

Induction of RNA-directed DNA methylation and heritable transcriptional gene silencing as a tool to engineer novel traits in plants

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Abstract Gene silencing through transcriptional repression can be induced by double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) that targets a gene promoter. This phenomenon, termed RNA-mediated transcriptional gene silencing (TGS), was first discovered in plants using a transgene that transcribes an inverted repeat of promoter sequence. However, endogenous genes differ from transgenes in the feasibility of TGS induction, by being more resistant to silencing. Heritable, transgenerational silencing of an endogenous gene has been induced by targeting dsRNA to the promoter in petunia and tomato plants, using a vector based on *Cucumber mosaic virus*. Efficient TGS depends on the function of a viral protein, which can facilitate epigenetic modifications through the transport of short interfering RNA to the nucleus. The efficiency of the TGS also depends on the length and nucleotide composition of the promoter RNA segments. Such epigenetic changes induced by the viral vector results in a novel class of modified plant, a plant that does not carry a transgene but has altered traits. Thus, TGS to modify the epigenetic state of a plant is now a feasible tool to engineer novel traits. Here we review epigenetic changes induced in a particular gene through RNA-directed DNA methylation and those induced randomly on the genome in terms of their use for plant biotechnology.

Key words: Epigenetic changes, RNA-directed DNA methylation, RNA silencing, transcriptional gene silencing, virus vector.

RNA has long been regarded as an intermediary in the process of gene expression. The discovery that eukaryotic cells have a mechanism to suppress gene expression by recognizing and processing homologous double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) has changed this view. RNA-guided, sequence-specific inhibition of gene expression occurs either at the posttranscriptional or transcriptional level (reviewed by Brodersen and Voinnet 2006; Vaucheret 2006). Posttranscriptional gene silencing (PTGS) was first discovered in transgenic petunia plants whose flower color pattern changed when the gene that encodes the key enzyme for anthocyanin biosynthesis was overexpressed (Napoli et al. 1990, van der Krol et al.

1990). Similar phenomena have also been reported for other transgenic plants including tomato and tobacco plants transformed with a construct transcribing a gene involved in a metabolic pathway (de Carvalho et al. 1992; Goring et al. 1991; Smith et al. 1990; Vaucheret 1993) or tobacco plants that acquired resistance against viruses as a consequence of transcribing genes or gene segments derived from the viruses (Dougherty et al. 1994; Lindbo et al. 1993; Mueller et al. 1995; Sijen et al. 1996; Smith et al. 1994). The mechanism of PTGS is also identical to similar gene silencing phenomena in other organisms such as quelling in *Neurospora crassa* (Cogoni and Macino 1997) and RNA interference in *Caenorhabditis*

Abbreviations: AGO, Argonaute; CaMV, *Cauliflower mosaic virus*; CLSY1, CLASSY 1; CMT3, CHROMOMETHYLASE 3; CMV, *Cucumber mosaic virus*; DCL, Dicer-like; DMS3, DEFECTIVE IN MERISTEM SILENCING 3; DDM1, DECREASE IN DNA METHYLATION 1; DNMT, DNA methyltransferase; DRD1, DEFECTIVE IN RNA-DIRECTED DNA METHYLATION 1; DRM, DOMAINS REARRANGED METHYLTRANSFERASE; dsRNA, double-stranded RNA; FWA, FLOWERING WAGENINGEN; GFP, green fluorescent protein; GUS, β -glucuronidase; HDA6, HISTONE DEACETYLASE 6; IDN2, INVOLVED IN DE NOVO 2; IR, inverted repeat; KTF1, KOW domain-containing transcription factor 1; KYP, KRIPTONITE; LeSPL-CNR, *Lycopersicon esculentum* SQUAMOSA promoter binding protein-like colorless non-ripening; m⁵C, methylation at the carbon-5 position of cytosine; MET1, METHYLTRANSFERASE 1; NRPD1, NUCLEAR RNA POLYMERASE D1; NRPE1, NUCLEAR RNA POLYMERASE E1; nt, nucleotide; Pol, RNA polymerase; PTGS, post-transcriptional gene silencing; PVX, *Potato virus X*; RdDM, RNA-directed DNA methylation; RISC, RNA-induced silencing complex; Se5, Phtoperiodic sensitivity 5; SINE, short interspersed element; siRNA, short interfering RNA; SMC, structural maintenance of chromosome; SPT5L, SUPPRESSOR OF TY INSERTION 5-LIKE; SUVH4, SUPPRESSOR OF VARIATION 3-9 HOMOLOGUE 4; TALENs, transcription activator-like effector nucleases; TGS, transcriptional gene silencing; TRV, *Tobacco rattle virus*; VIGS, virus-induced gene silencing; ZFNs, zinc finger nucleases.

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elegans (Fire et al. 1998).

The PTGS pathway involves processing of dsRNA into small RNA molecules of 20–26 nucleotides (short interfering RNA; siRNA) by an enzyme called Dicer or Dicer-like (DCL), and the siRNA then guides the cleavage of RNA at a complementary nucleotide sequence in an RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) containing the Argonaute (AGO) protein (reviewed by Matzke et al. 2001). The formation of dsRNA from single-stranded sense RNA has been explained by the synthesis of its complementary strand by RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RDR) (Baulcombe 2004). Small RNA molecules called micro RNAs (miRNAs) are also involved in the negative regulation of gene expression in a posttranscriptional process and in the control of development (reviewed by Mallory and Vaucheret 2006). In addition to its role in sequence-specific RNA degradation, dsRNA is also responsible for epigenetic changes involving DNA methylation and histone modification in the nucleus, which leads to transcriptional gene silencing (TGS) (reviewed by Matzke et al. 2009). Gene silencing phenomena that are induced by a sequence-specific interaction involving RNA are forms of RNA silencing (reviewed by Matzke et al. 2004; Voinnet 2002).

RNA-directed DNA methylation and TGS

RNA-guided epigenetic modification of the genome was first discovered in tobacco plants that carried a cDNA derived from a viroid (Wassenegger et al. 1994). When these transgenic plants were infected with the viroid, the cDNA in the plant genome became methylated de novo. Because a viroid is a self-replicating RNA that does not code a protein, the phenomenon indicated that the replicating viroid RNA had induced de novo methylation of its homologous DNA, which was called RNA-directed DNA methylation (RdDM). Similar phenomena were also observed in virus-infected plants that had a cDNA of the virus (Jones et al. 1998). The viral RNA that replicated in the cytoplasm or the RNA derived from it was assumed to have moved to the nucleus and induced the methylation of cytosine in the homologous DNA sequence in the nuclear genome. Cytosine methylation, in particular that occurring in a gene promoter, was found to be correlated with a repressed state of transcription in plants and animals (Kass et al. 1997).

On the bases of these observations, a gene construct that produces promoter dsRNA by transcribing an inverted repeat of the promoter was introduced by Mette et al. (2000) to transgenic plants that had a transgene driven by the promoter. Cytosine methylation of the promoter as well as suppression of transgene expression was discovered, suggesting that dsRNA can induce DNA methylation and TGS. This phenomenon was accompanied by siRNA production, thus implicating

the involvement of siRNAs in the process. Induction of TGS by targeting dsRNA to a gene promoter has also been reported in cultured human cells and in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (Morris et al. 2004; Schramke et al. 2003; Ting et al. 2005; Volpe et al. 2002).

Promoter-targeted gene silencing has been used to modify gene expression in plants (Table 1) and other organisms (Hawkins and Morris 2008; Suzuki and Kelleher 2009). In some instances, RdDM in plants (Shibuya et al. 2009) and promoter-targeted dsRNA in human can induce transcriptional activation (Suzuki and Kelleher 2009).

Factors involved in RdDM and maintenance of DNA methylation

Factors involved in RdDM and TGS have been identified by analyzing mutants of *Arabidopsis thaliana* that are defective in the process. RdDM induces de novo methylation of cytosine in all sequence contexts (CG, CHG, and CHH, where H is A, C or T) at the region of siRNA–DNA sequence homology (Matzke et al. 2009). In *Arabidopsis*, DOMAINS REARRANGED METHYLTRANSFERASES (DRM1 and DRM2), orthologues of mouse de novo methyltransferase DNA methyltransferase 3 (DNMT3) (Goll and Bestor 2005), establish de novo methylation independently of a CG or non-CG context (Cao et al. 2003) mediated by 24-nt siRNAs (Matzke et al. 2009). In addition to the canonical RNA silencing machinery that includes DCL and AGO family proteins, RdDM requires two plant-specific RNA polymerases, Pol IV and Pol V, and proteins that can interact with them (Matzke et al. 2009) (Figure 1). Mutation in the largest subunit of Pol IV, NUCLEAR RNA POLYMERASE D1 (NRPD1), resulted in a reduction of siRNA (Pikaard et al. 2008), which suggested that Pol IV initiates siRNA biogenesis by producing single-stranded RNA transcripts. DsRNAs are synthesized by RDR2 using Pol IV transcripts as a template, processed into 24-nt siRNAs by DCL3, and loaded into AGO4 (Matzke et al. 2009). AGO4 interacts with the Pol V subunit NUCLEAR RNA POLYMERASE E1 (NRPE1) possibly through a base-pairing interaction between AGO4-loaded siRNA and nascent Pol V transcripts (El-Shami et al. 2007), which is aided by the SUPPRESSOR OF TY INSERTION 5-LIKE (SPT5L, also known as KOW domain-containing transcription factor 1; KTF1) (Bies-Etheve et al. 2009). These RNA-mediated protein interactions may be recognized by INVOLVED IN DE NOVO 2 (IDN2), which may recruit methylation machinery including DRMs to establish de novo methylation (Ausin et al. 2009). Pol IV and Pol V are also known to act with chromatin remodeling factors, CLASSY 1 (CLSY1, also known as CHR38) (Smith et al. 2007) and DEFECTIVE IN RNA-DIRECTED DNA METHYLATION 1 (DRD1) (Kanno et al. 2004), and a

Table 1. Examples of RdDM and TGS induced by dsRNA targeting a gene promoter in plants.

Target	Plant species	Source of promoter RNA	Effects of gene silencing	Inheritance of TGS*	Reference
Endogenous gene promoter					
Dihydroflavonol-4-reductase gene	Petunia	Transgene transcribing promoter IR	Reduction in flower pigmentation	–	Sijen et al. 2001
Anther expressed genes	Maize	Transgene transcribing promoter IR	Reduction in male fertility	–	Cigan et al. 2005
Granule-bound starch synthase I gene	Potato	Transgene transcribing promoter IR	Reduction in amylose content	–	Heilersig et al. 2006
<i>FWA</i> (SINEs in the promoter)	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Transgene transcribing promoter IR	Restoration of <i>FWA</i> imprinting and reversion from late-flowering in an epimutant	+	Kinoshita et al. 2006
Se5	Rice	Transgene transcribing promoter IR	Not detected	–	Okano et al. 2008
Chalcone synthase-A gene	Petunia	Recombinant virus (CMV)	Reduction in flower pigmentation and male fertility	+	Kanazawa et al. 2011a
LeSPL-CNR	Tomato	Recombinant virus (CMV)	Inhibition of fruit ripening	+	Kanazawa et al. 2011a
Transgene promoter					
Agrobacterium nopaline synthase gene	Tobacco and <i>A. thaliana</i>	Transgene transcribing promoter IR	Loss of transgene function	–	Mette et al. 2000
CaMV 35S	<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Recombinant virus (TRV)	Loss of transgene function	+	Jones et al. 2001
Soybean β -conglycinin α' subunit gene	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Transgene transcribing promoter IR	Loss of transgene function	–	Kanno et al. 2004
CaMV 35S	<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Recombinant virus (CMV)	Loss of transgene function	+	Otagaki et al. 2006, 2011
CaMV 35S	Rice	Transgene transcribing promoter IR	Loss of transgene function	+	Okano et al. 2008
CaMV 35S	<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Transgene transcribing promoter IR	Loss of transgene function	+	Bai et al. 2011

Abbreviations: CaMV, *Cauliflower mosaic virus*; CMV, *Cucumber mosaic virus*; *FWA*, FLOWERING WAGENINGEN; IR, inverted repeat; LeSPL-CNR, *Lycopersicon esculentum* SQUAMOSA promoter binding protein-like colorless non-ripening; Se5, Phtoperiodic sensitivity 5; SINE, short interspersed element; TRV, *Tobacco rattle virus*.

* Inheritance of TGS independent of the RNA trigger: +, the TGS is heritable; –, the TGS is not heritable or the inheritance of the TGS is not reported.

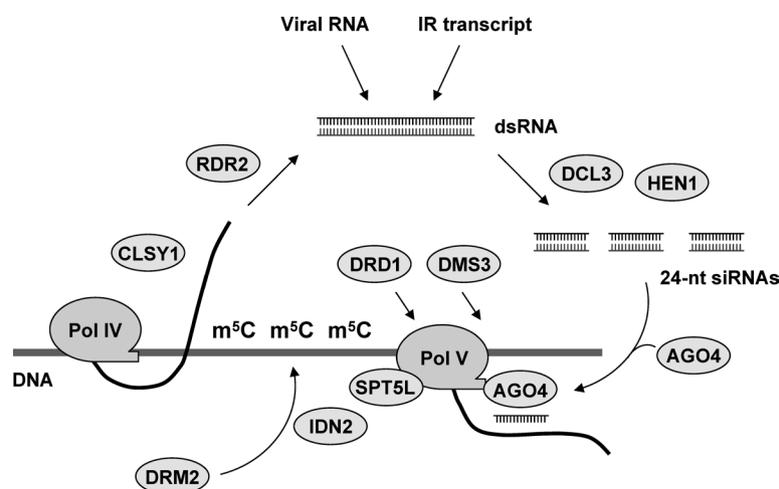


Figure 1. Model for RNA-directed DNA methylation via production of dsRNA. Transcripts from transgenes that have an inverted repeat (IR) sequence can form dsRNA. The replication intermediate or duplex structures formed within single-stranded RNA of the viral genome can also provide dsRNA. The 24-nt siRNAs produced from the dsRNA bind to AGO4 and, together with Pol V and accessory factors, form a guiding complex that recruits DRM2 for de novo methylation at the carbon-5 position of cytosine (m^5C). Pol IV may transcribe the methylated DNA, which leads to secondary siRNA production and spreading of cytosine methylation. All protein names in this figure are those in *Arabidopsis*, identified by screening mutants deficient in the RdDM pathway.

protein with structural maintenance of chromosome (SMC) hinge domain, DEFECTIVE IN MERISTEM SILENCING 3 (DMS3) (Kanno et al. 2008). The entire picture regarding RdDM and factors known so far has been reviewed elsewhere (Law and Jacobsen 2010; Matzke et al. 2009; Zhang and Zhu 2011).

When dsRNA is provided, for example, from a transgene that produces an inverted repeat RNA of a target sequence or by a recombinant virus containing a target sequence, 24-nt siRNAs are produced by DCL3 cleavage of the dsRNA, which subsequently induces de novo methylation. A current hypothetical model posits that the primary methylation elicits transcription by Pol IV, which leads to secondary siRNA production and spreading of cytosine methylation (Lorkovic et al. 2012; Matzke et al. 2009).

Cytosine methylation established through RdDM can be maintained by factors including methyltransferases (Chan et al. 2005). The maintenance of CG methylation requires METHYLTRANSFERASE 1 (MET1) (Finnegan and Kovac 2000; Kankel et al. 2003), an orthologue of mouse DNMT1, a chromatin remodeling factor DECREASE IN DNA METHYLATION 1 (DDM1) (Jeddeloh et al. 2001; Vongs et al. 1993) and HISTONE DEACETYLASE 6 (HDA6) (Aufsatz et al. 2002). The maintenance of non-CG methylation requires DRM1, DRM2, the plant-specific methyltransferase CHROMOMETHYLASE3 (CMT3) (Bartee et al. 2001; Lindroth et al. 2001), which function redundantly, and a histone methyltransferase SUPPRESSOR OF VARIATION 3-9 HOMOLOGUE 4 (SUVH4, also known as KRIPTONITE; KYP) (Jackson et al. 2002; Malagnac et al. 2002). On the other hand, a family of DNA glycosylases can demethylate cytosine in plants (Chan et al. 2005; Gong et al. 2002).

Use of a virus vector as a tool to induce RNA silencing and epigenetic changes

One of the mechanisms that plants use to cope with viruses is RNA silencing. When plants are infected with an RNA virus, dsRNA of the viral genome is degraded by the infected plants via an RNA silencing pathway (Al-Kaff et al. 1998; Covey et al. 1997). The dsRNA in the virus-infected cells is thought to be the replication intermediate of the viral RNA (Lu et al. 2003) or a duplex structure formed within single-stranded viral RNA (Molnar et al. 2005). If a segment of the host plant gene is inserted in the viral genome, then siRNAs would also be produced from the segment. Therefore, infection by the virus results in the production of siRNAs corresponding to the plant gene and subsequently induces RNA degradation of the gene. These discoveries led to the use of a virus vector to induce silencing of a specific gene in the plant genome, which is referred to as virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS; Kumagai et al. 1995; Purkayastha

and Dasgupta 2009; Ruiz et al. 1998). Dozens of plant virus vectors have been developed for inducing PTGS, as listed previously (Kanazawa 2008; Senthil-Kumar and Mysore 2011).

PTGS of both transgenes and endogenous genes has been induced efficiently in plants. In contrast, there is a marked difference between transgenes and endogenous genes in the feasibility of TGS induction by targeting dsRNA to a promoter (Okano et al. 2008). Transgenes in plant genome can be easily silenced, and the silenced state is heritable in the presence or absence of the silencing inducer (Jones et al. 2001). On the other hand, several previous reports have shown that endogenous genes can be silenced only in the presence of the silencing inducer (Cigan et al. 2005; Heilersig et al. 2006; Sijen et al. 2001). The *Potato virus X* (PVX) and *Tobacco rattle virus* (TRV) vectors have been shown to induce heritable RNA-mediated TGS against transgenes such as the green fluorescent protein (*GFP*) and β -glucuronidase (*GUS*) genes (Jones et al. 1999; 2001), but no RdDM and RNA-mediated TGS against an endogenous gene was induced (Jones et al. 1999).

We have developed an RNA virus vector based on *Cucumber mosaic virus* (CMV), which is able to rapidly induce PTGS and TGS of transgene in *Nicotiana benthamiana*, a model plant for plant viral research (Otagaki et al. 2006) or PTGS of endogenous genes in soybean (Nagamatsu et al. 2007; 2009). Subsequently, we reported for the first time that TGS of endogenous genes can be induced by the vector in petunia and tomato plants and that the induced TGS is heritable (Kanazawa et al. 2011a). The TGS resulted in phenotypic changes and was accompanied by epigenetic changes including cytosine methylation and histone modification.

Mechanisms behind the efficient induction of epigenetic changes by the CMV vector

In our analyses of the mechanism(s) behind the induction of TGS of endogenous genes by the CMV vector, we found that the 2b protein encoded by the vector virus bound to siRNAs and was localized in the nucleus in tobacco protoplasts. When the protoplasts had been transfected with siRNAs, they accumulated the siRNAs in the nucleus efficiently in the presence of 2b. We also found that promoter-targeted TGS was induced more efficiently in both virus-infected plants and dsRNA-transfected protoplasts when the 2b gene is expressed. Thus, efficient TGS depends on the function of the 2b protein, which has the ability to facilitate epigenetic modifications through the transport of siRNA to the nucleus (Kanazawa et al. 2011a).

The 2b protein was originally identified as a suppressor of viral RNA degradation via RNA silencing pathway (Lucy et al. 2000). Viral suppressor proteins can prevent the incorporation of siRNAs into RISCs or interfere

with RISCs, which allows viral accumulation (reviewed by Silhavy and Burgyan 2004). Interestingly, because common reactions of RNA silencing are involved in the degradation of both viral RNA and plant mRNA, infection of plants with CMV suppresses PTGS of a plant gene. In fact, posttranscriptional silencing of the *chalcone synthase* genes in petunia (Kasai et al. 2012; Koseki et al. 2005) and soybean (Senda et al. 2004) is suppressed in CMV-infected plants. Because of this function, viral infection can be used as a tool to “diagnose” an RNA-silencing induced phenotype (Kasai and Kanazawa 2012). Therefore, the induction of TGS by the CMV vector should be regarded as a mixed outcome of different reactions involving siRNAs: the promotion of epigenetic changes and the suppression of RNA degradation. We also found that the expression of genes involved in RdDM is upregulated and that of genes for demethylation is downregulated in *Arabidopsis* plants infected with CMV (Kanazawa et al. 2011b). These changes may also contribute to the efficient induction of RdDM and TGS.

Although genes involved in the RdDM pathway have been identified, whether dsRNAs of different promoter regions differ in the extent of their effects on RdDM and/or TGS had not been known. We addressed this question by targeting the *Cauliflower mosaic virus* (CaMV) 35S promoter in the genome of *N. benthamiana* using a recombinant CMV that contained various portions of the promoter (Otagaki et al. 2011). We found that the efficiency of the induction of TGS depends on the length of the promoter segment that triggers the RdDM and that there is a lower size limit for TGS induction of 81–91 nt. In addition, the frequency of cytosine at symmetric sites in the region targeted by dsRNA is the major factor that allows the induction of heritable TGS via RdDM (described below in detail). We also discovered several intriguing events whose mechanisms are unsolved: TGS was induced when 70-nt fragments were connected

in tandem, none of which solely induced TGS; TGS induction did not simply depend on the production of siRNAs corresponding to the promoter; along with the induction of RdDM, DNA methylation spread from the originally targeted site to adjacent regions; cytosine methylation at CHH sites was present in the progeny plants that had no RNA trigger of RdDM, implying the presence of unknown mechanism(s) to maintain CHH methylation (Otagaki et al. 2011). Some of these phenomena may be relevant to the efficiency of TGS induction.

The advantage of the use of CMV vector is that it allows efficient induction of heritable epigenetic changes on a target gene. Another advantage of this silencing system is that the progeny plants do not have any transgene because the virus is eliminated during meiosis. Plants that are produced by this system have altered traits but do not carry a transgene, thus constituting a novel class of modified plants (Kanazawa et al. 2011b) (Figure 2).

Factors allowing the induction of heritable TGS

When a strong and heritable TGS of a transgene was induced by targeting CaMV 35S promoter using the CMV vector, a high level of methylation was detected at cytosines in all sequence contexts (i.e., CG, CHG and CHH). In the progeny of virus-infected plants, the frequencies of methylation, especially those at symmetrical sites (CG and CHG), were as high as or even higher than those in the former generation (Otagaki et al. 2011). In contrast, the frequency of methylcytosine was lower in plants in which a weak level of TGS was induced. In addition, methylcytosines were barely detected in the progeny, in which transgene expression was restored. The lower level of RdDM and TGS induction by a vector construct is correlated with a lower frequency (3.4/100nt) of cytosines at symmetrical sites in the target DNA region, while the value of the

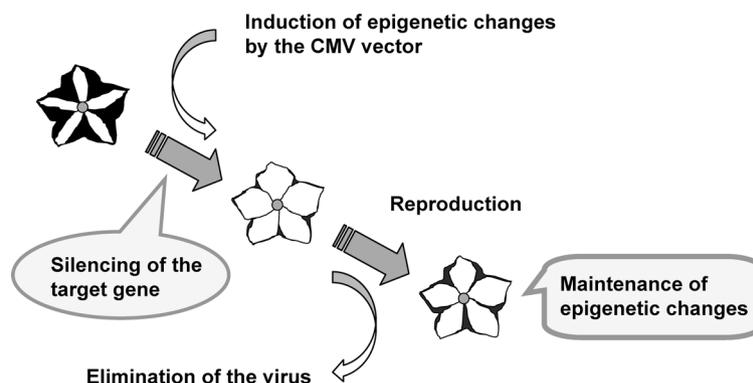


Figure 2. Induction of epigenetic changes by the CMV vector and transmission of the altered traits to progeny plants. The CMV vector containing an endogenous gene promoter sequence produces siRNAs in the infected plants via the RNA silencing machinery. The siRNAs are targeted to the promoter of the endogenous gene in the nucleus, which induces epigenetic changes. Progeny plants maintain the epigenetic changes but do not carry any foreign nucleic acids because the virus is eliminated during meiosis and thus constitute a novel class of modified plants.

other constructs that induced a higher extent of TGS was 5.4–9.8/100 nt (Otagaki et al. 2011). Thus, in addition to the length of the promoter segment above the threshold (81–91 nt) for triggering the RdDM, the frequency of cytosine at symmetrical sites in the region targeted by dsRNA is the major factor that allows the induction of heritable TGS via RdDM. The importance of cytosines at symmetrical sites on heritable TGS is consistent with a previous report of Diéguez et al. (1998): on the basis of experiments using a modified CaMV 35S promoter devoid of CG and CHG sequences, they suggested that CG/CHG methylation is essential for the maintenance of established silenced states, although it is not a prerequisite for the initiation of TGS.

Another epigenetic mark correlated with heritable TGS was histone modification. When RdDM and TGS of plant endogenous genes were induced by the CMV vector, an altered state of histone modification, the presence of dimethylation at Lys9 of histone H3 and the absence of acetylation of histone H3, was detected and the altered state was inherited by the progeny (Kanazawa et al. 2011a). The altered state of histone modification was maintained in the progeny even when the frequency of cytosine methylation decreased.

TGS can be transmitted through multiple generations. For example, TGS of the *GFP* gene induced by targeting dsRNA to the CaMV 35S promoter using the CMV vector was stable for at least four generations with no detectable reversion to a nonsilenced state (Otagaki et al. 2011). TGS of the same gene induced by the TRV vector was also heritable, although 70% of the progeny of virus-infected plants reverted to a nonsilenced state (Jones et al. 2001). Transmission of acquired epigenetic states between generations is restricted by establishment of a default epigenetic state during the process of reproduction: extensive DNA demethylation has been detected in pollen and endosperm (Hauser et al. 2011). Transgenerational inheritance of an epigenetic state reflects the presence of epigenetic marks that remained through epigenetic resetting during gametogenesis, condition(s) of which remains largely elusive. A recent study has shown that RdDM can be enhanced by simultaneously downregulating a *ROS1* orthologue using the CMV vector in *N. benthamiana* (Otagaki et al. 2013). This method can be used to control the level of cytosine methylation in a targeted DNA region via RdDM and may potentially be useful for enhancing transgenerational epigenetic inheritance.

Perspectives on the use of epigenetic changes in plant biotechnology

RdDM, together with synthetic restriction endonucleases such as zinc finger nucleases (ZFNs) and transcription activator-like effector nucleases (TALENs), is one of seven new plant breeding techniques highlighted in

a recent review (Lusser et al. 2012). While genomic engineering by ZFNs or TALENs involves changes in nucleotide sequence, controlling gene expression via RdDM is not accompanied by changes in nucleotide sequence and can be regarded as an acceleration of gene expression control intrinsic to eukaryotes.

Bai et al. (2011) recently reported that TGS of a transgene is induced after infiltration of plant leaves with *Agrobacterium* that expresses an inverted repeat of promoter RNA and that the TGS is transmitted to a grafting partner. The transmissible TGS is maintained through tissue culture and inherited by the progeny. Accordingly, in addition to the induction of RdDM and TGS of plant endogenous genes by the CMV vector, this method may also provide a tool to produce transgene-less plants with altered traits via gene-specific epigenetic changes, if this method is applied to TGS of an endogenous gene.

In addition to inducing gene-specific epigenetic changes via RdDM, changes in epigenetic state can also be induced randomly in the genome by inhibiting cytosine methylation. Although a method for targeted demethylation has never been developed for any organism, transgenerational inheritance of a state of decreased methylation with an increased transcriptional activity has been noted for limited loci in plants (Paszowski and Grossniklaus 2011). On the basis of such a notion, plants with an altered phenotype and epigenetic state have been produced (Akimoto et al. 2007; Boyko et al. 2010; Reinders et al. 2009). Similarly, plant lines that have distinct characteristics and different epigenetic states were selected from an isogenic plant population (Hauben et al. 2009). Plants can be treated with a demethylating agent (Akimoto et al. 2007) or crossed with methyltransferase gene mutants (Reinders et al. 2009) to produce plants with a genome with an altered epigenetic state. Through an *in planta* assay system to assess the inhibition of cytosine methylation using transgenic petunia and *N. benthamiana* plants, a novel inhibitor of cytosine methylation in plants has been found (Arase et al. 2012). Different methylation inhibitors might confer different spectra of epimutagenesis and thus will be useful for producing novel epigenetic states.

Both gene-specific and gene-nonspecific inductions of epigenetic changes have become a feasible tool to engineer novel traits in plants. The concept shared by these methods is to produce and/or utilize novel epialleles. Using these approaches, scientists may be able to exploit novel resources for plant breeding. At present, for both the promoter-targeting method and the random induction method, we do not know whether epigenetic changes can be induced at an equal efficiency between different genes, and this issue may be important in terms of using this technology for plant breeding. Considering

the fact that epigenetic control of gene expression is ubiquitous, the role of epigenetic modification in plant biotechnology will undoubtedly increase.

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