersensitivity to Cd stress at the seedling stage (Fig. 3A). They had a significantly shorter shoot length and lower dry weight per plant than T5105 (Fig. 3B, C). To investigate if the overproduced PCs caused this paradoxical phenotype in the *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines, we measured the total PC concentration

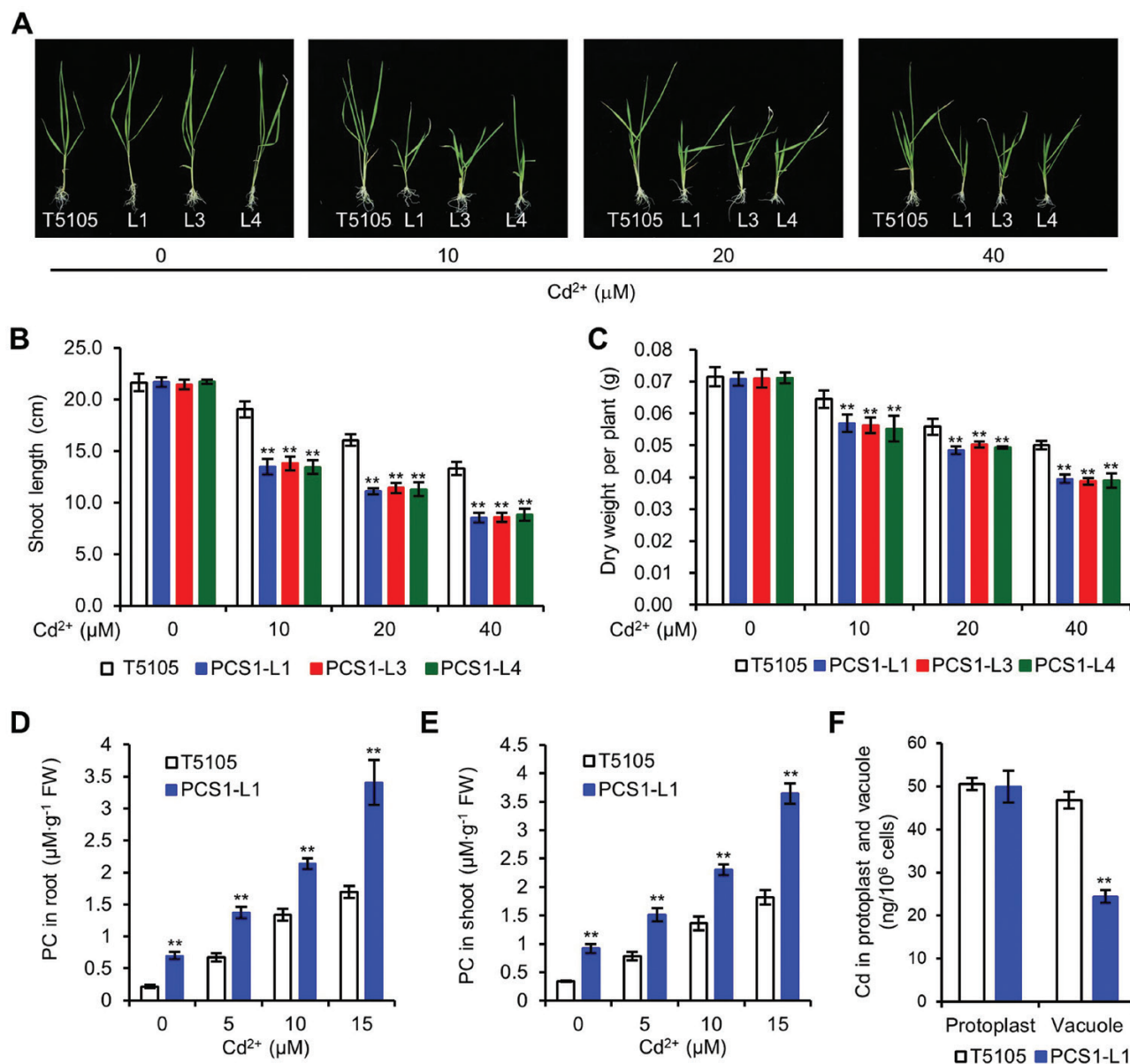


Fig. 3. Overexpression of *OsPCS1* in rice causes Cd hypersensitivity and suppresses vacuolar Cd sequestration. (A) Seedlings of T5105 and *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines at 14 d after Cd treatment. (B and C) Shoot length (B) and dry weight (C) of T5105 and *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines at 14 d after Cd treatment. (D and E) PC concentration in root (D) and shoot (E) of T5105 and PCS1-L1 seedlings at 14 d after Cd treatment. (F) Cd concentration in vacuoles and protoplasts isolated from T5105 and PCS1-L1 seedlings grown in Cd-containing medium for 10 d. The data (mean \pm SD) in (B–F) were obtained from three independent experiments using separately grown plants. The asterisks in (B–F) indicate a significant difference between T5105 and the *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines (* P <0.05; ** P <0.01 by Student's t -test). T5105, non-transgenic control; L1, PCS1-L1; L3, PCS1-L3; L4, PCS1-L4.

in PCS1-L1 and T5105. The total PC concentrations in the shoot and root of PCS1-L1 were 2.7- and 3.2-fold that of T5105, respectively (Fig. 3D, E). In addition, the total PC concentration in both PCS1-L1 and T5105 was proportionally increased after Cd treatment (Fig. 3D, E). To further investigate if the overproduced PCs in PCS1-L1 suppressed Cd sequestration in vacuoles, we isolated protoplasts and vacuoles from the shoot tissues of PCS1-L1 and T5105 treated with Cd

and measured their Cd concentration (Supplementary Fig. S7). PCS1-L1 and T5105 had comparable Cd concentrations in their isolated protoplasts; however, the Cd concentration in the purified vacuoles of PCS1-L1 was only 52.2% that of T5105 (Fig. 3F). The results indicate that the overproduced PCs in the *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines suppressed vacuolar Cd sequestration and caused Cd hypersensitivity at the seedling stage. It should be mentioned that this Cd hypersensitivity was not

observed with the *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines grown in soil, in which the Cd treatment was applied on 4-week-old rice plants after they were transplanted onto Cd-contaminated soil.

Co-overexpression of OsHMA3 in PCS1-L1 complements its Cd hypersensitivity by enhancing vacuolar Cd sequestration in roots

To investigate if *OsHMA3* expression could complement the Cd hypersensitivity in PCS1-L1, we generated three independent *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines (HMA3-L1, HMA3-L3, and HMA3-L12). The Cd concentration in the grain of the three *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines grown in Cd-contaminated soil was only 1.1–2.8% of that in the grain of T5105 (Fig. 4A). To test the effect of co-overexpression of *OsHMA3* and *OsPCS1* on Cd accumulation in grain and straw, the representative *OsHMA3*-overexpressing line HMA3-L3 was crossed with PCS1-L1 to develop an *OsHMA3*- and *OsPCS1*-co-overexpressing line (HP). The Cd concentration in the grain of HP grown in Cd-contaminated soil was comparable with that of HMA3-L3 and both were significantly lower than that of T5105 or PCS1-L1 (Fig. 4B). Like HMA3-L3, HP had a significantly increased Cd concentration in the root and a notably lower Cd concentration in other aerial vegetative tissues compared with T5105 or PCS1-L1 (Fig. 4C). In addition, compared with T5105, the *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines showed an enhanced tolerance to Cd stress at the seedling stage (Supplementary Fig. S8). Like HMA3-L3, HP had a longer shoot and higher dry weight per plant than PCS1-L1 or T5105 (Fig. 4D–F), suggesting that co-overexpression of *OsHMA3* and *OsPCS1* complemented the Cd hypersensitivity of PCS1-L1 at the seedling stage. The Cd concentration in the root of PCS1-L1 was comparable with that of T5105, and the Cd concentration in the shoot of PCS1-L1 was slightly higher than that of T5105 (Fig. 4G, H). However, like HMA3-L3, HP had a significantly higher Cd concentration in the root and notably lower Cd concentration in the shoot than PCS1-L1 or T5105 (Fig. 4G, H). The results collectively demonstrate that the co-overexpression of *OsHMA3* and *OsPCS1* in rice complements the Cd hypersensitivity caused by the overproduced PCs in *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines by promoting Cd accumulation in the root and decreasing Cd allocation to aerial parts of the straw and grain.

Co-overexpression of OsPCS1, OsABCC1, and OsHMA3 in rice significantly decreases both As and Cd concentrations in grain

To reduce As and Cd concentrations in grain, we developed an *OsPCS1*-, *OsABCC1*-, and *OsHMA3*-co-overexpressing line by pyramiding the $P_{Actin1}:cPCS1:T_{Nos}$ gene from PCS1-L1, the $P_{Actin1}:gABCC1:T_{Nos}$ gene from ABCC1-L27, and the $P_{Actin1}:cHMA3:T_{Nos}$ gene from HMA3-L3, and designated the rice line as PAH. PAH had comparable agronomic traits,

including plant architecture, plant height, seed size, panicle morphology, seed-setting rate, and 100-grain weight, to T5105 (Fig. 5A–E). When grown in the As- and Cd-contaminated soil, the As concentration in the brown rice of PAH was $0.03 \pm 0.002 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$, which was 7.9% of that of T5105 at $0.34 \pm 0.02 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$, while the Cd concentration in the brown rice of PAH was $0.04 \pm 0.01 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$, which was 2.0% of that of T5105 at $1.81 \pm 0.14 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5F, G). Both As and Cd concentrations in the brown rice of PAH were far below the current FAO/WHO limit for As in brown rice at 0.35 mg kg^{-1} and Cd in polished rice at 0.40 mg kg^{-1} , respectively (Codex-Alimentarius-Commission, 1995). The concentrations of mineral elements, including cobalt (Co), copper (Cu), iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), selenium (Se), and zinc (Zn), were also measured in the grain of PAH, PCS1-L1, ABCC1-L27, HMA3-L3, and T5105. All transgenic lines had concentrations of the mineral elements comparable with T5105 (Supplementary Fig. S9). PAH also showed a higher enhanced tolerance to both As and Cd stress compared with PCS1-L1, ABCC1-L27, or HMA3-L3 when they were cultured in As- and Cd-containing MS medium (Supplementary Fig. S10A–C). In addition, PAH accumulated more As and Cd in the root but less As and Cd in the shoot than T5105 (Supplementary Fig. S10D–G). The results demonstrate that the co-overexpression of *OsPCS1*, *OsABCC1*, and *OsHMA3* in rice efficiently promotes As and Cd accumulation in the root and significantly decreases As and Cd allocation in the grain without causing any defect in plant growth and reproduction or change in the concentrations of mineral nutrients in the grain.

Discussion

In Arabidopsis, two vacuolar Cd sequestration pathways have been identified. One is the PC-dependent pathway mediated by ABCC-type transporters (*AtABCC1* and *AtABCC3*) and the other is the PC-independent pathway mediated by ATPase (*AtHMA3*) (Morel *et al.*, 2009; Park *et al.*, 2012; Brunetti *et al.*, 2015). However, the knockout of *OsABCC1* in rice did not affect Cd toxicity, indicating that *OsABCC1* is not involved in Cd detoxification (Song *et al.*, 2014). In addition, knock-down or knockout of *OsPCS1* or *OsPCS2* in rice showed little effect on Cd detoxification (Hayashi *et al.*, 2017; Yamazaki *et al.*, 2018). These findings suggested that the PC-dependent vacuolar Cd sequestration might not be the major Cd detoxification pathway in rice. On the other hand, a loss-of-function mutation of *OsHMA3* resulted in an increased rate of root-to-shoot Cd transport and a high Cd concentration in rice grain (Ueno *et al.*, 2010; Miyadate *et al.*, 2011). Overexpression of *OsHMA3* in rice enhanced Cd sequestration in root cells, reduced root-to-shoot Cd transport, effectively decreased Cd allocation in grain, and provided enhanced Cd tolerance (Fig. 4) (Ueno *et al.*, 2010; Sasaki *et al.*, 2014; Shao *et al.*, 2018). The results collectively demonstrate that the *OsHMA3*-mediated

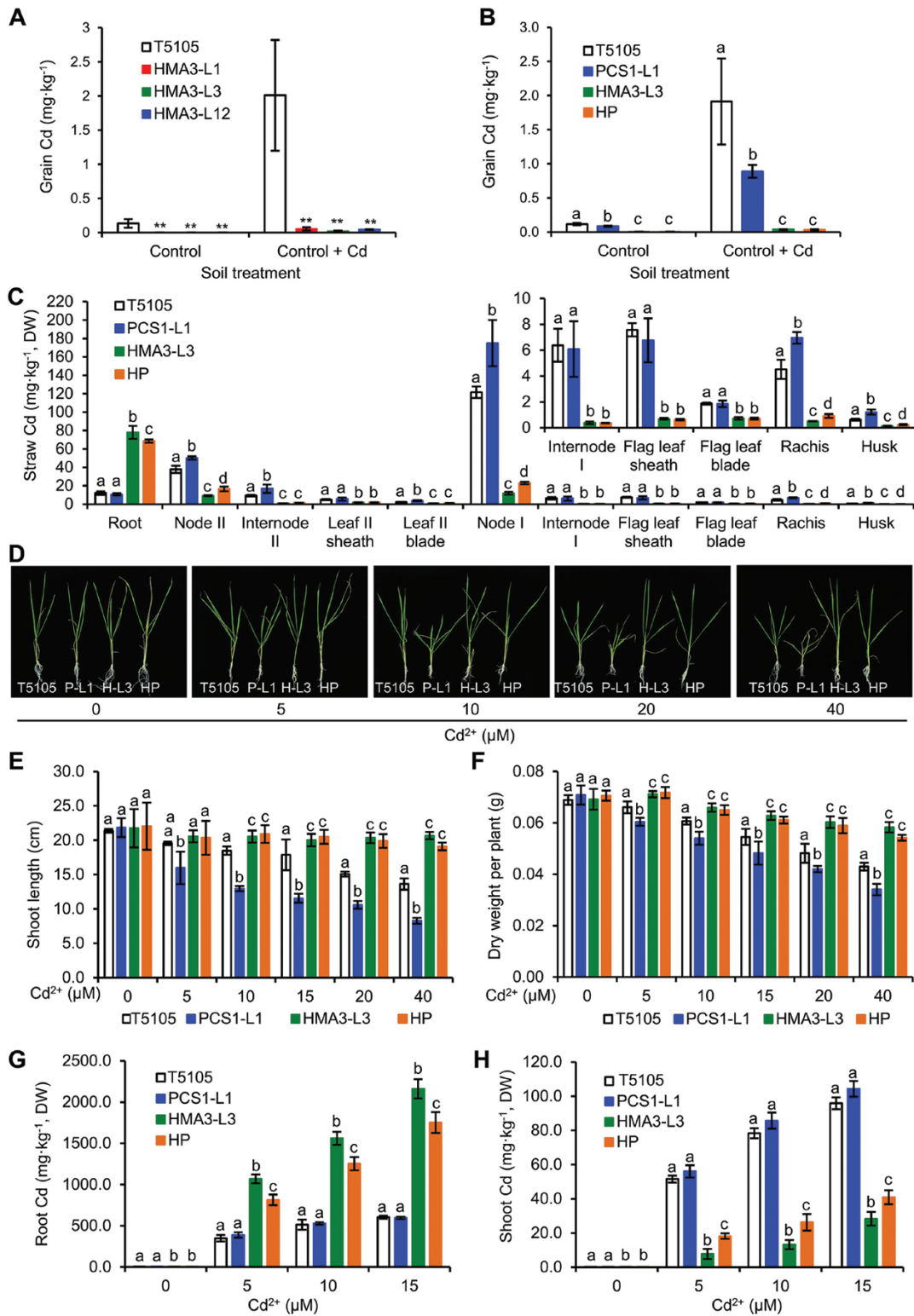


Fig. 4. Co-overexpression of *OsHMA3* and *OsPCS1* in rice complemented Cd hypersensitivity of PCS1-L1 and significantly reduced Cd concentration in grain. (A) Grain Cd concentration of T5105 and the *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines grown in control soil or Cd-contaminated soil. (B) Grain Cd concentration of T5105, PCS1-L1, HMA3-L3, and HP grown in control soil or Cd-contaminated soil. (C) Cd concentration in different straw tissues of T5105, PCS1-L1, HMA3-L3, and HP grown in Cd-contaminated soil. (D) Seedlings of T5105, PCS1-L1, HMA3-L3, and HP at 14 d after Cd treatment. (E and F) Shoot length (E) and DW (F) of T5105, PCS1-L1, HMA3-L3, and HP at 14 d after Cd treatment. (G and H) Cd concentration in root (G)

and shoot (H) of T5105, PCS1-L1, HMA3-L3, and HP at 14 d after Cd treatment. The data (mean ±SD) in (A–C) and (E–H) were obtained from three independent experiments using separately grown plants. The asterisks in (A) and (B) indicate a significant difference between T5105 and OsHMA3-L3 (***P*<0.01 by Student's *t*-test). The different letters in (C) and (E–H) indicate a significant difference calculated by one-way ANOVA followed by LSD test at *P*<0.05. T5105, non-transgenic control; P-L1, PCS1-L1; H-L3, HMA3-L3; HP, an *OsHMA3*- and *OsPCS1*-co-overexpressing line with transgenes derived from HMA3-L3 and PCS1-L1.

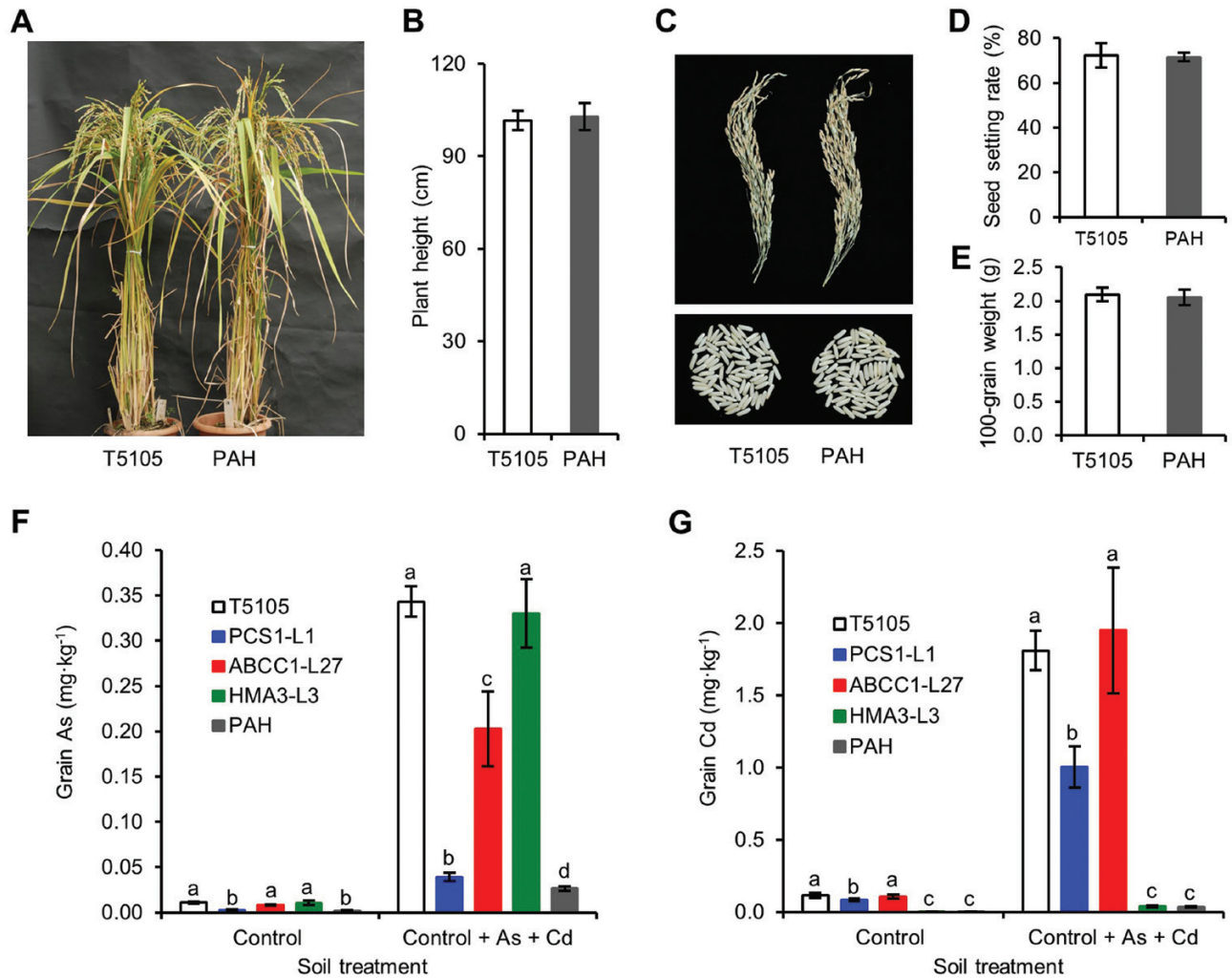


Fig. 5. Co-overexpression of *OsPCS1*, *OsABCC1*, and *OsHMA3* in rice significantly reduces As and Cd concentration in grain. (A) Morphological phenotype of T5105 and PAH at 120 d after sowing. (B) Plant height of T5105 and PAH at 120 d after sowing. (C) Panicles and unpolished rice grain of T5105 and PAH. (D) Seed setting rate of T5105 and PAH. (E) One hundred grain weight of T5105 and PAH. (F and G) As concentration (F) and Cd concentration (G) in the grain of T5105, PCS1-L1, ABCC1-L27, HMA3-L3, and PAH grown in control soil or As- and Cd-contaminated soil. The data (mean ±SD) in (B) and (D–G) were obtained from three independent experiments using separately grown plants. The different letters in (F) and (G) indicate a significant difference calculated by one-way ANOVA followed by LSD test at *P*<0.05. T5105, non-transgenic control; PAH, an *OsPCS1*-, *OsABCC1*-, and *OsHMA3*-co-overexpressing line with transgenes derived from PCS1-L1, ABCC1-L27, and HMA3-L3.

Cd sequestration into vacuoles of root cells is a major Cd detoxification pathway in rice.

In a previous study, heterologous overexpression of the wheat PCS gene *TaPCS1* in wild tobacco *Nicotiana glauca* significantly enhanced Cd tolerance (Gisbert et al., 2003). However, overexpression of *TaPCS1* in rice led to Cd hypersensitivity despite an increased level of PCs (Wang et al., 2012). Cd hypersensitivity

was also reported in *Arabidopsis* overexpressing *AtPCS1* (Lee et al., 2003; Li et al., 2004). However, the mechanism of Cd hypersensitivity resulting from PCS overexpression was unclear. A previous study speculated that the Cd hypersensitivity of *Arabidopsis* plants overexpressing *AtPCS1* was due to the toxicity of PCs as they existed at a high level compared with GSH (Lee et al., 2003), whereas others suggested that the downstream

processing of PC–Cd complexes differs between tobacco and *Arabidopsis* (Li *et al.*, 2004). In this study, we found that overexpression of *OsPCS1* in T5105 also caused Cd hypersensitivity (Fig. 3A–C). Further studies revealed that overexpression of *OsPCS1* in PCS1-L1 caused a slightly increased Cd concentration in the shoot, but a significantly decreased Cd concentration in vacuoles of shoot cells at the seedling stage (Figs 3F, 4H). Based on these results, we speculate that the overproduced PCs in *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines compete with OsHMA3 for Cd in the cytosol by forming PC–Cd complexes and suppressing OsHMA3-dependent vacuolar Cd sequestration in the root. In addition, the overproduced PCs or PC–Cd complexes in root cells also promoted Cd transport from root to shoot (Fig. 4G, H) (Gong *et al.*, 2003). Both processes may contribute to Cd hypersensitivity in *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines at the seedling stage. To address this issue, we developed the *OsHMA3*- and *OsPCS1*-co-overexpressing line HP. The overexpressed OsHMA3 proteins in HP, which may have either a higher amount or a higher affinity for binding Cd than PCs, overcome this suppression and complement the Cd hypersensitivity by efficiently sequestering Cd into vacuoles of root cells and decreasing Cd transport from the root to the shoot and grain (Fig. 4).

The nodes in rice play an important role in As storage and redistribution, where OsABCC1 sequesters PC–As(III) complexes into vacuoles of phloem companion cells and restricts As transport to the panicle and grain (Song *et al.*, 2014; Chen *et al.*, 2015). In this study, when grown in As-contaminated soil, T5105 accumulated a higher As concentration in node I and node II than other straw tissues except for the root, while PCS1-L1 or ABCC1-L27 individually had a higher As concentration in the two nodes than T5105 (Fig. 1C). Due to the collaborative function of OsABCC1 and OsPCS1 in sequestration of As into vacuoles, co-overexpression of *OsPCS1* and *OsABCC1* in AP and PAH can reduce the As concentration in grain to the maximum extent (Figs 1D, 5F). In rice, the dominant source of Cd for grain is phloem-derived Cd, whereas that for husk it is xylem-derived Cd (Tanaka *et al.*, 2007; Yoneyama *et al.*, 2010). Thus, an efficient intervascular xylem-to-phloem transport is necessary for Cd remobilization from shoot to grain, and this process mainly occurs in node I (Yoneyama *et al.*, 2010; Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2012). In other words, the Cd storage and redistribution at node I determine the Cd allocation in grain (Fujimaki *et al.*, 2010; Uraguchi *et al.*, 2011; Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2012; Yamaji *et al.*, 2013). In another study, it was found that the grain low-Cd rice variety YaHui2816 has a higher PC concentration in nodes than the grain high-Cd rice variety, indicating that PCs could participate in the Cd remobilization process (Guo *et al.*, 2020). In this study, PCS1-L1 had a higher PC concentration than T5105, which was further increased by Cd stress (Fig. 3D, E). Like the grain low-Cd rice variety YaHui2816 (Guo *et al.*, 2020), PCS1-L1 accumulated a significantly higher Cd concentration in node I

and node II than T5105 when grown in Cd-contaminated soil (Fig. 2A, B). Notably, overexpression of *OsPCS1* only reduced Cd in the grain, but accumulated more Cd in the other parts of panicles, including rachises and husks (Fig. 2B). Further investigation revealed that PCS1-L1 had a significantly higher Cd concentration in xylem sap but a much lower Cd concentration in phloem exudate from internode I than T5105 (Fig. 2C, D). Taken together, we speculate that the overproduced PCs restricted Cd xylem-to-phloem transport in node I, which increased Cd transport to husks through the xylem but decreased Cd allocation to grain through the phloem (Fig. 2A, B). However, the detailed mechanism remains to be revealed of how the overproduced PCs restricted xylem-to-phloem Cd transport in node I of rice.

It was noted that the grain As concentration in the *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines in this study was not consistent with that in a previous report, in which overexpression of *OsABCC1* under control of the maize ubiquitin gene 1 (*ZmUbi1*) promoter did not affect As concentration in the rice grain (Deng *et al.*, 2018). One of the reasons for this difference could result from the different promoters used in the two studies. A previous study demonstrated that the *OsActin1* promoter has relatively lower overall activity in seed endosperm than the *ZmUBi1* promoter in rice seeds (Park *et al.*, 2010). The low activity of the *OsActin1* promoter in endosperm might decrease As sequestration in vacuoles of endosperm cells, while its high activity in vegetative tissues and organs promoted As sequestration and accumulation in straw. In this scenario, the utilization of the *OsActin1* promoter to drive *OsPCS1*, *OsABCC1*, and *OsHMA3* expression in transgenic rice in this study should also contribute to lower grain As and/or Cd concentration. While the transgenic rice needs to go through safety evaluation as well as other formalities before commercialization, the use of biotechnology is a practical and effective strategy to reduce As and Cd concentration in the rice grain simultaneously.

Supplementary data

The following supplementary data are available at [JXB online](https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/jxb.15111).

Fig. S1. Diagram of the binary constructs and genes used in this study.

Fig. S2. Generation of *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines.

Fig. S3. Generation of *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines.

Fig. S4. Generation of *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines.

Fig. S5. Nucleotide sequences of the junction regions at the T-DNA insertion sites in the transgenic lines.

Fig. S6. Co-overexpression of *OsPCS1* and *OsABCC1* in rice synergistically confers enhanced tolerance to As.

Fig. S7. Light microscopy images on isolated protoplasts and purified vacuoles for Cd concentration measurement.

Fig. S8. Overexpression of *OsHMA3* in rice confers enhanced tolerance to Cd.

Fig. S9. Concentrations of nutrient elements in the grain of T5105, PCS1-L1, ABCC1-L27, HMA3-L3, and PAH.

Fig. S10. Co-overexpression of *OsPCS1*, *OsABCC1*, and *OsHMA3* in rice provides an enhanced tolerance to both As and Cd stress.

Table S1. Oligo primers used in this study.

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Author contributions

ZY: conceptualization; ZY and YG: design and writing; YG, JT, and DT: conducting the experiments. All authors read and approved the article for publication.

Conflict of interest

Temasek Life Sciences Laboratory Ltd has filed a patent on the method of generating low-As and Low-Cd rice grains as described in this study (Singapore provisional patent application No: 10202260511R; Filing date: 20 December 2022) with ZY and YG as the inventors.

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Data availability

All data supporting the findings of this study are available within the paper and within its supplementary data published online. The transgenic rice lines developed herein are available for non-commercial research purposes based on signing a Material Transfer Agreement defined by the Intellectual Property Office of Temasek Life Sciences Laboratory Ptd, Singapore.

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Genetic engineering low-arsenic and low-cadmium rice grain

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I. Supplementary figures and figure legends

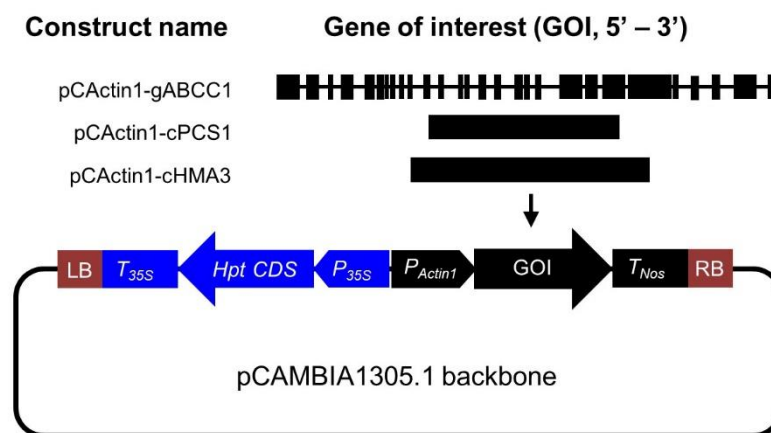


Fig. S1. Diagram of the binary constructs and genes used in this study. The lower panel of the diagram shows the genes in the T-DNA regions of binary constructs with a backbone derived from pCAMBIA1305.1. The upper panel of the diagram shows the genes of interest that were used to replace GUSPlus in pCAMBIA1305.1. The cDNA clones of the *OsHMA3* and *OsPCS1* genes were used to make constructs pCActin1-cHMA3 and pCActin1-cPCS1, respectively, whereas the genomic clone of the *OsABCC1* gene was used to make construct pCActin1-gABCC1. In all constructs, the CaMV35S promoter in pCAMBIA1305.1 was replaced with the rice *Actin1* gene promoter. The diagram was not drawn to scale. Abbreviation: LB, left border; T_{35S} , CaMV 35S terminator; *Hpt CDS*, the coding region of the hygromycin phosphotransferase gene; P_{35S} , 2x CaMV35S promoter; P_{Actin1} , rice *Actin1* gene promoter; GOI, gene-of-interest; T_{Nos} , nopaline synthase gene terminator; RB, Right border.

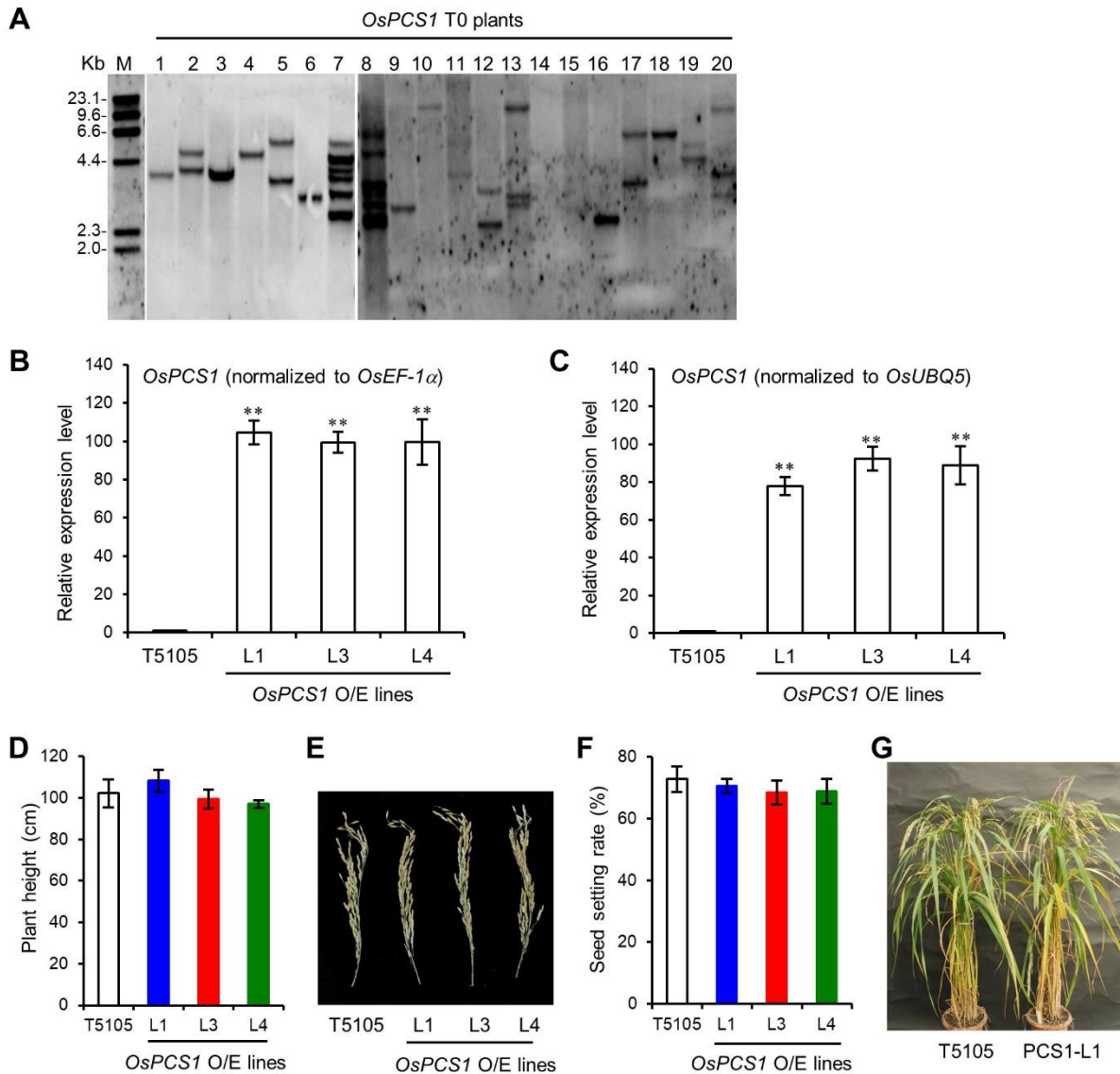


Fig. S2. Generation of *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines. **(A)** Detection of the copy number of T-DNA in *OsPCS1* transgenic plants (T0) by Southern blot analysis. M, molecular marker. **(B)** and **(C)** Expression levels of the *OsPCS1* gene in T5105 and three homozygous *OsPCS1* overexpressing lines detected by qRT-PCR. The results were normalized against levels of *OsEF-1α* **(B)** and *OsUBQ5* **(C)**, respectively, and the expression level in T5105 was arbitrarily set to 1. The asterisks indicate a significant difference between T5105 and transgenic lines (** $P < 0.01$ by Student's *t* test). **(D)** Plant height of T5105 and the *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines. L1 (PCS1-L1), L3 (PCS1-L3) and L4 (PCS1-L4) are three independent *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines. **(E)** Morphology of rice panicles. **(F)** Seed setting rates of T5105 and the *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines. **(G)** Morphological phenotype of T5105 and PCS1-L1. Plants were photographed at 120 d after sowing. The data (mean \pm SD) in **(B)**, **(C)**, **(D)** and **(F)** were obtained from 3 independent experiments using separately grown plants. No significant difference in **(D)** and **(F)** was observed between T5105 and the *OsPCS1*-overexpressing lines ($P > 0.05$ by Student's *t* test).

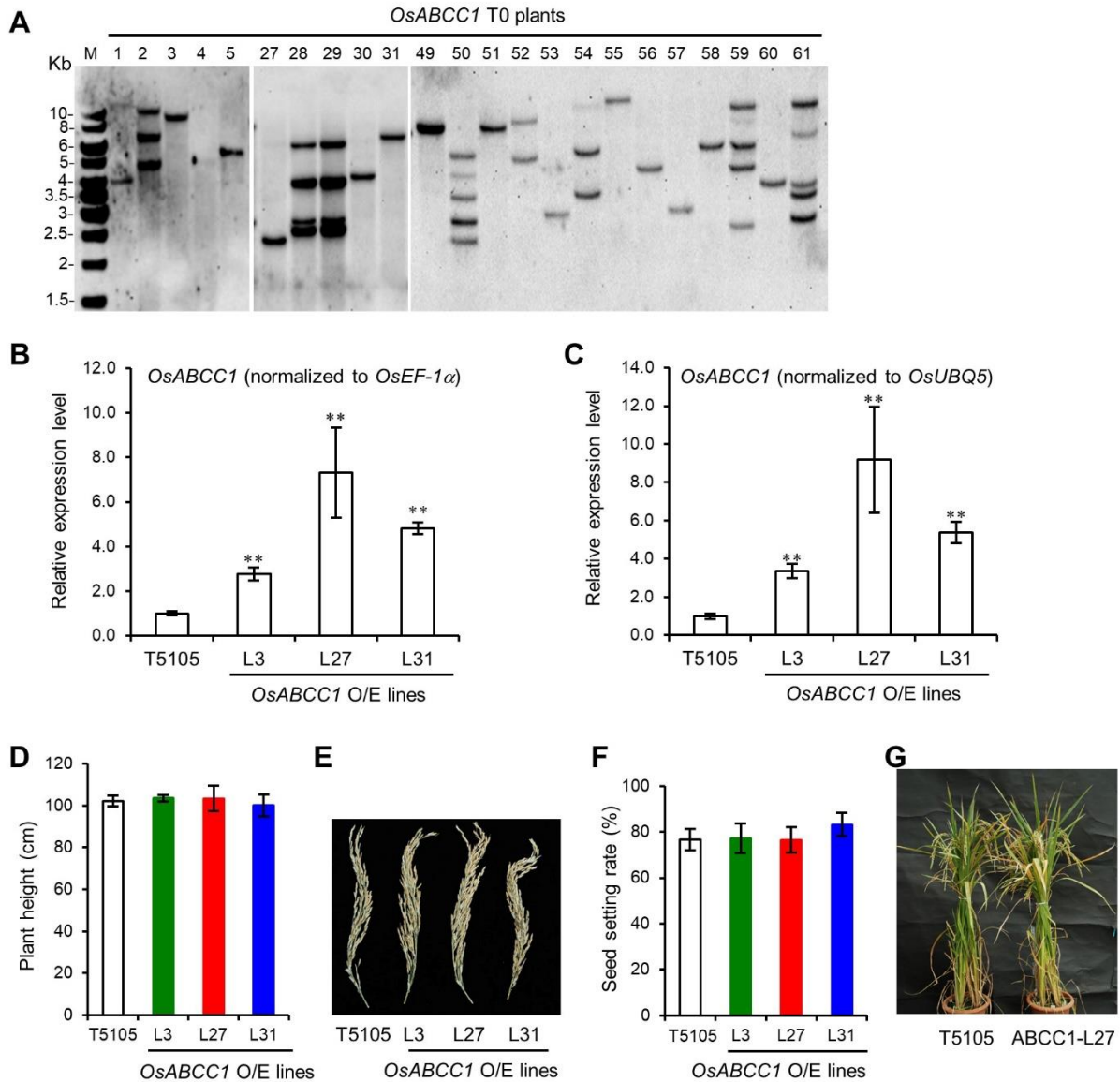


Fig. S3. Generation of *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines. (A) Detection of the copy number of T-DNA in *OsABCC1* transgenic plants (T0) by Southern blot analysis. M, molecular marker. (B) and (C) Relative expression levels of the *OsABCC1* gene in T5105 and three homozygous *OsABCC1* overexpressing lines detected by qRT-PCR. The results were normalized against levels of *OsEF-1α* (B) and *OsUBQ5* (C), respectively, and the expression level in T5105 was arbitrarily set to 1. The asterisks indicate a significant difference between T5105 and transgenic lines (** $P < 0.01$ by Student's *t* test). (D) Plant height of T5105 and the *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines. L3 (ABCC1-L3), L27 (ABCC1-L27) and L31 (ABCC1-L31) are three independent *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines. (E) Morphology of rice panicles. (F) Seed setting rates of T5105 and the *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines. (G) Morphological phenotype of T5105 and ABCC1-L27. Plants were imaged at 120 d after sowing. The data (mean \pm SD) in (B), (C), (D) and (F) were obtained from 3 independent experiments using separately grown plants. No significant difference in (D) and (F) was observed between T5105 and the *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines ($P > 0.05$ by Student's *t* test).

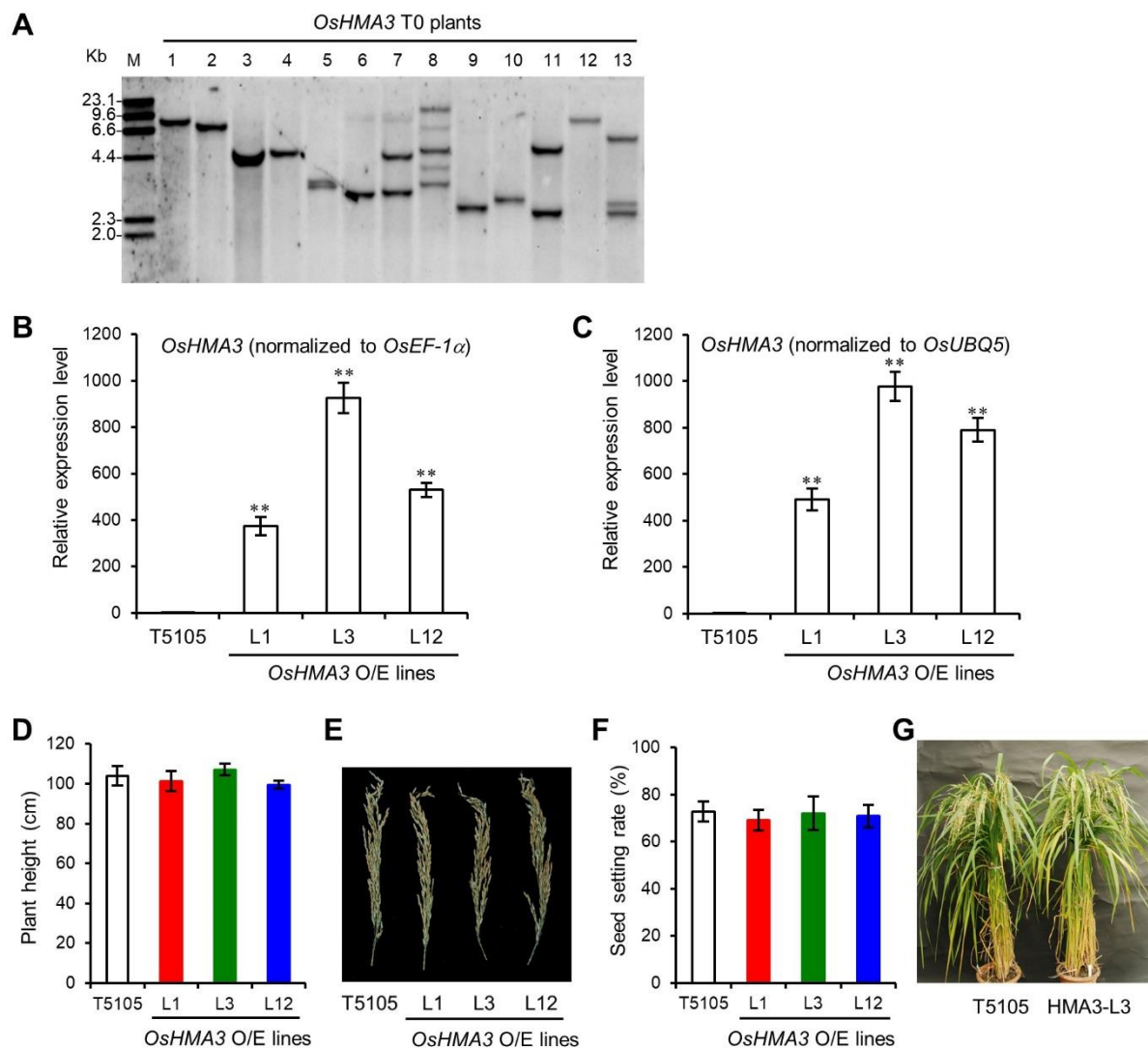


Fig. S4. Generation of *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines. (A) Detection of the copy number of T-DNA in *OsHMA3* transgenic plants (T0) by Southern blot analysis. M, molecular marker. (B) and (C) Relative expression levels of the *OsHMA3* gene in T5105 and three homozygous *OsHMA3* overexpressing lines detected by qRT-PCR. The results were normalized against levels of *OsEF-1α* (B) and *OsUBQ5* (C), respectively, and the expression level in T5105 was arbitrarily set to 1. The asterisks indicate a significant difference between T5105 and transgenic lines (** $P < 0.01$ by Student's *t* test). (D) Plant height of T5105 and the *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines. L1 (HMA3-L1), L3 (HMA3-L3) and L12 (HMA3-L12) are three independent *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines. (E) Morphology of rice panicles. (F) Seed setting rates of T5105 and the *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines. (G) Morphological phenotype of T5105 and HMA3-L3. Plants were imaged at 120 d after sowing. The data (mean \pm SD) in (B), (C), (D) and (F) were obtained from 3 independent experiments using separately grown plants. No significant difference in (D) and (F) was observed between T5105 and the *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines ($P > 0.05$ by Student's *t* test).

Transgenic line	Nucleotide sequences of the junction region at the T-DNA insertion site
PCS1-L1	Os01g0688300.....ccctgctgctgcaaatataTTGTGGTGTAAACAAATTGA.....TAAACTATCAGTG TTTGAAcGctgctactactaacactgc.....Os01g0688400
ABCC1-L27	Os03g0811400.....tcccttctctcccagccaacTTATATTGGTGTAAACAA.....ATCGGGAATTAAA CTATCAGtgcctttcttctctct.....Os03g0811500
HMA3-L3	Os08g0300100.....aggcatggtctcaatgcttaGACAACTTAATAACACATTG.....GCAATTATACATTT AATACGtgattcaaaagatatgcag.....Os08g0300200

Fig. S5. Nucleotide sequences of the junction regions at the T-DNA insertion sites in the transgenic lines. The DNA sequences of the inserted T-DNA fragments are shown in uppercase letters. The genomic flanking DNA sequences are displayed in lowercase letters. The accession numbers of rice genes that flank the T-DNA fragments are also indicated. PCS1-L1, ABCC1-L27 and HMA3-L3 are the selected overexpression lines for *OsPCS1*, *OsABCC1* and *OsHMA3*, respectively.

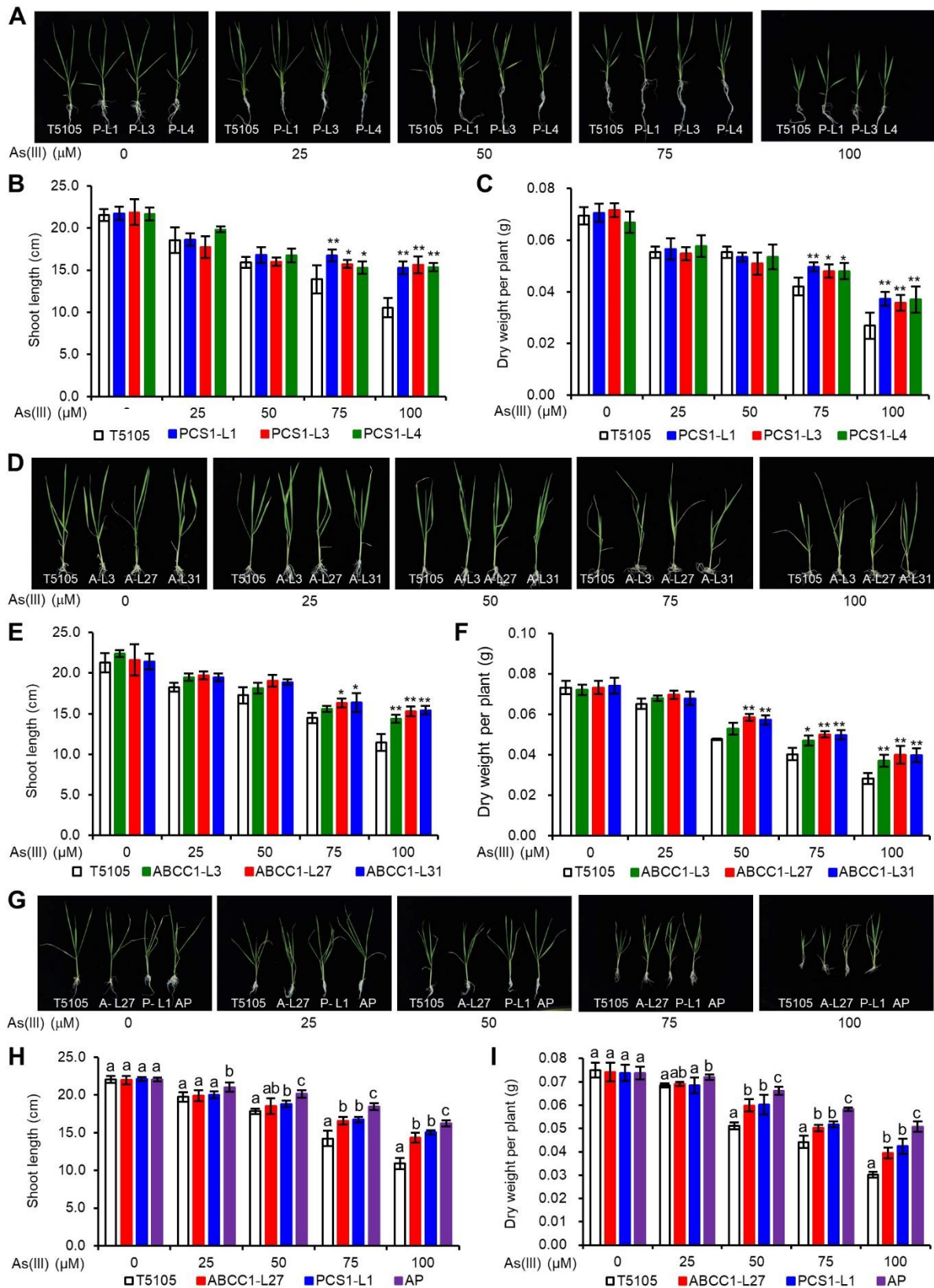


Fig. S6. Co-overexpression of *OsPCS1* and *OsABCC1* in rice synergistically confers enhanced tolerance to As. (A) Seedlings of T5105 and *OsPCS1* over-expressing lines at 14 d after As treatment. (B) and (C) Shoot length (B) and dry weight (C) of T5105 and *OsPCS1* over-expressing lines at 14 d

after As treatment. **(D)** Seedlings of T5105 and *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines at 14 d after As treatment. **(E-F)** Shoot length **(E)** and dry weight **(F)** of T5105 and *OsABCC1*-overexpressing lines at 14 d after As treatment. **(G)** Seedlings of T5105, ABCC1-L27, PCS1-L1, AP at 14 d after As treatment. **(H)** and **(I)** Shoot length **(H)** and dry weight **(I)** of T5105, ABCC1-L27, PCS1-L1, AP at 14 d after As treatment. The data (mean \pm SD) in **(B)**, **(C)**, **(E)**, **(F)**, **(H)** and **(I)** were obtained from 3 independent experiments using separately grown plants. The asterisks in **(B)**, **(C)**, **(E)** and **(F)** indicate a significant difference between T5105 and *OsPCS1* or *OsABCC1* overexpressing lines ($*P < 0.05$; $**P < 0.01$ by Student's *t* test). The different letters in **(H)** and **(I)** indicate significant differences calculated by one-way ANOVA followed by LSD's test at $P < 0.05$. T5105, non-transgenic control; P-L1, PCS1-L1; P-L3, PCS1-L3; P-L4, PCS1-L4; A-L3, ABCC1-L3, A-L27, ABCC1-L27; A-L31, ABCC1-L31; AP, an *OsABCC1* and *OsPCS1* co-overexpressing line with transgenes derived from ABCC1-L27 and PCS1-L1.

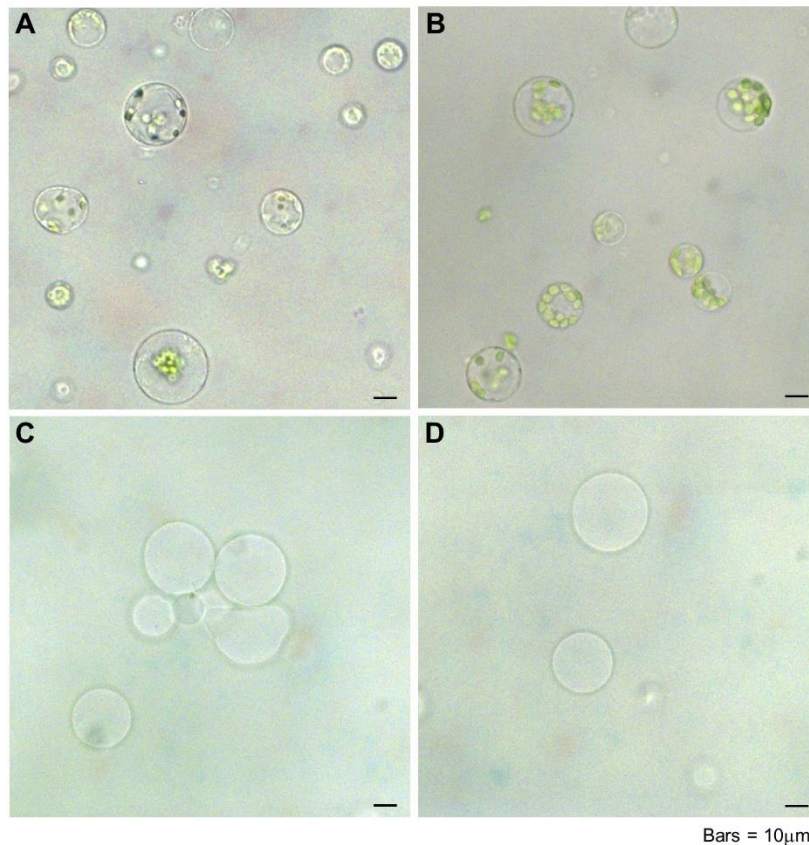


Fig. S7. Light microscopy images on isolated protoplasts and purified vacuoles for Cd concentration measurement. **(A)** and **(B)** Protoplasts isolated from T5105 **(A)** and PCS1-L1 **(B)** shoots. **(C)** and **(D)** Purified vacuoles isolated from T5105 **(C)** and PCS1-L1 **(D)** protoplasts.

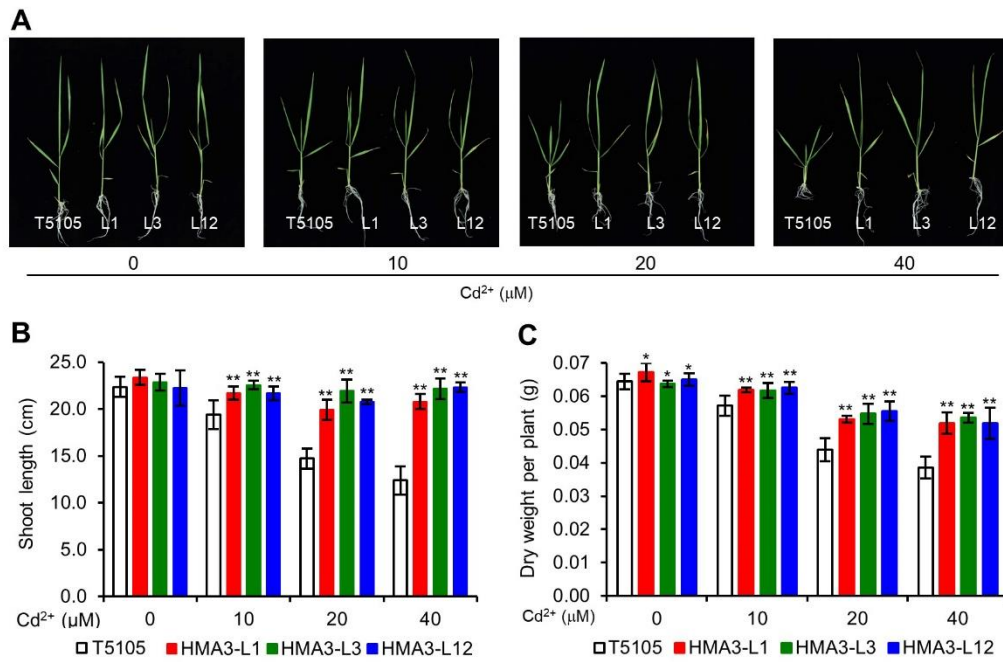


Fig. S8. Overexpression of *OsHMA3* in rice confers enhanced tolerance to Cd. **(A)** Seedlings of T5105 and *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines at 14 d after Cd treatment. **(B)** and **(C)** Shoot length **(B)** and dry weight **(C)** of T5105 and *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines at 14 d after Cd treatment. The data (mean \pm SD) in **(B)** and **(C)** were obtained from 3 independent experiments using separately grown plants. The asterisks in **(B)** and **(C)** indicate a significant difference between T5105 and the *OsHMA3*-overexpressing lines (* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$ by Student's *t* test). T5105, non-transgenic control; L1, HMA3-L1; L3, HMA3-L3; L12, HMA3-L12.

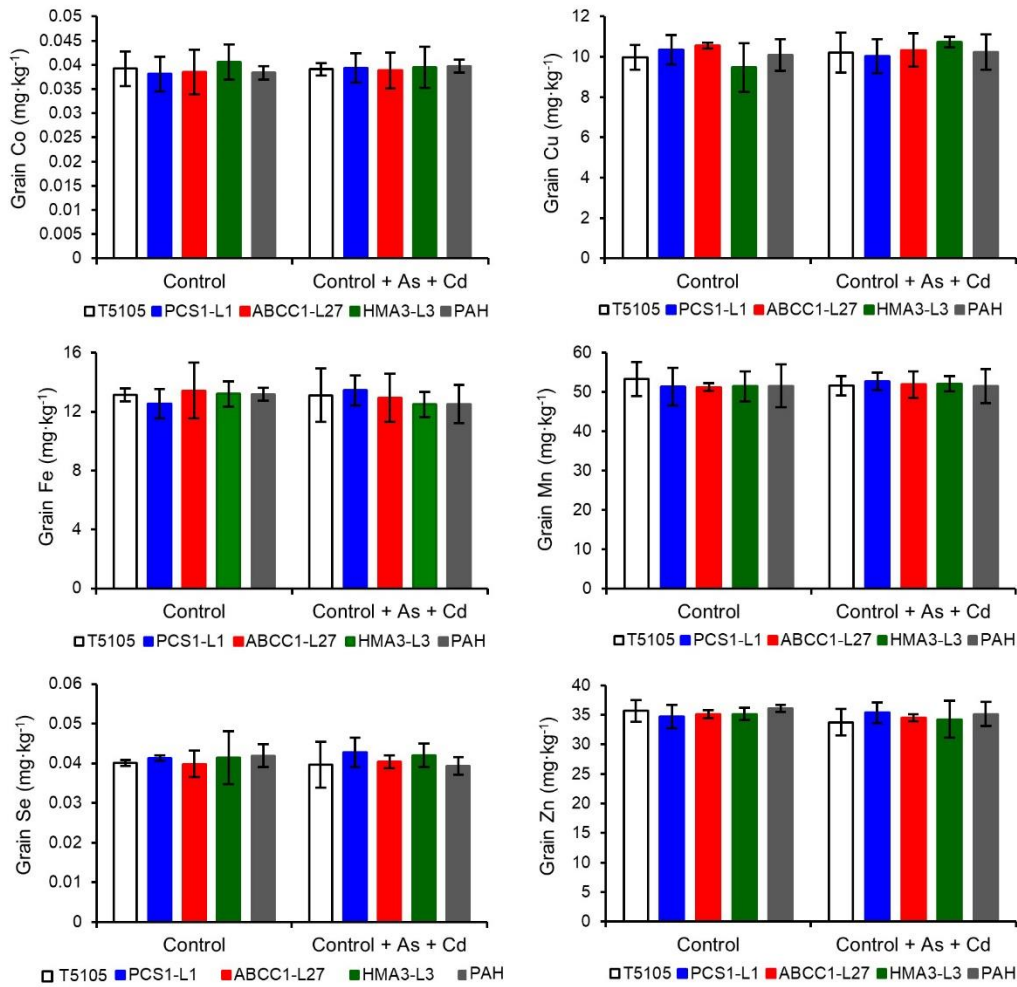


Fig. S9. The Concentration of nutrient elements in the grain of T5105, PCS1-L1, ABCC1-L27, HMA3-L3 and PAH. Rice plants were grown in control soil or As- and Cd-contaminated soil. The concentrations of Co, Cu, Fe, Mn, Se and Zn in rice grain were determined by ICP-MS. The data (mean \pm SD) were obtained from 3 independent experiments using separately grown plants. No significant difference was detected between T5105 and transgenic lines by LSD's test at $P > 0.05$.

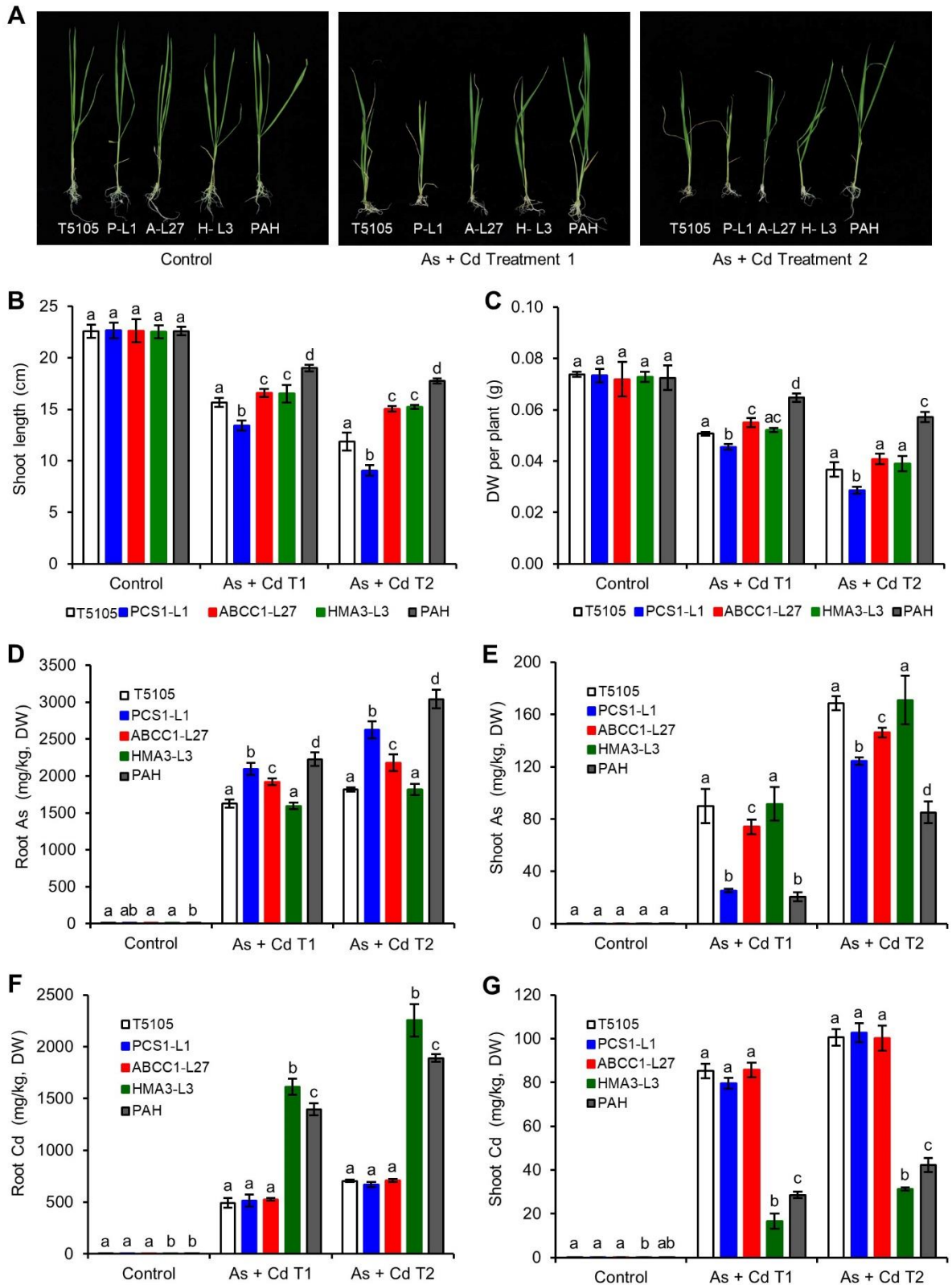


Fig. S10. Co-overexpression of *OsPCS1*, *OsABCC1* and *OsHMA3* in rice provides an enhanced tolerance to both As and Cd. (A) Seedlings of rice lines at 14 d after treatment with both As and Cd. (B) and (C) Shoot length (B) and dry weight per plant (C) of rice lines. (D) and (E) As concentration in roots (D) and shoots (E) of rice lines. (F) and (G) Cd concentration in roots (F) and shoots (G) of

rice lines. The data (mean \pm SD) in **(B)** to **(G)** were obtained from 3 independent experiments using separately grown plants. Different letters indicate significant differences calculated by one-way ANOVA followed by LSD's test at $P < 0.05$. As + Cd Treatment 1 (As + Cd T1), half-strength MS medium containing 50 μ M NaAsO₂ + 10 μ M CdSO₄; As + Cd Treatment 2 (As + Cd T2), half-strength MS medium containing 75 μ M NaAsO₂ and 20 μ M CdSO₄. T5105, not-transgenic control; P-L1, PCS1-L1; A-L27, ABCC1-L27; H-L3, HMA3-L3; PAH, an *OsPCS1*, *OsABCC1* and *OsHMA3* co-overexpression line with transgenes derived from PCS1-L1, ABCC1-L27 and HMA3-L3.

II. Supplementary table

Table S1. Oligo primers used in this study

Name of primer	DNA sequences (5' to 3')	Purpose
<i>ABCC1</i> -qPCR-F	AACAGTGGCTTATGTTCCCTCAAG	qRT-qPCR
<i>ABCC1</i> -qPCR-R	AACTCCTCTTTCTCCAATCTCTG	qRT-qPCR
<i>PCSI</i> -qPCR-F	AGCCCAAGTAAAGAGGCTAAC	qRT-qPCR
<i>PCSI</i> -qPCR-R	TACAACAGGGCTGCTTAGAAC	qRT-qPCR
<i>HMA3</i> -qPCR-F	CAGAACAGCAGGTCGAAGAC	qRT-qPCR
<i>HMA3</i> -qPCR-R	CCATTGCTCAAGGCCATCT	qRT-qPCR
<i>EF</i> -qPCR-F	GCACGCTCTTCTTGCTTTC	qRT-PCR
<i>EF</i> -qPCR-R	AGGGAATCTTGTCAGGGTTG	qRT-PCR
<i>UBQ5</i> -qPCR-F	AACCACTTCGACCGCCACT	qRT-PCR
<i>UBQ5</i> -qPCR-R	GTTCGATTTCTCCTCCTTCC	qRT-PCR
<i>HPT</i> -F	AGCCTGAACTCACCGCGACGT	DNA probe
<i>HPT</i> -R	TACTTCTACACAGCCATCGGTCCA	DNA probe