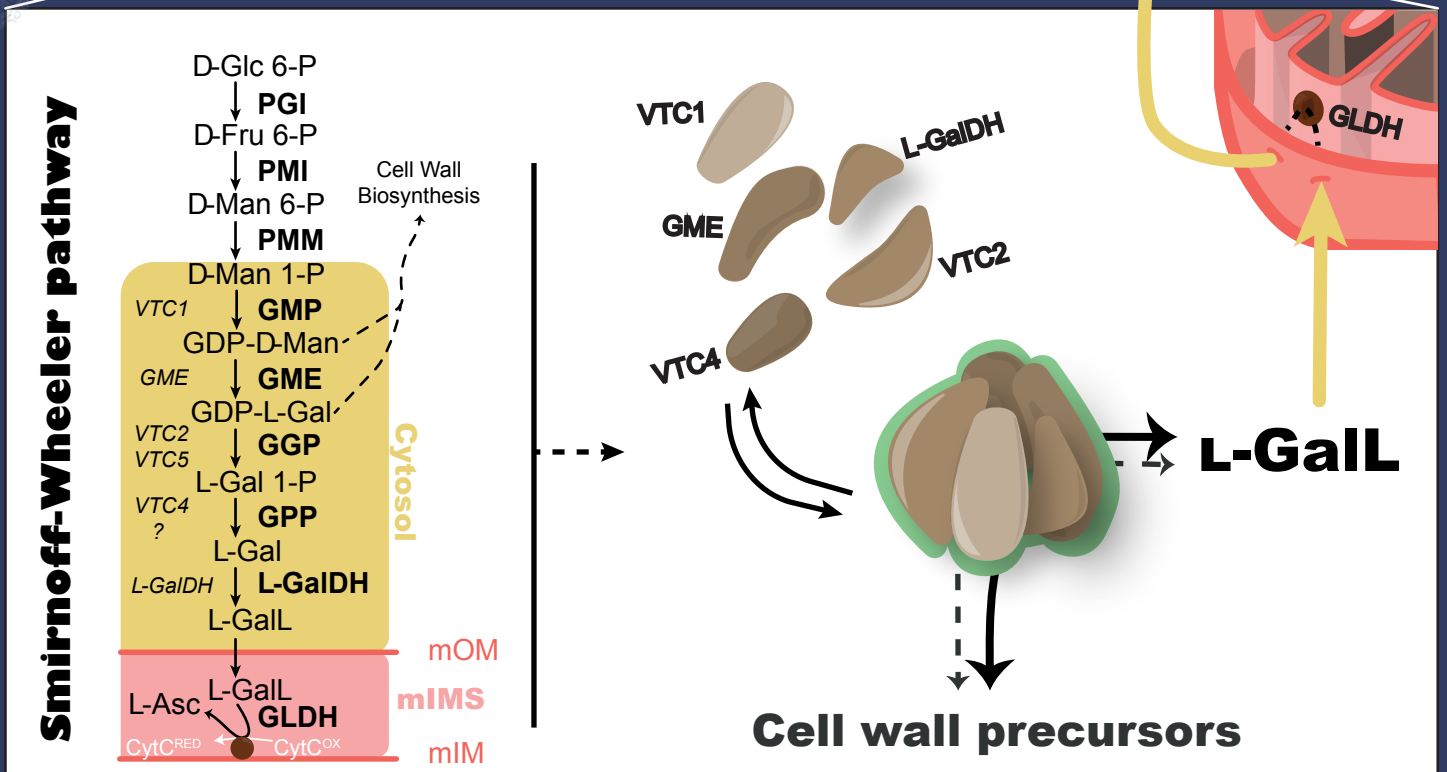
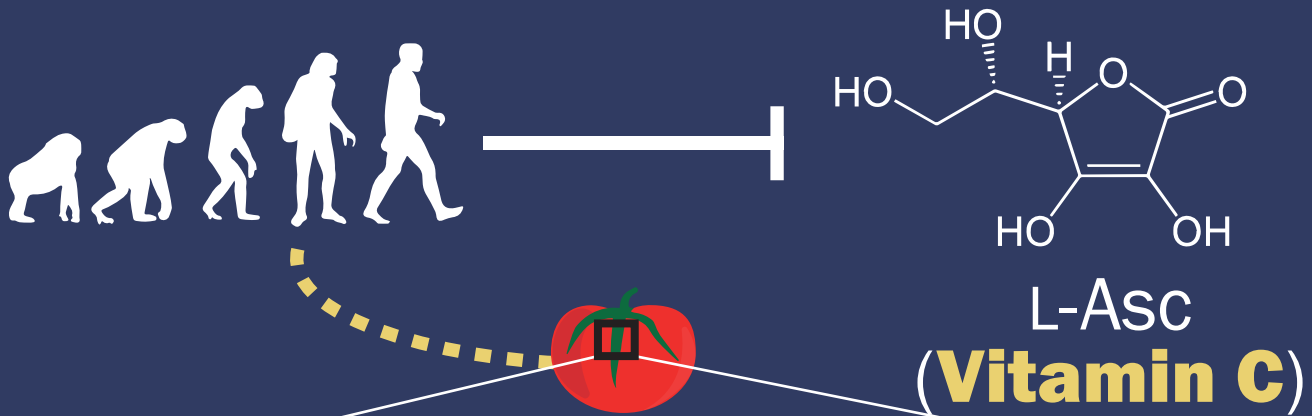


Tesis Doctoral

Organisation and control of the ascorbate biosynthesis pathway in plants



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Instituto de Hortofruticultura Subtropical y Mediterránea (IHSM-UMA-CSIC)


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Y para que así conste, y tenga los efectos oportunos, en cumplimiento de la legislación vigente, se extiende el presente informe en Málaga, a 19 de junio de 2019.

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D./Dña MARIO FENECH TORRES

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Realizada bajo la tutorización de MIGUEL ÁNGEL BOTELLA MESA y dirección de MIGUEL ÁNGEL BOTELLA MESA (si tuviera varios directores deberá hacer constar el nombre de todos)

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RESUMEN



¿Qué es el ácido ascórbico?

El ácido L-ascórbico (L-treo-hex-2-enono-1,4-lactona, ascorbato), también conocido como vitamina C, es un antioxidante esencial en el metabolismo de plantas y animales. El papel del ascorbato en los mamíferos ha sido ampliamente estudiado a lo largo del tiempo, particularmente desde el siglo XVIII con el descubrimiento de su papel en la prevención del escorbuto (Lind, 1753; Baron, 2009). Sin embargo, esto no era obvio en ese momento porque la falta de ascorbato en la dieta tarda aproximadamente un mes antes de que aparezcan los síntomas. Por lo tanto, esta enfermedad se manifestó típicamente durante largos viajes por mar con una dieta escasa en frutas y verduras frescas. A principios de la década de 1930, Albert Szent-Györgyi identificó y aisló la molécula responsable de esta actividad contra el escorbuto, lo que le llevó a ganar el Premio Nobel de Medicina en 1937. De esta manera, esa molécula anteriormente llamada ácido hexurónico, pasó a llamarse ácido ascórbico (de *a*: anti + *scurvy*: escorbuto).

¿Por qué es importante incluirlo en la dieta?

Varios grupos de animales pueden sintetizar ascorbato en el hígado o en el riñón, sin embargo, algunos grupos como el de los conejillos de Indias, ciertos grupos de murciélagos, aves y los primates, en el que se incluyen los humanos, han perdido esta capacidad debido a la acumulación de mutaciones en la última enzima de la ruta de biosíntesis (L-gulono-1,4-lactona oxidasa, GULO; Chatterjee, 1973; Drouin et al., 2011; Nishikimi et al., 1994). Los cambios en la dieta que llevaron a incorporar abundantes frutas y verduras dieron como resultado la pérdida de presión selectiva que mantenía esta ruta funcional (Macknight et al., 2017). Por lo tanto, a raíz de incorporar esta molécula en la dieta, frutas y verduras se erigen como las principales fuentes de ascorbato.

Uno de los principales síntomas del mencionado escorbuto es el deterioro de la piel debido a la participación del ascorbato en la biosíntesis y la estabilidad del colágeno. El ascorbato funciona como cofactor en la hidroxilación enzimática catalizada por varios grupos de lisil y prolil hidroxilasas (Myllylä et al., 1984; Padayatty y Levine, 2016; Pekkala et al., 2003; Peterkofsky, 1991) mediante la reducción de Fe^{3+} al Fe^{2+} activo (de Jong et al., 1982; Gorres y Raines, 2010). La hidroxilación de prolina es una modificación postraduccional esencial que ocurre en los residuos de prolina permitiendo así la trimerización del colágeno, lo cual proporciona alta estabilidad térmica (Koide y Nagata, 2005). La hidroxilación catalizada por estas enzimas requiere un ion Fe^{2+} ubicado en el centro activo, que se oxida a Fe^{3+} en el ciclo catalítico y el ascorbato es responsable de mantener el hierro activo reduciéndolo a Fe^{2+} .

Además de prevenir el escorbuto, el ascorbato está involucrado en muchos otros procesos que también requieren la acción de otros miembros de



esta familia de mono- y dioxigenasas. Para estas enzimas, el ascorbato funciona como cofactor, manteniendo la actividad de los iones metálicos ubicados en los centros activos. Por ejemplo, el ascorbato es importante para la síntesis de carnitina, cuya falta está relacionada con la fatiga común que se encuentra en los pacientes con escorbuto. También se sabe que el ascorbato participa en la biosíntesis de dopamina (Rush y Geffen, 1980; Prigge et al., 1999). Más recientemente, se ha demostrado que la actividad de otras dioxigenasas dependientes de $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\alpha\text{KG}$ clave se ve reforzada por el ascorbato, como es el caso de las enzimas Translocaciones Diez-Once (Ten-Eleven Translocations, TET). Los TET están involucrados en la desmetilación del ADN a través de una cascada de oxidación de 5-metilcitosina a 5-hidroximetilcitosina, 5-formilcitosina, 5-carboxilcitosina y, finalmente, a citosina por el mecanismo de reparación de escisión de base (Blaschke et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2015; Minor et al., 2013). Es importante destacar que, además, el ascorbato funciona como cofactor de histona desmetilasas que albergan un dominio Jumonji C (JmjC) (JumonjiC Containing Histone Demethylases, JHDM), el mismo dominio catalítico presente en los TET (Young et al., 2015). Las lisinas tri-, di- y monometiladas en las histonas se pueden oxidar a hidroximetil lisinas por JHDM y ascorbato de forma similar a como ocurre con la desmetilación del ADN y los TET, con una eliminación espontánea de este grupo hidroximetilo (Young et al., 2015). En conjunto, estos hallazgos muestran que el ascorbato participa en la respuesta a los estímulos ambientales ejerciendo un control epigenético de la expresión génica.

¿Cuánto ascorbato es necesario ingerir?

La deficiencia de ascorbato en los países desarrollados ha registrado una disminución a lo largo del tiempo. A finales del siglo pasado, la deficiencia de ascorbato en EE. UU. fue de alrededor del 13% de la población (Hampl et al., 2004), pero se redujo al 7% en la última encuesta efectuada durante el período 2003-2004 (Schleicher et al., 2009). Según los primeros experimentos, se encontró que una dosis diaria de menos de 10 mg era suficiente para prevenir el escorbuto (Baker et al., 1969, 1971, Hodges et al., 1969, 1971; Johnstone et al., 1946; Peters et al., 1953). Sin embargo, se estableció un requisito promedio (RA) de 90 mg/día para hombres y 80 mg/día para mujeres, y una ingesta de referencia de población (PRI) de 110 mg/día para hombres y 95 mg/día para mujeres según la Autoridad Europea de Seguridad Alimentaria (Panel EFDA NDA, 2013). Esto se basa en mantener una concentración plasmática de alrededor de 50 $\mu\text{mol} / \text{L}$ de ascorbato, indicativo de un estado adecuado (Kallner et al., 1979). Para entenderlo mejor, 100 g de naranja contienen 50 mg de ascorbato, y una naranja pesa entre 200-250 g. Es decir, una naranja nos aporta el requisito promedio de vitamina C de un día. No obstante, una dieta rica en ascorbato tiene varias ventajas para la salud (Carr y Maggini, 2017; Reczek y



Chandel, 2015; van Gorkom et al., 2018; Wintergerst et al., 2006). En los últimos años, el ascorbato se ha propuesto como un tratamiento contra diferentes tipos de cáncer a través de diversos mecanismos, como aumentar la actividad de TET, inducir el estrés oxidativo en las células cancerosas o mejorar la actividad de diversos tratamientos químicos (Agathocleous et al., 2017; Cimmino et al., 2017; Ko et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2018; Miura et al., 2018; Shenoy et al., 2017; Yun et al., 2015). La ingesta diaria de ascorbato proporcionada por las frutas depende de varios factores, pero claramente el contenido de ascorbato, así como la cantidad de fruta que se consume, son los factores más importantes. Es importante además tener en cuenta la forma en que se consume (cocinado o crudo), ya que esto tiene consecuencias importantes en la reducción y oxidación del ascorbato que puede alterar la biodisponibilidad del ascorbato debido a las interacciones con otros fitoquímicos como la vitamina E o los flavonoides (Carr y Vissers, 2013; Packer et al., 1979; Tanaka et al., 1997).

¿Cómo sintetizan las plantas el ascorbato?

La ruta predominante a través de la cual se sintetiza el ascorbato en las plantas es la ruta de Smirnoff-Wheeler (Wheeler et al., 1998). En esta ruta, una molécula de D-glucosa se transforma mediante sucesivas reacciones enzimáticas en GDP-D-manosa, GDP-L-galactosa, L-galactosa, L-galactono-1,4-lactona y, finalmente, en ascorbato. A diferencia de la ruta de biosíntesis en animales, en la ruta de la planta no hay inversión de carbono, es decir, que el carbono 1 en la molécula de D-glucosa permanece como carbono 1 en el ascorbato después de la conversión. El último sustrato de la ruta, la L-galactono-1,4-lactona, debe moverse del citosol al espacio intermembrana de las mitocondrias, donde se encuentra el sitio activo de la L-galactono-1,4-lactona deshidrogenasa (Imai et al., 1998; Mapson y Breslow, 1958; Pineau et al., 2008; Schertl et al., 2012; Schimmeyer et al., 2016). El hecho de que la oxidación de la L-galactono-1,4-lactona se lleve a cabo en las plantas mediante una deshidrogenasa en lugar de una oxidasa como ocurre en los animales, no es trivial. Contrariamente a la paradójica actividad de la oxidasa de animales, la deshidrogenasa de plantas no produce H₂O₂ como resultado de su actividad enzimática y, por lo tanto, la producción de ascorbato en plantas no tiene efectos secundarios sobre el estado redox de la célula (Wheeler et al., 2015). Existen otras rutas que pueden estar colaborando al contenido final de ascorbato que se describen en la introducción de esta tesis, pero los estudios con mutantes de los distintos componentes de la ruta de Smirnoff-Wheeler demuestran que esta es la predominante, especialmente en tejido fotosintético.

Por otro lado, en tejidos heterotróficos como son las frutas, la ruta de Smirnoff-Wheeler SW es funcional, como se demuestra en varias especies como acerola, kiwi, fresa, melocotón, tomate y manzana (Badejo et al., 2009, 2012; Bulley et al., 2009; Cruz-Rus et al., 2010; Imai et al., 2009; Ioannidi et al., 2009;



Mellidou et al., 2012a, 2012b). Sin embargo, dependiendo del estadio de maduración de la fruta, otras vías alternativas pueden resultar relevantes, especialmente la ruta del D-galacturonato (Mapson e Isherwood, 1956; Shigeoka et al., 1979), a través de la cual la degradación de las pectinas de pared celular puede proporcionar sustrato para la formación de ascorbato (Agius et al., 2003; Badejo et al., 2012; Cruz-Rus et al., 2010; Di Matteo et al., 2010). Mientras que la ruta del D-galacturonato es más activa a medida que la fruta madura, la ruta de Smirnoff-Wheeler y el transporte de ascorbato desde las hojas proporcionan la mayor parte del ascorbato en las frutas en la etapa verde inmadura.

¿Qué fruta resulta más interesante desde el punto de vista biotecnológico?

Según la Organización de las Naciones Unidas para la Alimentación y la Agricultura (FAO), el tomate ha sido la fruta más producida en el mundo en los últimos veinte años, una tendencia que ha aumentado durante los últimos años. En la Unión Europea en 2016, la producción de fruta estuvo dominada por la uva, seguida de tomate, manzana y naranja. Sin embargo, se procesa una gran proporción de tomate (61,5%), manzana (26,8%) y uva (96,5%), lo que conduce a una reducción del contenido de ascorbato y a una menor biodisponibilidad de otros nutrientes que dependen del ascorbato (Hallberg et al., 1982, 1987). Por lo tanto, la ingesta de ascorbato a través de la naranja supera a la de la uva y de tomate. Las frutas de tomate y manzana, aunque podrían considerarse fuentes moderadas de ascorbato en base a su contenido relativamente bajo, se consumen ampliamente y, por lo tanto, proporcionan importantes fuentes dietéticas de ascorbato.

Los cultivos frutales tienen diferentes requisitos ambientales cuyo conocimiento nos permite optimizar el rendimiento y, además, afecta directamente al contenido de ascorbato de los frutos, ya que este se ve afectado por factores abióticos como la luz o la temperatura (Gautier et al., 2008; Suzuki et al., 2014; Zechmann et al., 2011). Por lo tanto, las pequeñas diferencias que podemos encontrar dentro de un mismo tipo de cultivo pueden venir dado por distinto grado de satisfacción de estos requisitos, por el tiempo de cosecha o por condiciones posteriores a la cosecha (Akhatou y Fernández-Recamales, 2014; Davey et al., 2007; Kevers et al., 2011; Oms-Oliu et al., 2011). Sin embargo, las grandes diferencias observadas en el contenido de ascorbato en especies estrechamente relacionadas probablemente tengan otras causas. Por ejemplo, se pueden encontrar grandes diferencias en la cantidad de ascorbato que tiene el tomate silvestre y el que tiene el tomate cultivado. Los cultivares de tomate domesticados típicamente contienen en torno a 15 mg/100 g de peso fresco, mientras que las variedades silvestres como *Solanum pimpinelifolium* o *Solanum pennellii* contienen alrededor de 40 mg/100 g de peso fresco (Lima-Silva et al., 2012) y hasta 70 mg/100 g de peso fresco (Stevens et al., 2007),



respectivamente. De hecho, los programas de mejora que cruzaron distintas líneas de tomate con *Solanum peruvianum*, otra especie silvestre (Atherton y Rudich, 1987), resultaron tener la mayor cantidad de ascorbato de entre las especies de *Solanum*: alrededor de 50 mg/100 g de peso fresco (Top et al., 2014), una cantidad similar a la de una naranja. Estas especies silvestres de tomate crecen naturalmente en áreas tropicales de Perú y México cuyos factores ambientales podrían haber favorecido la selección de un alto contenido de ascorbato a lo largo del tiempo. La evidencia actual sugiere que la domesticación de tomates se dirigió hacia la selección de un mayor tamaño de fruta y resistencia a enfermedades como el marchitamiento por *Fusarium* (Atherton y Rudich, 1987). Es probable que, durante los últimos 200 años de domesticación en Europa, el crecimiento en condiciones más controladas y menos duras haya disminuido la presión selectiva para mantener los alelos que confieren un alto contenido de ascorbato, particularmente porque se ha encontrado una aparente asociación de altos niveles de ascorbato con baja productividad en esta especie (Atherton y Rudich, 1987). Adicionalmente, el tamaño y el peso de la fruta se relacionan directamente con el contenido de agua, y han sido rasgos clave seleccionados durante los programas de reproducción que llevan a la dilución de la concentración de ascorbato en la fruta.

Todo junto, el gran consumo de tomate, su ascorbato relativamente bajo y su alta ingesta en crudo lo convierten en una diana biotecnológica excelente para aumentar su contenido de ascorbato desde un punto de vista de la mejora de la calidad nutricional de la población.

¿De qué maneras podemos incrementar el contenido de ascorbato en una especie de interés agronómico?

El aumento del contenido de ascorbato en frutas altamente consumidas claramente tendría un impacto en la nutrición humana. El incremento de ascorbato en tejidos u órganos sometidos a estrés oxidativo, es decir, tejidos fotosintéticos, podría tener un efecto beneficioso adicional sobre la tolerancia de las plantas. Sin embargo, si los aumentos de ascorbato en la fruta tendrían o no un efecto sobre la tolerancia al estrés, no está tan claro, aunque se propone que durante el desarrollo de la fruta y la maduración puede ocurrir estrés oxidativo (Brennan y Frenkel, 1977; Huan et al., 2016; Jimenez et al., 2002; Rogiers et al., 1998). La mayoría de los intentos utilizados para aumentar los niveles de ascorbato se basan en herramientas moleculares y consisten básicamente en la sobreexpresión de genes involucrados en diferentes aspectos del metabolismo del ascorbato (biosíntesis, reciclaje o regulación). Un segundo enfoque para aumentar el contenido de ascorbato sería a través de la selección de regiones genómicas específicas que determinan un alto ascorbato de un cultivador



donante (o especies relacionadas) y la introgresión en el cultivar de interés utilizando mejora genética asistida por marcadores (Singh y Singh, 2015). Mientras que en el primer enfoque es posible utilizar genes de diferentes especies y los promotores que impulsan la expresión alta o específica en los tejidos deseados (Amaya et al., 2015) en la medida en que la especie objetivo es susceptible de transformación, el segundo enfoque se basa en la identificación de variantes naturales que pueden usarse para entrecruzarse con estas líneas de interés. Aunque hasta la fecha existen informes limitados que utilizan este enfoque, la clara ventaja es que estas líneas se pueden poner directamente en producción porque no implica transgénesis y, por lo tanto, no están sujetas a la regulación de los organismos modificados genéticamente (Huang et al., 2016). La tecnología CRISPR/Cas9 ha mejorado enormemente nuestra capacidad para diseñar mutaciones específicas en genomas eucariotas (Doudna y Charpentier, 2014). En tomate, CRISPR/Cas9 se ha utilizado recientemente para generar un espectro de algunos rasgos agronómicos clave, como el tamaño del fruto, el número de inflorescencias y el tamaño de la planta en tomate (Rodríguez-Leal et al. 2017). En un artículo reciente, la edición del elemento controlador de la expresión de VTC2 (uORF), una de las enzimas clave de la ruta de Smirnoff-Wheeler, aumentó el contenido de ascorbato en 1,5 veces, lo que condujo a una mejor tolerancia al estrés oxidativo (Zhang et al., 2018a). Una edición similar del VTC2 de tomate también condujo a un aumento de ascorbato de 1,5 veces en las hojas (Li et al., 2018). Por lo tanto, una práctica común en el futuro será utilizar la edición del genoma para modificar la expresión génica, la afinidad por un sustrato, la eficiencia catalítica o la generación de alelos específicos en las frutas. Todo esto se facilitará aún más mediante el reemplazo de secuencias mediante recombinación homóloga, como ya se ha conseguido en Arabidopsis haciendo uso de la tecnología CRISPR/Cas9 (Miki et al., 2018).

¿Qué encontramos en el Capítulo 1 de esta tesis doctoral?

Las concentraciones de ascorbato en plantas dependen del tejido en que se mida (Franceschi y Tarlyn, 2002; Lorence et al., 2004; Müller-Moulé, 2008; Zhang et al., 2011) y el contenido total se ajusta de acuerdo con las condiciones ambientales, especialmente a la luz (Bartoli et al., 2006; Page et al., 2012; Plumb et al., 2018). Sorprendentemente, a pesar de ser el antioxidante soluble más abundante, la comprensión de los mecanismos que regulan el contenido de ascorbato celular sigue siendo limitada. Si bien los pasos catalíticos están bien descritos, se ha reunido poca información sobre cómo se controla la ruta. Esto se complica aún más porque la concentración de ascorbato está determinada por un equilibrio entre la biosíntesis, su degradación, y su reciclaje. Parte del ascorbato que se oxida a monodehidroascorbato y deshidroascorbato como



resultado de sus funciones bioquímicas se puede reducir de nuevo a ascorbato a través del ciclo Halliwell-Foyer-Asada (Asada, 1999). Además, una proporción de ascorbato y deshidroascorbato puede degradarse a diversos productos como oxalato, treonato y tartrato si no se reduce rápidamente a ascorbato (Pallanca y Smirnoff, 2000; Green y Fry, 2005; deBolt et al., 2006, 2007; Truffault et al., 2017; Dewhirst et al., 2017; Terai et al., 2020). Estas reacciones de reciclaje y descomposición son importantes bajo estrés oxidativo severo, lo que resulta en una disminución del ascorbato celular (Terai et al., 2020; Waszczak et al., 2016).

Múltiples investigaciones apuntan a VTC2 como el paso catalítico crítico en la biosíntesis de ascorbato. La transcripción del gen *VTC2* (Urzica et al., 2012; Dowdle et al., 2007; Müller-Moulé, 2008) y la actividad de la enzima codificada (Dowdle et al., 2007) son altamente sensibles a los factores ambientales. Además, la traducción de *VTC2* está sujeta a una represión por retroalimentación a través de un marco de lectura abierto aguas arriba del gen principal (uORF) en el 5'-UTR (Laing et al., 2015). Como consecuencia, la eliminación del uORF aumenta la cantidad de ascorbato en *Arabidopsis* (Laing et al., 2015) además de los ya mencionados, tomate (Li et al., 2018) y lechuga (Zhang et al., 2018). Además, *VTC2* es el único gen de la vía cuya sobreexpresión aumenta consistentemente el contenido de ascorbato (Bulley et al., 2012; Yoshimura et al., 2014) y un análisis de QTL muestra que *VTC2* se encuentra dentro de las regiones del genoma asociadas a las frutas que contienen alto contenido de ascorbato (Mellidou, Chagne, et al., 2012). No obstante, ha habido artículos donde la sobreexpresión de otros genes de la ruta, como *VTC1* o *GME*, también aumentan la concentración de ascorbato en *Arabidopsis* (Zhou et al., 2012 [1,3 veces]; Li et al., 2016 [1,5 veces]; Zhou et al., 2012 [1,4 veces]), arroz (Zhang et al., 2015 [1,4 veces]), tabaco (Wang et al., 2011 [2-4 veces]), tomate (Cronje et al., 2012 [1,7 veces]; Zhang et al., 2011 [1,4 veces]) y kiwi (Bulley et al., 2009 [1,2 veces]). Sin embargo, la sobreexpresión de estos genes no siempre tiene un efecto sobre la concentración de ascorbato (Yoshimura et al., 2014; Sawake et al., 2015).

En el capítulo 1 hemos estudiado el efecto de la sobreexpresión sistemática de todos los genes involucrados en la vía SW, de forma individual o en combinaciones, sobre el contenido de ascorbato endógeno usando hojas de *Nicotiana benthamiana*. Hemos demostrado que las enzimas fusionadas a GFP son funcionales ya que sus inserciones en sus respectivos fondos mutantes aumentaron la concentración de ascorbato en *Arabidopsis*. En estas condiciones experimentales, solo la sobreexpresión de *VTC2* aumentó la concentración de ascorbato, lo cual confirma estudios previos (Bulley et al., 2009; Bulley et al., 2012; Yoshimura et al., 2014; Laing et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Ali et al., 2019). Curiosamente, el mutante *vtc2* transformado con una construcción *VTC2-GFP* cuya expresión estaba controlada por su propio promotor, también incluyendo la región 5'-UTR mostró una fluorescencia de GFP extremadamente baja en comparación con otras proteínas etiquetadas GFP. Esta diferencia en la cantidad de proteína es apreciable cuando se comparan



una misma inmunotransferencia. Probablemente, esta diferencia esté relacionada con la represión traduccional de *VTC2* a través del uORF conservado en el 5'-UTR (Laing et al., 2015). El bajo nivel esperado de proteína de *VTC2* endógena en *N. benthamiana*, que también contiene el uORF (Laing et al., 2015), podría explicar el marcado aumento de ascorbato después de la sobreexpresión de *VTC2* sin el uORF.

Además, construimos un modelo cinético basado en las propiedades conocidas de las enzimas de la ruta que incluye la represión de GGP por ascorbato. Este modelo se usó para el análisis de control metabólico, un enfoque que determina la distribución del control del flujo y la concentración de intermedios de la ruta en respuesta a pequeños cambios en la actividad de cada enzima en la ruta calculando el control del flujo y los coeficientes de control de concentración para cada paso (Cayó, 1992). Este análisis mostró que el único paso en la ruta de biosíntesis que controla el flujo de la ruta y el tamaño del grupo de ascorbato es GGP (*VTC2*) siempre que se incluya la represión por retroalimentación. Las predicciones del modelo son consistentes con los resultados de la expresión transitoria que se muestran en esta tesis doctoral y con el efecto relativamente pequeño de sobre expresar enzimas distintas a *VTC2*.

Es importante destacar que el modelo muestra que la concentración de ascorbato responde a GGP (*VTC2*) en un amplio rango y, por lo tanto, explica cómo una combinación de transcripción y represión de retroalimentación controla la cantidad/actividad de GGP (*VTC2*) y proporciona un mecanismo para ajustar el nivel de ascorbato a las condiciones ambientales de crecimiento. La luz es el factor mejor estudiado y el ascorbato se ajusta a la intensidad de luz predominante durante varios días (Page et al., 2012; Capítulo 2).

Además de investigar el efecto de la sobreexpresión enzimática sobre la acumulación de ascorbato, utilizamos enzimas etiquetadas con GFP para investigar la localización subcelular y la formación de complejos enzimáticos. Con la excepción de GLDH, la localización citosólica de las enzimas de la ruta de Smirnoff-Wheeler es consistente con la predicción *in silico*. Curiosamente, además de *VTC1* y *VTC2* que previamente se encontraron en el núcleo (Wang et al., 2013; Müller-Moulé et al., 2008), *VTC4* y L-GalDH también mostraron localización nuclear a pesar de que carecen de señales de localización nuclear. Aún no se ha determinado si esta localización nuclear es funcionalmente importante o no, pero no es la primera vez que se detectan enzimas metabólicas en el núcleo (Boukouris et al., 2016).

Usando CoIP en *N. benthamiana*, hemos demostrado que, no solo las enzimas que catalizan pasos consecutivos en la ruta se asocian, sino que, además, dos proteínas que catalizan pasos enzimáticos distantes como son *VTC1* y L-GalDH también se asocian. Sin embargo, no se encontraron interacciones directas utilizando el análisis de dos híbridos de levadura. La falta de interacción directa y las asociaciones positivas *in vivo* pueden indicar que las enzimas se unen a proteínas andamio que hacen que la interacción no se detecte



en levaduras, o bien, que la interacción por pares depende de la presencia de otras enzimas de la ruta. Aunque esto merece más investigación, es tentador especular que algunas de las enzimas de biosíntesis de ascorbato podrían formar un complejo enzimático funcional (metabolón) que, potencialmente, podría canalizar intermediarios de la ruta aumentando así el flujo y, quizás, ayudar a determinar si GDP-D-manosa y GDP-L- galactosa participan en la síntesis de ascorbato o en la de pared celular y glicoproteínas, como ocurre en otras rutas (Zhang et al., 2017; Sweetlove & Fernie, 2018; Smirnov, 2019; Amorim-Silva et al., 2019).

En conclusión, los experimentos de ingeniería metabólica que usan las últimas seis enzimas de la ruta SW muestran que solo VTC2 (GGP) tiene un control significativo sobre la ruta. Está claro que el equilibrio de la cantidad de VTC2 está controlado por una combinación de transcripción y represión de la traducción en gran parte, pero no totalmente, mediada por el mecanismo uORF. Además, hemos producido un conjunto de mutantes complementados desde GME hasta L-GalDH etiquetados con GFP que proporcionan un recurso muy valioso para investigaciones posteriores sobre la ruta de Smirnov-Wheeler.

¿Qué encontramos en el Capítulo 2 de esta tesis doctoral?

Entre las numerosas funciones que el ascorbato ejerce en las plantas, se propuso que el ascorbato participa en el crecimiento y la fotoprotección (Smirnov et al., 2000), aunque experimentos recientes con el mutante deficiente en ascorbato *vtc2-1* sugieren que el ascorbato es esencial para el crecimiento, pero no es tan claro su papel fotoprotector (Plumb et al., 2018). Sin embargo, hay evidencias experimentales que respaldan lo contrario. Por ejemplo, el deshidroascorbato (DHA), la forma oxidada del ascorbato, es aceptor de electrones de la ferredoxina, el último componente de la cadena fotosintética de transporte de electrones en los cloroplastos (Asada, 1999), lo cual evita así la formación de O_2^- . Además, el ascorbato puede actuar como un donante de electrones del fotosistema II (Tóth et al., 2013) evitando que el grupo de manganeso resulte dañado en circunstancias tales como el estrés inducido por alta irradiancia (Tyystjärvi, 2008). Por lo tanto, estos datos si otorgan al ascorbato un papel esencial en la respuesta al estrés oxidativo debido a la intensidad lumínica. En el capítulo anterior hemos demostrado que solo la sobreexpresión de VTC2 aumenta el flujo biosintético de la ruta y que su concentración de proteínas se regula en consecuencia. Más recientemente, se ha publicado que la acumulación de ascorbato bajo un alto estrés lumínico no solo requiere una mayor tasa de biosíntesis, sino también mecanismos para prevenir una degradación masiva del ascorbato, que se basa en reductasas de DHA y glutatión (Terai et al., 2020). Por lo tanto, el aumento de la reserva de ascorbato en condiciones ambientales adversas depende tanto de su biosíntesis como de



la reducción de deshidroascorbato a ascorbato. Asimismo, la tasa de biosíntesis dependerá tanto de la traducción de VTC2 como de su degradación (VTC2). Está bien establecido que VTC2 está regulado traduccionalmente (Laing et al., 2015), pero se sabe muy poco sobre su degradación. VTC1, la enzima que cataliza la conversión de D-manosa 1-fosfato en GDP-D-manosa actuando aguas arriba VTC2, a pesar de que un aumento en su contenido de proteína no conduce a la acumulación de ascorbato (Capítulo 1), está finamente regulada. Wang y sus colaboradores (2013) demostraron que el factor fotomorfogénico COP9 subunidad 5B (CSN5B), que forma parte del complejo CSN que regula la actividad de ubiquitina ligasa cullin-RING E3 (Schwechheimer e Isono, 2010), es requerido para la degradación de VTC1 a través de la ruta del proteasoma 26S en oscuridad. Así, la biosíntesis de ascorbato se reprime durante la noche, es decir, cuando no hay fotosíntesis. La alta intensidad de la luz conduce al estrés oxidativo causado por ROS producido como consecuencia de la reacción de Mehler durante la fotosíntesis. Este estrés oxidativo se reduce por el ascorbato en el ciclo Foyer-Asada (Asada, 1999).

En este capítulo hemos investigado la respuesta a la luz de todas las líneas transgénicas mutantes transformadas con su respectiva enzima fusionada a GFP utilizando diferentes enfoques. El tratamiento con luz alta de las líneas transgénicas, que causó un aumento en el contenido de ascorbato, condujo paradójicamente a una disminución del contenido de VTC2, VTC4 y L-GalDH, que son pasos enzimáticos de la vía SW dedicados a la biosíntesis de ascorbato. Por el contrario, GME, cuyo producto también participa en los polímeros de la pared celular y la biosíntesis de glicoproteínas, no cambió su concentración. La proporción de aumento de ascorbato debido a una mayor intensidad de luz fue similar (~2 veces) entre líneas, excepto en aquellas que contienen contenidos más bajos de ascorbato que WT (es decir, *gme/GME-GFP* y *vtc2*), que exhibieron un aumento más pronunciado de ascorbato en luz alta (~3,5 y 5 veces, respectivamente). Esto sugiere que otros mecanismos diferentes de la biosíntesis, como el reciclaje o la reducción de la degradación del ascorbato, están contribuyendo a compensar la deficiencia de ascorbato.

VTC2 mostró un patrón consistente de acumulación de proteínas durante el período de luz seguido de una fuerte disminución inmediatamente después de ingresar al período oscuro (dentro de 30 min), que no se correlacionan con el contenido de ascorbato. Sin embargo, el ascorbato total mostró una mejor correlación con la cantidad de proteína VTC2, lo que sugiere que el ascorbato biosintetizado se oxida rápidamente, manteniendo así un nivel estable de ascorbato, pero aumentando el de ascorbato total. Por tanto, la luz y los ciclos día/noche tienen un impacto en la concentración de las enzimas de biosíntesis de ascorbato, probablemente porque bajo una baja intensidad de luz la cantidad de ascorbato necesaria para eliminar las ROS es menor que bajo una alta irradiación. Así, es posible que la reducción de la biosíntesis de ascorbato en la oscuridad sea el resultado de la reducción de la actividad de VTC2. Aunque esto podría deberse a modificaciones postraduccionales de la proteína a través de la



fosforilación, nuestros datos respaldan que la regulación proteasomal de VTC2 es un importante punto de control. Además de la posibilidad de que la actividad del complejo CSN esté afectando a la estabilidad de VTC2, al igual que ocurre con VTC1, es posible que, de manera similar a la expresión de ARNm, la estabilidad de VTC2 podría estar también regulada por el reloj circadiano. Un cribado previo doble híbrido en levaduras identificó una proteína PAS/LOV como interactor tanto de VTC2 como de VTC5, cuya interacción disminuyó bajo la luz azul (Ogura et al., 2007). ZEITLUPE (ZTL), un regulador de proteínas del oscilador circadiano (Mas et al., 2003), también contiene un dominio LOV que contiene fotorreceptor de luz azul. Su interacción con TOC1, otro regulador circadiano, desencadena la degradación de TOC1 en la oscuridad, que puede ser estabilizada por un inhibidor de proteasoma (Mas et al., 2003). Por lo tanto, es posible que ZTL esté promoviendo la degradación de VTC2 en la oscuridad, aumentando así el control del reloj circadiano sobre la concentración de ascorbato.

Para concluir, en este capítulo hemos caracterizado la respuesta de la ruta de biosíntesis de ascorbato y el nivel de proteína y la evolución de VTC2, el regulador principal de la ruta en respuesta a condiciones de alta luz y durante el ciclo día / noche. Aquí, hemos demostrado que una alta irradiación conduce a una concentración reducida de enzimas de biosíntesis de ascorbato (Figura 20) y que la acumulación de VTC2 no se correlaciona necesariamente con un mayor contenido de ascorbato (Figura 19E). Además, hemos demostrado que el proteasoma es un determinante importante de la estabilidad de la proteína VTC2 cuya interacción potencialmente abre un nuevo enfoque en la ingeniería de la estabilidad de VTC2 para aumentar el ascorbato en las plantas de cultivo. Esto podría conducir a una mayor tolerancia a una serie de tensiones abióticas (Akram et al., 2017) como la salinidad (Huang et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013) y el estrés oxidativo en los cultivos de interés (Cai et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2016) (Fenech et al., 2019). Otro aspecto positivo en la identificación del mecanismo regulador de la acumulación de ascorbato es un mejor valor nutricional, una mayor conservación de las propiedades nutricionales después de la cosecha y una mayor vida útil de la fruta (Stevens et al., 2007; Antunes et al., 2013).







INTRODUCTION



This introduction has been published as a Review Article in the journal “Frontiers in Plant Science” in which this PhD candidate is the first author and it is attached at the end of this thesis in the section “Publication”:

Fenech M, Amaya I, Valpuesta V and Botella MA (2019). **Vitamin C Content in Fruits: Biosynthesis and Regulation**. *Front. Plant Sci.* 9:2006. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2018.02006

The introduction presented here corresponds to the cited paper and it has been modified for coherence along the manuscript, but no essential information has been changed.

Multiple roles of vitamin C in humans

L-Ascorbic Acid (L-threo-hex-2-enono-1,4-lactone, ascorbate), also called vitamin C, is an essential antioxidant molecule in plant and animal metabolism and also functioning as a cofactor in many enzymes. While many animals are able to synthesize ascorbate in the liver or in the kidney, others, such as humans, non-human primates, guinea pigs, and certain groups of bats and birds have lost this ability due to the accumulation of mutations in the coding sequence of the last committed enzyme of the pathway (L-gulono-1,4-lactone oxidase, GULO; Chatterjee, 1973; Drouin et al., 2011; Nishikimi et al., 1994). Dietary changes with the inclusion of abundant fruits and vegetables in the diet resulted in the loss of selective pressure to keep the pathway functional (Macknight et al., 2017). Thus, this molecule must be incorporated in the diet (hence classified as a vitamin), with vegetables and fruits as the major sources of ascorbate.

The role of ascorbate in mammals has extensively been studied throughout time, particularly since the 18th century with the discovery of its role in preventing scurvy (Baron, 2009; Lind, 1753). However, this was not obvious at the time because the lack of ascorbate in the diet takes about a month before the symptoms to occur. Thus, this disease was typically manifested during long sea travels with a diet scarce in fresh vegetables and fruits. In the early 1930's, Albert Szent-Györgyi identified and isolated the molecule responsible for this anti-scurvy activity. Thus, that molecule, previously called hexuronic acid, was renamed as ascorbic acid. One of the main symptoms in scurvy is skin impairment and injuries due to the involvement of ascorbate in the biosynthesis and stability of collagen. Ascorbate functions as a cofactor in the enzymatic hydroxylation catalysed by Fe²⁺/αKG-dependent dioxygenases prolyl 4-hydroxylase, prolyl 3-hydroxylase and lysyl hydroxylase (Myllylä et al., 1984; Padayatty and Levine, 2016; Pekkala et al., 2003; Peterkofsky, 1991) through the reduction of Fe³⁺ to the active Fe²⁺ (de Jong et al., 1982; Gorres and Raines, 2010). Prolyl hydroxylation is an essential post-translational modification that occurs in proline residues located at X and Y sites of procollagen Gly-X-Y tandem repeats during collagen biosynthesis. Whereas Prolyl 4-hydroxylases catalyse hydroxylation on Y locations, Prolyl 3-hydroxylases hydroxylate residues located at X sites, thus enabling the trimerization of collagen providing high thermal stability (Koide and Nagata, 2005). The hydroxylation catalysed by these



enzymes requires an Fe^{2+} ion located at the active centre, which is oxidized to Fe^{3+} in the catalytic cycle and ascorbate is responsible of keeping the iron active by reducing it back to Fe^{2+} .

In addition to preventing scurvy, ascorbate is involved in many other processes which also require the action of other members of this family of mono- and dioxygenases. For these enzymes, ascorbate functions as a cofactor, maintaining activity of the metal ions located in the active centres. For example, ascorbate is important for the synthesis of carnitine, the lack of which is related to the common fatigue found in scorbutic patients. Trimethyllysine hydroxylase and γ -butyrobetaine hydroxylase require ascorbate to enhance their activity in the biosynthesis of carnitine (Rebouche, 1991). In addition, ascorbate is also known to act as a cofactor of dopamine β -monooxygenase (Rush and Geffen, 1980), and in peptide hormone metabolism, by acting as a cofactor of peptidylglycine α -amidating monooxygenase, involved in the C-terminal amidation of these regulatory molecules (Prigge et al., 1999). More recently, the activity of other key $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\alpha\text{KG}$ -dependent dioxygenases have been showed to be enhanced by ascorbate, as is the case of Ten-Eleven Translocations (TETs) enzymes. TETs are involved in DNA demethylation through an oxidation cascade from 5-methylcytosine to 5-hydroxymethylcytosine, 5-formylcytosine, 5-carboxylcytosine and, then, to cytosine by the Base Excision Repair (BER) mechanism (Blaschke et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2015; Minor et al., 2013). Importantly, ascorbate functions as a cofactor of histone demethylases harbouring a Jumonji C (JmjC) domain (JHDMs), the same catalytic domain present in TETs (Young et al., 2015). Tri-, di- and monomethylated lysines in histones can be oxidized to hydroxymethyl lysines by JHDM and ascorbate in a similar way as occurring with DNA demethylation and TETs, with an spontaneous removal of this hydroxymethyl group (Young et al., 2015). All together, these findings show that ascorbate participates in the response to environmental stimuli, not only by buffering the cell redox state, but also by its involvement in the epigenetic control on gene expression. In addition, ascorbate enhances iron absorption (Hallberg et al., 1989, 1987), which is not only important to keep the $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\alpha\text{KG}$ -dependent dioxygenases active, but also for many other roles (Lieu et al., 2001; Muckenthaler et al., 2008).

Major fruit supplies of ascorbate in humans

Fresh fruits and vegetables are the major sources of this vitamin, therefore increasing its concentration will have an important impact in human nutrition. Ascorbate deficiency in developed countries has registered a decrease throughout time. At the end of last century, ascorbate deficiency in USA was around 13% of the population (Hampl et al., 2004), but it dropped to 7% in the last survey effectuated during 2003-2004 period (Schleicher et al., 2009). According to early experiments, a daily dose of less than 10 mg was found to



prevent scurvy (Baker et al., 1969, 1971, Hodges et al., 1969, 1971; Johnstone et al., 1946; Peters et al., 1953). However, an Average Requirement (AR) of 90 mg/day for men and 80 mg/day for women, and a Population Reference Intake (PRI) of 110 mg/day for men and 95 mg/day for women, has been established by the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA Panel on Dietetic Products and Nutrition Allergies, 2013). This is based on maintaining a plasma concentration around 50 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ of ascorbate, indicative of an adequate status (Kallner et al., 1979). In USA and Canada, the Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA) is 90 mg/day for men and 75 mg/day for women (Food and Nutrition Board, 2000).

It is accepted that a diet rich in ascorbate has various health advantages (Carr and Maggini, 2017; Reczek and Chandel, 2015; van Gorkom et al., 2018; Wintergerst et al., 2006). Furthermore, in the last few years, ascorbate has been proposed as a treatment against different types of cancer through various mechanisms, such as increasing TET's activity, inducing oxidative stress in cancer cells or enhancing the activity of various chemical treatments (Agathocleous et al., 2017; Cimmino et al., 2017; Ko et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2018; Miura et al., 2018; Shenoy et al., 2017; Yun et al., 2015). Daily intake of ascorbate provided by fruits is dependent on several factors, but clearly the content of ascorbate as well as the amount that is consumed are the most important factors. However, it is important to take into account the way it is consumed as this might have important consequences on ascorbate reduction and oxidation, and can also alter the bioavailability of ascorbate due to interactions with other phytochemicals such as Vitamin E or flavonoids (Carr and Vissers, 2013; Packer et al., 1979; Tanaka et al., 1997).

Ascorbate overall intake is dependent on the intrinsic amount of ascorbate of a specific fruit and its consumption (Figure 1B). According to FAOSTAT¹, tomato has been the most produced fruit in the world in the last twenty years, a trend that has increased during the last years (Figure 1A). The production has been 177 million tonnes in 2016, followed by banana (~113 million tonnes), apple (~89 million tons), cucumber (~80 million tons) and grape (~77 million tonnes). In the European Union in 2016, fruit production was dominated by grape (~24 million tonnes), followed by tomato (~18 million tonnes), apple (~12,5 million tonnes) and orange (~6,3 million tonnes) (Eurostat, 2017). However, a large proportion of tomato (61,5%), apple (26,8%) and grape (96,5%) is processed (Eurostat, 2017), leading both to a reduction of ascorbate content and a lower bioavailability of other nutrients that are ascorbate dependent (Hallberg et al., 1987, 1982). This is particularly evident in grape, with ~90 % of the harvest destined to wine production (Eurostat, 2017), leading to negligible amounts of ascorbate (USDA Food Composition Databases²). Therefore, considering production along with consumption data (Figure 1C), ascorbate intake through orange surpasses that of grape. Tomato and apple fruits, although important dietary sources of ascorbate. It is obvious that even a moderate increase in the content of ascorbate in these highly consumed fruits would rise their nutritional value. Therefore, the large consumption of tomato, its relatively low ascorbate and its high raw intake

makes it an excellent target for increasing its ascorbate content from a nutritional point of view (Figure 1).

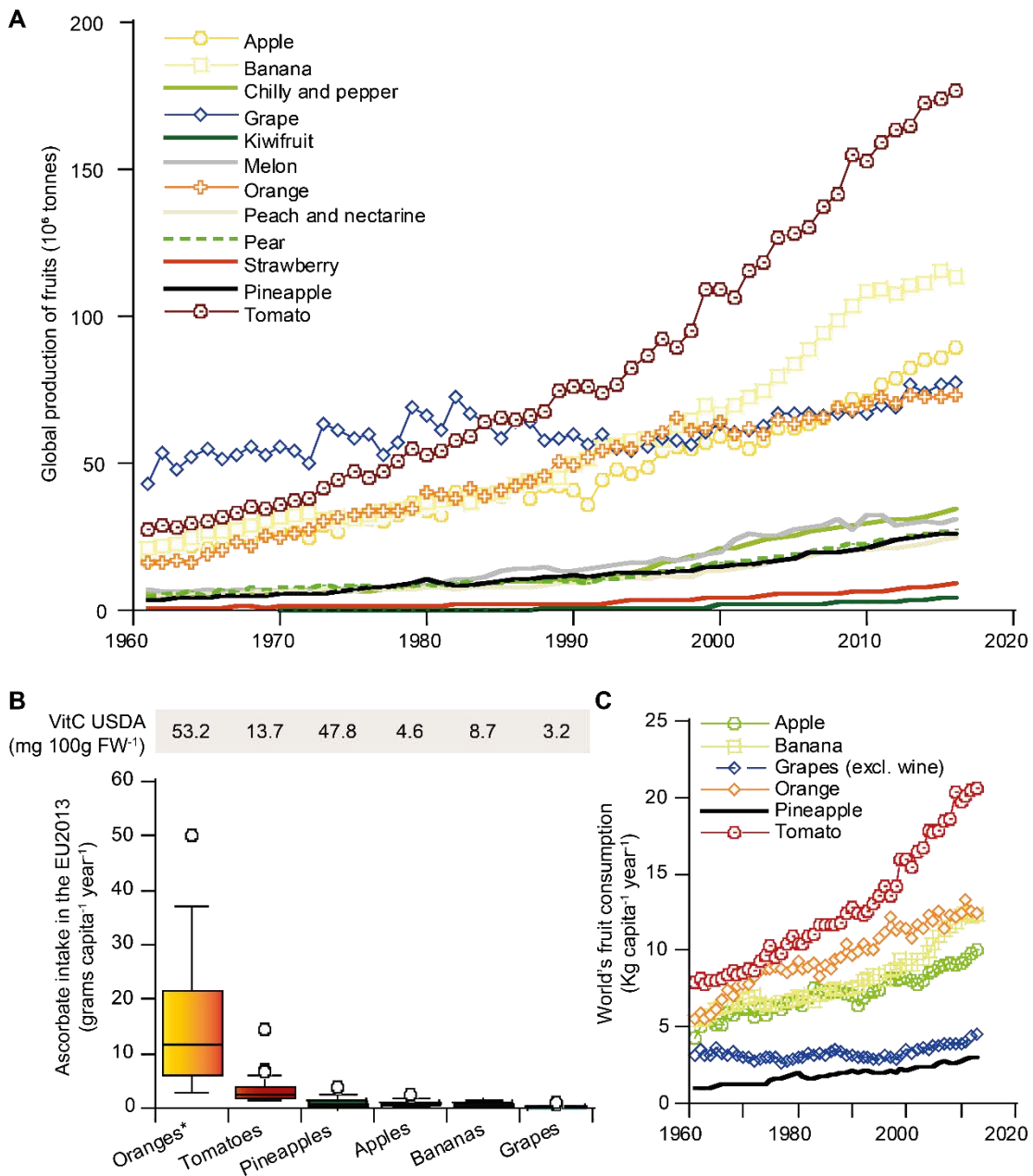


Figure 1. Main fruit crops yield and consumption according to FAO. (A) Global fruit production, in million tons, and its evolution from 1961 to 2016. (B) Fruit ascorbate intake, in grams of ascorbate capita⁻¹ year⁻¹, in the countries from the European Union in 2013. Data were generated considering ascorbate (VitC) levels of raw fruit available in USDA database (<https://ndb.nal.usda.gov/ndb/search/list>) and consumption data of each fruit (Kg capita⁻¹ year⁻¹) from FAOSTAT. USDA IDs consulted: 9200 (Oranges *includes mandarins, raw, all commercial varieties), 11529 (Tomatoes, red, ripe, raw, year average), 9003 (Apples, raw with skin), 9132 [Grapes, red or green (European type, such as Thompson seedless), raw], 9266 (Pineapple, raw, all varieties), 9040 (Bananas, raw). Consumption data was obtained from Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat>). (C) Evolution in the global consumption of fruits, in Kg capita⁻¹ year⁻¹, from 1961 to 2013.

The role of ascorbate in plants and fruits

Ascorbate plays a plethora of roles in plant cells. Important properties of ascorbate are its antioxidant capacity and the finalization of oxidative chain reactions resulting in non-oxidative products such as dehydroascorbate (DHA) and 2,3-diketogulonic acid (Davey et al., 2000). The importance of ascorbate in scavenging ROS became evident when several of the genes involved in the ascorbate biosynthetic pathway were identified in genetic screenings searching for mutants hypersensitive to ozone, a powerful oxidant (Conklin et al., 1996). This screening resulted in the identification of five vitamin C-deficient (*vtc*) mutants, with four of those mutations affecting genes encoding enzymes of the Smirnoff-Wheeler pathway: *VTC1* (Lukowitz et al., 2001), *VTC2* and *VTC5* (Dowdle et al., 2007; Linster et al., 2007) and *VTC4* (Conklin et al., 2006).

Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) plays essential roles in plants development and defence (Exposito-Rodriguez et al., 2017; Mittler, 2017; Mullineaux et al., 2018; Waszczak et al., 2018) and it can be found in different organelles within the plant cells (Exposito-rodriguez et al., 2013). However, H_2O_2 is also partly responsible for light-induced oxidative damage. Ascorbate is involved in the scavenging of the excess of H_2O_2 produced during the photosynthesis in high-irradiance conditions by the function of ascorbate peroxidases (APX), enzymes not present in animals (Wheeler et al., 2015).

Together with APX, catalases also perform H_2O_2 scavenging (Mhamdi et al., 2012, 2010). However, plants lack catalases in chloroplasts, which experience a high production of H_2O_2 in thylakoids due to photosynthesis, as a consequence of the Mehler reaction. In these organelles, a thylakoidal APX (tAPX) catalyses the reduction of H_2O_2 (Asada, 1999). Surprisingly, single and double mutants in chloroplastic APX (tAPX and stromal APX) are viable, suggesting alternative mechanisms for H_2O_2 detoxification (Giacomelli et al., 2007). 2-Cys peroxiredoxins (2-Cys PRX), localised in the chloroplast, reduce H_2O_2 and prevent oxidation of the thylakoidal membrane by reducing lipid hydroperoxide from thylakoid phospholipids (Baier and Dietz, 1997). Therefore, 2-Cys PRXs have been proposed as alternative H_2O_2 scavengers to APX in an alternative water-water cycle (Awad et al., 2015; Pérez-Ruiz et al., 2017) using glutathione, thioredoxin, glutaredoxin, cyclophilin, and/or tryparedoxin instead of ascorbate as cofactors (Stork et al., 2005). Together with APX and 2-Cys PRX, vitamin E (α -tocopherol) is a major lipophilic antioxidant also involved in preventing photodamage in the membrane of thylakoid lipids (Semchuk et al., 2009). Ascorbate also has a role in vitamin E function by the non-enzymatical reduction of α -tocopheryl radicals, hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) and superoxide ions (O_2^-) (Asada, 1999; Davey et al., 2000; Mittler, 2017).

The use of ascorbate as a cofactor by other enzymes, such as the Fe^{2+}/α -KG-dependent dioxygenases and Cu^+ -monooxygenases, is conserved among plants and animals. However, one of these common enzymes, a Fe^{2+} -dependent

4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase, has different functions in plants. Whereas in animals this enzyme is involved in tyrosine metabolism (Lindblad et al., 1970), in plants it is required for plastoquinone and tocopherols synthesis (Norris et al., 1998). Other light-responsive pigments that are very abundant in fruits, like anthocyanins, fail to accumulate in *vtc1* and *vtc2* mutant plants when exposed to high light. This finding, combined with the UV-B absorption by anthocyanin, suggests that ascorbate-mediated redox reactions act upstream of anthocyanin synthesis (Page et al., 2012).

Ascorbate was proposed to directly participate in photosynthesis as an electron carrier, although later a role as a photoprotectant was revealed (Smirnoff, 2000). The electron transfer from ascorbate to the primary oxidising agent of photolysis was first coupled to the photophosphorylation reaction (Marrè et al., 1959). Then, the reduction of monodehydroascorbate (MDA) and DHA were suggested to rely on reductants formed in photosystem I (PSI). It is now established that inside the thylakoid, luminal ascorbate acts as an electron donor of photosystem II (PSII) (Tóth et al., 2013) where the Oxygen-Evolving Complex is impaired (Kato and San Pietro, 1967; Mano et al., 1997; Tóth et al., 2009), thus allowing the reduction of NADP⁺ to NADPH by the electron-transport chain (Tóth et al., 2013, 2009). This is particularly important during abiotic stresses such as heat and high light that alter this complex by damaging the manganese cluster (Tyystjärvi, 2008). In addition, ascorbate can also dissipate energy from an excess of light irradiance acting as a cofactor of violaxanthin de-epoxidase, an enzyme involved in preventing photodamage by non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) (Yamamoto et al., 1972). When the irradiance is too high, the excess of energy normally transferred to chlorophyll *a* is used to de-epoxidize the carotenoid violaxanthin into zeaxanthin using the thylakoid luminal ascorbate as a cofactor in the xanthophyll cycle (Hieber et al., 2000). This has been supported experimentally by mutations in the enzyme's residues that bind ascorbate (Saga et al., 2010) and by the analysis of Arabidopsis mutants with low ascorbate content (Müller-Moulé et al., 2002).

Biosynthesis and Metabolism of ascorbate in plants

The predominant pathway through which ascorbate is synthesized in plants is the Smirnoff-Wheeler (SW) pathway (Wheeler et al., 1998). Contrary to the animal pathway, in the plant pathway there is no carbon inversion, as the carbon 1 in the D-glucose molecule remains as carbon 1 in ascorbate after conversion. In this pathway, a molecule of D-glucose-6-phosphate is transformed into D-fructose-6-phosphate by the action of phosphoglucose isomerase (PGI; Figure 2). Then, it is transformed into D-mannose-6-phosphate and D-mannose-1-phosphate by the action of phosphomannose isomerase (PMI; Maruta et al., 2008) and phosphomannomutase (PMM; Qian et al., 2007). Then, GDP-D-



mannose pyrophosphorylase (GMP, encoded by *VTC1* in *Arabidopsis thaliana*) transfers guanosine monophosphate from GTP to form GDP-D-mannose (Conklin et al., 1999, 1997, 1996; Lukowitz et al., 2001). GDP-D-mannose is further transformed into GDP-L-galactose by the GDP-D-mannose-3',5'-epimerase (GME), an enzyme that belongs to the extended short chain dehydratase/reductase (SDR) protein family, harbouring a modified NAD⁺ binding Rossmann fold domain. Interestingly, GDP-L-galactose is not the only result of GME activity, since GDP-L-gulose can also be produced if GME catalyses a 5' epimerization instead of a 3',5' epimerization (Major et al., 2005; Wolucka et al., 2001; Wolucka and Van Montagu, 2003). Since GDP-L-gulose is a very rare sugar in plants with no structural function, it has been suggested that it is directly channelled to synthesize ascorbate. After GME releases GDP-L-galactose, this compound is then transformed into L-galactose-1-phosphate, L-galactose and L-galactono-1,4-lactone by GDP-L-galactose-phosphorylase (GGP, encoded by *VTC2* and *VTC5* in *A. thaliana*; Dowdle et al., 2007; Laing et al., 2007), L-galactose-1-phosphate phosphatase (GPP, encoded by *VTC4* in *A. thaliana*; Conklin et al., 2006; Laing et al., 2004; Nourbakhsh et al., 2015; Torabinejad et al., 2009) and L-galactose dehydrogenase (L-GalDH; Gatzek et al., 2002; Laing et al., 2004b), respectively. Interestingly, for the final production of L-ascorbic acid, L-galactono-1,4-lactone must move from the cytosol to the intermembrane space of the mitochondria, where the active site of L-galactono-1,4-lactone dehydrogenase (GLDH) is located (Imai et al., 1998; Mapson and Breslow, 1958; Pineau et al., 2008; Schertl et al., 2012; Schimmeyer et al., 2016). The fact that the oxidation of L-galactono-1,4-lactone is carried out in plants by a dehydrogenase instead of an oxidase (GULO) as occurs in animals, is not trivial. Contrary to paradoxical GULO activity, GLDH does not release H₂O₂ and therefore the production of ascorbate in plants does not have side effects over the redox state of the cell (Wheeler et al., 2015). Although some data support the existence of a side branch of the pathway that converges with that of animals (Jain and Nessler, 2000; Maruta et al., 2010; Radzio et al., 2003), there is strong evidence that most of the ascorbate in plants is produced through GLDH (Pineau et al., 2008). A recent phylogenetic study on the origin of GLDH identified an ancient paralog arisen from the original GULO, followed by a loss of paralogs (Wheeler et al., 2015). Thus, in species with the SW pathway, GULO has been functionally replaced by GLDH following chloroplast acquisition in photosynthetic organisms, since the presence of both proteins seems mutually exclusive (Wheeler et al., 2015). Interestingly, L-gulose, a previously mentioned rare sugar in plants and also a product of GME activity, is proposed to be transformed into L-gulono-1,4-lactone by as yet unidentified enzymes (Wolucka and Van Montagu, 2003). Supporting the presence of GULO activity in plants are (1) external supplementation of L-gulono-1,4-lactone in the growth media increased ascorbate levels in WT tobacco leaves (Jain and Nessler, 2000) and (2) the synthesis rate of ascorbate can increase up to 15% when L-gulono-1,4-lactone is externally supplied in *Arabidopsis* cell culture (Davey et al., 1999). One possibility



is that GLDH also uses L-gulono-1,4-lactone as substrate. However, this seems unlikely since GLDH is highly specific for L-galactono-1,4-lactone (Mapson and Breslow, 1958; Oba et al., 1995; Østergaard et al., 1997; Rodríguez-Ruiz et al., 2017). Transgenic tobacco BY2 cells overexpressing several Arabidopsis homologs of GULO from rat resulted in increased ascorbate content in lines overexpressing GULO2, GULO3 and GULO5 but only after external application of L-gulono-1,4-lactone (Maruta et al., 2010). However, GULO has lower substrate specificity than GLDH and can catalyse the oxidation of other aldono-lactones, including L-galactono-1,4-lactone (Davey et al., 2000). Interestingly, the overexpression of rat liver GULO increased ascorbate levels in tobacco leaves (Jain and Nessler, 2000) as well as in Arabidopsis leaves, and rescued the Arabidopsis *vtc1* mutant ascorbate levels to WT (Radzio et al., 2003).

Alternative ascorbate biosynthesis pathways have been proposed in plants. One is through myo-inositol, following a pathway similar to animals, since the oxidation of myo-inositol oxidation produces D-glucuronate by a *MYO-INOSITOL OXYGENASE (MIOX)*. Arabidopsis plants overexpressing *MIOX4* showed a 2-3-fold ascorbate content (Lorence et al., 2004). However, based on early radiotracer experiments (Loewus, 1963) and more recent reports (Endres and Tenhaken, 2011, 2009; Ivanov Kavkova et al., 2018), its contribution to the ascorbate pool remains unclear. The second is through the D-galacturonate pathway. In this pathway, a D-galacturonate reductase (GalUR) uses D-galacturonate, to produce L-galactonic acid that is converted to L-galactono-1,4-lactone, the last intermediate within the SW pathway (Mapson and Isherwood, 1956; Shigeoka et al., 1979).

In addition to its biosynthesis, the ascorbate pool also depends on its recycling by the Foyer-Halliwell-Asada cycle (Asada, 1999; Foyer and Halliwell, 1976) and degradation (Green and Fry, 2005; Loewus, 1999). Although the biochemistry of biosynthesis and recycling of ascorbate is well established, its degradation is not clear and might not follow a single pathway. In the apoplast, it can be degraded through the conversion of ascorbate to 2-keto-L-gulonic acid that leads to L-tartaric acid formation in cytoplasm, a compound important for fruit quality particularly in the *Vitaceae* family (DeBolt et al., 2006). Ascorbate can also be degraded through the direct oxidation of DHA or through the oxidation of 4-O-oxalyl-L-threonic acid, leading to the production of both oxalic acid and L-threonic acid (Green and Fry, 2005). Additionally, it can also be degraded through the hydrolysis of DHA to 2,3-diketo-gulonic acid, and to oxalic acid and its esters, or to L-threonic acid under strong oxidative conditions (Parsons et al., 2011). In tomato, the main degradation products are oxalic acid, threonic acid and oxalyl threonic acid, but no tartaric acid has been detected (Truffault et al., 2017), suggesting that ascorbate degradation occurs mainly through DHA oxidation rather than DHA hydrolysis, a pathway previously proposed in *Rosa sp.* cell cultures (Green and Fry, 2005). A broad perspective of ascorbate breakdown pathways in different species is provided by DeBolt and collaborators (2007).

Biosynthesis and Metabolism of ascorbate in fruits

Mutant analyses indicate that the SW pathway is the predominant if not the only pathway involved in ascorbate biosynthesis in green tissues (Dowdle et al., 2007; B. Lim et al., 2016). In heterotrophic tissues like fruits, the SW pathway is functional, as showed in several species including acerola, kiwi, strawberry, peach, tomato and apple (Badejo et al., 2012, 2009; Bulley et al., 2009; Cruz-Rus et al., 2010; Imai et al., 2009; Ioannidi et al., 2009; Mellidou et al., 2012a, 2012b). However, depending on the fruit ripening stage, alternative pathways might become relevant, especially the D-galacturonate pathway (Mapson and Isherwood, 1956; Shigeoka et al., 1979), for which the degradation of cell wall pectin can provide abundant substrate (Agius et al., 2003; Badejo et al., 2012; Cruz-Rus et al., 2010; Di Matteo et al., 2010). Analyses of tomato introgression lines from a cross between *Solanum lycopersicum* cv. M82 and *S. pennellii* was used to find genetic elements associated with high ascorbate content in fruits. This was done through the identification of genes induced in the IL12-4 line, which contains 19.9 mg ascorbate/g FW, relative to *S. lycopersicum* cv. M82, which contains 12.2 mg ascorbate/g FW (Di Matteo et al., 2010). Interestingly, while genes of the SW pathway were not differentially expressed, a pectinesterase gene (TC177576) involved in breakdown of pectins was 4.4-fold more expressed in the IL12-4 line than in the parental M82. This result suggests that an additional supply of D-galacturonate due to cell wall degradation might be the cause of the ascorbate increase in this line. In addition, an ascorbate peroxidase (TC172881) was down-regulated in fruits of IL12-4 compared to M82 parental line, which may cause a higher ascorbate accumulation due to a lower degradation (Di Matteo et al., 2010). While the D-galacturonate pathway is more active as the fruit ripens, the SW pathway and ascorbate translocation from the leaves provide the bulk of ascorbate in fruits at immature green stage. The fact that the photosynthesis inhibitor DCMU diminished the pool of ascorbate only at green stage (Badejo et al., 2012) not only supports this, but also reinforces the tight relationship between the SW pathway and photosynthesis.

Considering the variety of functions that ascorbate exerts in plant cells and its tight regulation in green tissues, it is remarkable how variable the content of ascorbate can be among the fruits of different species (Davey et al., 2000) or even between varieties or cultivars from the same species (Cruz-Rus et al., 2011; Mellidou et al., 2012b). An obvious question is: what is the functional significance of this high variability in fruit ascorbate content? Fruit crops have different environmental requirements to optimize yield and, in addition, the pool of ascorbate is affected by abiotic factors such as light or temperature (Gautier et al., 2008; Suzuki et al., 2014; Zechmann et al., 2011), due to its role in the antioxidant cellular system (Jimenez et al., 2002; Massot et al., 2013). Therefore, small differences within species can depend on their cultivation requirements,



harvest time or post-harvest conditions (Akhatou and Fernández-Recamales, 2014; Davey et al., 2007; Kevers et al., 2011; Oms-Oliu et al., 2011). However, the observed large differences in ascorbate content in closely related species likely have other causes. For example, several fold differences in ascorbate can be found between wild and cultivated tomato. Whereas domesticated tomato cultivars contain roughly 15 mg/100g FW, wild varieties *Solanum pimpinelifolium* and *Solanum pennellii* contain around 40 mg/100g FW (Lima-Silva et al., 2012) and up to 70 mg/100g FW (Stevens et al., 2007), respectively. In fact, backcrosses with *Solanum peruvianum*, another wild species (Atherton and Rudich, 1986), have been shown to contain the highest amount of ascorbate in *Solanum* species, around 50 mg/100g FW (Top et al., 2014). These wild tomato species grow naturally in Peru and Mexico, in coastal areas and river valleys less than 1000 m above sea level with abundant rainfalls. These two countries lie within the tropics of Capricorn and Cancer, respectively, with high irradiance and warm temperatures that may have favoured the selection of individuals with high ascorbate content over time. Current evidence suggests that domestication of wild tomatoes by cross-breeding different species of *Solanum* started in these two countries (Esquinas-Alcazar, 1981) likely driven by the selection of higher fruit size and resistance to diseases like *Fusarium* wilt (Atherton and Rudich, 1986). However, the most important advances in tomato breeding have taken place during the last 200 years in Europe, mainly in France, Italy and England, with a strong participation of the United States since the early 1920s (Atherton and Rudich, 1986). It is likely that growing under more controlled and less harsh conditions has decreased the selective pressure to keep alleles conferring high ascorbate content, particularly because an apparent association between high ascorbate levels and low productivity has been reported in this species (Atherton and Rudich, 1986). However, in addition to the metabolic regulatory mechanisms that might explain these differences in ascorbate content, other factors such as water content must be considered. A known example is that of two tomato cultivars, Matador and Elin, subjected to salinity treatment. This increased their ascorbate content on fresh weight basis, but it was decreased on dry weight basis. In both cultivars, water and ascorbate content were reduced, but the loss of water was higher than that of ascorbate (Dumas et al., 2003). Fruit size and weight were directly related with water content, and they have been key traits selected during breeding programs, while this is not the case for ascorbate.

In most fruits, such as tomato, acidity decreases while sugar content increases during ripening (Gautier et al., 2008; Mellidou et al., 2012b). Major organic acids in tomato, contributing to fruit acidity, are malic and citric acids (Davies and Hobson, 1981). However, the change in ascorbate levels during fruit ripening is a trait dependent on the species. In tomato (Badejo et al., 2012; Dumas et al., 2003; Gautier et al., 2008; Ioannidi et al., 2009), grape (Cruz-Rus et al., 2010) and strawberry (Cruz-Rus et al., 2011), ascorbate content increases as the fruit ripens. This correlated with changes in the activity of enzymes affecting the redox state of the fruit during the breaker stage (Gautier et al., 2008;

Jimenez et al., 2002). Unlike tomato, grape and strawberry, kiwifruit showed a maximal ascorbate level at the immature green stage due to its high biosynthesis rate, it decreased as it ripened and then remained fairly stable until complete ripening (Li et al., 2010; J. Y. Zhang et al., 2018). In peach fruits, ascorbate content gradually decreased during ripening (Imai et al., 2009). In different studies, the pattern of ascorbate accumulation does not match the expression of a specific gene involved in ascorbate biosynthesis or recycling, and therefore there is no clear connection between the expression of biosynthetic genes and ascorbate content (Imai et al., 2009; Li et al., 2010; Lima-Silva et al., 2012). However, evidences gathered in these studies show that the overall size of the ascorbate pool correlated well with the oxidative status (i.e. activity of enzymes involved in redox state, H₂O₂ content) of the fruit, which is usually triggered at breaker stage (Gautier et al., 2008; Imai et al., 2009; Jimenez et al., 2002; Li et al., 2010).

Relationship between ascorbate and cell wall biosynthesis

A significant aspect of the ascorbate biosynthetic pathway is the intimate relationship shared with cell wall biosynthesis. Some of the early precursors of the SW pathway such GDP-D-mannose and GDP-L-galactose are among the non-cellulosic cell wall glycosyl residues forming pectins and hemicelluloses (Figure 3). For this reason, mutations or knock-downs in genes related to the early steps of the SW pathway lead to growth reduction or even arrest, due to impairment of cell wall formation during plant growth, including different stages of fruit development (Hoeberichts et al., 2008; Lukowitz et al., 2001; Mounet-Gilbert et al., 2016). Thus, knock-down mutants of the Arabidopsis *PMM* gene show between 20 and 50% of ascorbate levels relative to WT, altered protein N-glycosylation (specially a protein-disulphide isomerase post-translational modification, an abundant protein in the ER) and glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) anchoring of proteins, leading to cell death after heat stress (Hoeberichts et al., 2008). Supplementation with L-galactono-1,4-lactone (Hoeberichts et al., 2008) or ascorbate (Cho et al., 2016) in the media recovered ascorbate levels but the mutants remained hypersensitive to heat. A null mutation in the Arabidopsis *GMP* gene (*cyt1* mutant) results in embryo arrest due to defects in N-glycosylation of proteins and altered composition of the cell wall (Figure 3; Lukowitz et al., 2001). The product of GMP activity, GDP-D-mannose, is used in the glycosylation of proteins, ascorbate biosynthesis and as a precursor of cell wall carbohydrates (Conklin et al., 1999). GDP-D-mannose is converted to GDP-L-galactose by the action of GME, but can also be converted to GDP-L-fucose by the sequential function of GDP-D-mannose-4,6-dehydratase (MUR1/GMD1; Bonin et al., 1997, 2003) and GDP-4-keto-6-deoxy-mannose-3,5-epimerase/4-reductase (GER1/GER2; Bonin and Reiter, 2000; Nakayama et al., 2003; Figure



3). All these three compounds, GDP-D-mannose, GDP-L-galactose and GDP-L-fucose are precursors of hemicelluloses and pectins (RG-II) when converted to D-mannosyl, L-galactosyl and L-fucosyl residues (Conklin et al., 1999; Reiter and Vanzin, 2001).

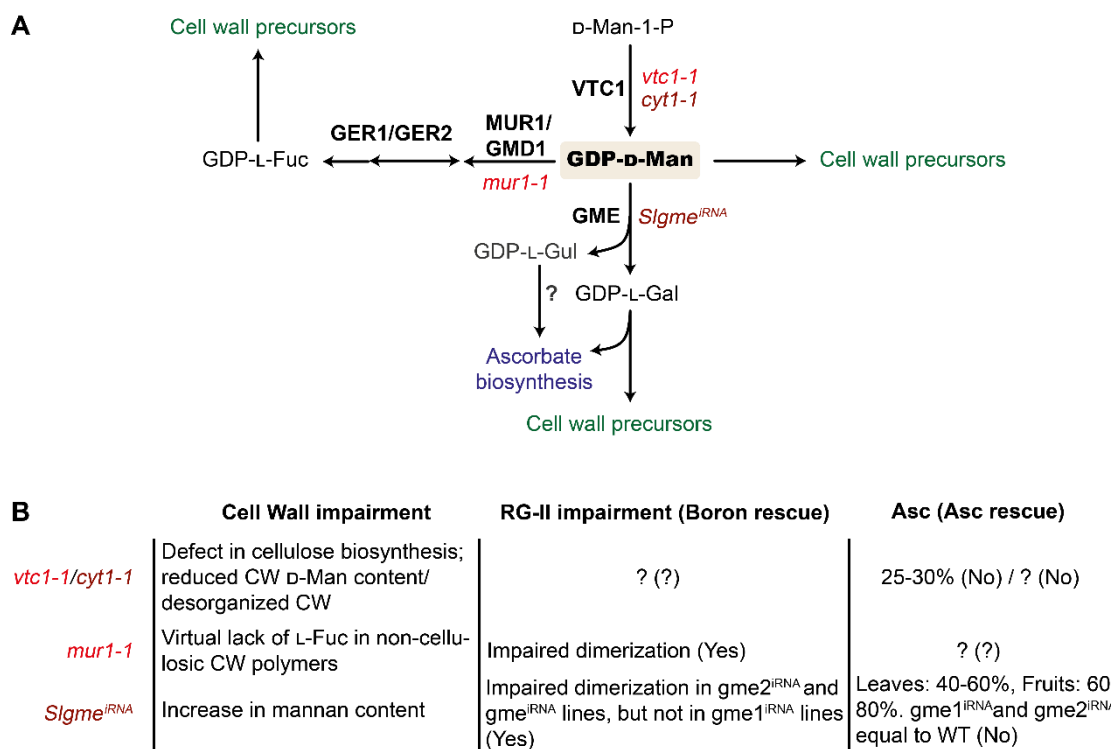


Figure 3. GDP-D-mannose and its biological relevance for ascorbate and cell wall biosynthesis in plants. A)

Reaction scheme for the novo synthesis of GDP-D-mannose in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Mutants described for each step are indicated in lower case italic red letters. B) Biological impairment over cell wall (RG-II=rhamnogalacturonate II) and ascorbate content in mutants of genes controlling the GDP-D-mannose pool. MUR1 and GMD1 encode two GDP-D-mannose-4,6-dehydratases. GER1 and GER2 encode two GDP-4-keto-6-deoxymannose-3,5-epimerase-4-reductases. The epimerase reaction is reversible whereas the reduction is not (Bonin et al., 1997). VTC1 encodes GMP, a GDP-D-mannose pyrophosphorylase, GME encodes a GDP-D-mannose-3',5'-isomerase. D-Man-1-P= D-mannose-1-phosphate, GDP-D-Man= GDP-D-mannose, GDP-L-Gul= GDP-D-gulose, GDP-D-Gal= GDP-D-galactose, GDP-D-Fuc= GDP-D-fucose, Asc= Ascorbate.

All the above evidences support the conclusion that a reduction in the production of GDP-D-mannose in the *cyt1* mutant is expected to have a significant impact on the structure of the cell wall. The importance of GDP-D-mannose in cell wall structure was further supported by the identification of the *mur1* mutant (Bonin et al., 1997). Mutations in *MUR1* produce a dwarf phenotype, mainly caused by a reduced content in fucose, since the supply of exogenous L-fucose reverted the dwarf phenotype (O'Neill et al., 2001). Interestingly, L-fucosyl residues in *mur1* cell wall xyloglucans are replaced by L-galactosyl residues (Bonin et al., 1997; Reiter et al., 1993; Zablackis et al., 1996). One possibility is that this substitution is the direct cause the dwarf phenotype of *mur1*. However, this does not seem to be the case since the *Arabidopsis mur2* mutant, affected in a xyloglucan-specific fucosyltransferase (*AtFUT1*), grows indistinguishably from

WT despite having around 1% of the L-fucose content of the WT (Perrin et al., 1999; Vanzin et al., 2002). Moreover, the xyloglucans of jojoba seeds naturally contain L-galactosyl residues, and not fucosyl residues (Hantus et al., 1997; Pauly and Keegstra, 2016), suggesting that xyloglucan substitution of L-fucose by L-galactose residues is not the cause of growth impairment in *mur1*. In addition to this replacement of fucosyl by L-galactosyl residues in xyloglucan, the *mur1* mutant also has the same substitution in their RG-II fraction of pectins. In the RG-II structure, cross-linking mediated by boron is essential for a proper dimerization (O'Neill et al., 2001). Therefore, an alternative possibility was that changes in monosaccharide composition in the pectic RG-II *mur1* can impair this dimerization, which in turn would lead to dwarfism. In fact, the impaired dimerization in RG-II seems to be the cause of this dwarf phenotype because exogenous application of boron restored the wild type phenotype (O'Neill et al., 2001). This is consistent with the finding that *mur2* mutants are neither affected in RG-II cross-linking nor L-fucose content (O'Neill et al., 2001). Furthermore, *Arabidopsis cgl* mutants, lacking the N-acetyl glucosaminyl transferase I in their Golgi apparatus (and hence, L-fucosylation), do not present altered growth (von Schaewen et al., 1993). Altogether, growth defects in *mur1* point to a structural defect which is due to impairment in RG-II dimerization, and not due to defects in protein fucosylation. However defective interactions with different cell wall polymers cannot be completely ruled out, since the α -1,3-xylosyltransferase activity carried out by RGXT enzyme family, involved in RG-II synthesis, transfers D-xylose residues from UDP-xylose onto fucose (Egelund et al., 2006).

An additional link between ascorbate and cell wall biosynthesis comes from studies of tomato lines silencing *GME* (Gilbert et al., 2009; Mounet-Gilbert et al., 2016). Those lines with both copies of *GME* silenced showed reduced growth, higher fragility, lower fruit firmness and a 35-55% reduced ascorbate content in leaves and 20-40% of WT ascorbate levels in fruits (Gilbert et al., 2009). Consistent with the expected accumulation of GDP-D-mannose, the silenced lines showed an increase in mannose-linked cell wall and defects in dimerization of RG-II by boron-mediated cross-linking, since phenotypic defects could be rescued by the application of external boron, but not with ascorbate (Gilbert et al., 2009; Mounet-Gilbert et al., 2016; Qi et al., 2017; Voxeur et al., 2011). All these results strongly suggest that this impairment has a cell wall structural basis rather than reduced ascorbate levels, similar to what was previously found in an *Arabidopsis mur1-1* mutant (O'Neill et al., 2001). Supporting this connection between ascorbate and cell wall biosynthesis at the GDP-D-mannose level, inactivation of GMP activity by knocking down *Arabidopsis KONJAC* genes involved in the activation of GMP resulted in reduced glucomannan content of cell walls and severe dwarfism (Sawake et al., 2015). The overexpression of *KONJAC1* caused a slight increase in ascorbate, whereas it resulted in a significant increase in the glucomannan content of plant cell walls, suggesting the presence of a mechanism that limits ascorbate accumulation.



This interaction between cell wall and ascorbate biosynthesis does not rely only on sharing common intermediates. As an enzyme cofactor, ascorbate is required for the activities of proline and lysine hydroxylases that, as previously mentioned, are involved in collagen biosynthesis in animals. In plants, proline hydroxylation is required for the production of hydroxyproline-rich glycoproteins (HRGP) such as arabinogalactans (AGPs) and extensins (EXTs). These proteins are part of cell wall structural glycoproteome acting as scaffolding components (Kishor et al., 2015; Marzol et al., 2018). AGPs are highly glycosylated HRGP proposed to function as cross-linkers of different cell wall polymers, thus conferring plasticity to the cell wall (Lamport et al., 2006). Recently, AGPs have been shown to be structural components of the cell wall by covalent attachment to pectins (rhamnogalacturonan I/homogalacturonate) and hemicelluloses (arabinoxylan), giving rise to the Arabinoxylan Pectin Arabinogalactan Protein complex APAP1 (Tan et al., 2013). In plants, EXTs have a role similar to that played by collagen in animals but contrary to collagen, EXTs can undergo O-glycosylation. This post-translational modification leads to oligo-arabinylation of hydroxyproline residues that allow the formation of a three-dimensional network *in muro*, attaching to other cell wall components such as pectins (Hijazi et al., 2014; Kishor et al., 2015). Indeed, proline hydroxylation is the preceding step to O-glycosylation of extensins and arabinogalactans (Showalter and Basu, 2016). Overall, proline hydroxylase activity, promoted by ascorbate, is essential for cell wall assembly and stiffening. Conversely, ascorbate has been implicated in fruit softening through non-enzymatic mechanisms, mainly by solubilizing pectins due to $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals arising as a result of the Fenton reaction in the apoplast (Dumville and Fry, 2003). Because the architecture of pectins in the seed coat is important in interactions with other cell wall polymers (Turbant et al., 2016), this ascorbate-driven decrease in pectins might lead to seed abortion. These seemingly opposite effects of ascorbate in the cell wall can be explained by a fine-tuned regulation of the ascorbate content and its compartmentalization, aspects that are still poorly understood.

Regulation of ascorbate content

As an essential antioxidant, regulation of the ascorbate content is closely related with abiotic stresses that normally cause oxidative stress. High light in particular is translated into a ROS burst caused by an increased photoreduction and photorespiration. This, in turn, leads to increased ascorbate biosynthesis in order to detoxify these ROS (Asada, 1999). Low light, in contrast, causes a reduction of ascorbate. For example, *Arabidopsis* plants grown in continuous dark for two days only contained 20% of ascorbate relative to plants grown in light (Conklin et al., 2013).

Regulatory mechanisms that control ascorbate biosynthesis have been found at the level of transcription, translation, protein stability and activity for

different components of the SW pathway. Light modulation of ascorbate content involves GMP stability (Wang et al., 2013), since GMP protein is degraded in the dark by the CONSTITUTIVE PHOTOMORPHOGENIC9-Signalosome subunit 5B (CSN5B; Wang et al., 2013). At the transcriptional level, low light decreases the expression of *GGP*, whereas high light causes its induction (Dowdle et al., 2007). Similarly, high light also induces the expression of *GLDH* in melon (Pateraki et al., 2004). NO treatment, which induces oxidative stress, causes an increase of *GLDH* mRNA levels in pepper (Rodríguez-Ruiz et al., 2017). At the activity level, *Arabidopsis* and barley plants exposed to high light showed an increment of *GGP* and *GLDH* activity (Dowdle et al., 2007; Smirnov, 2000). A redox regulation has also been reported for the activities of L-GalDH in kiwifruit (William A Laing et al., 2004), GME (Wolucka and Van Montagu, 2003) and *GLDH* (Leferink et al., 2009) in *Arabidopsis*. For *GLDH* in particular, Cys-340 has been identified as a redox-sensitive thiol residue required for an optimal conversion of L-galactono-1,4-lactone into ascorbate. This residue can be irreversibly oxidized by H₂O₂ unless it is previously S-glutathionylated (Leferink et al., 2009). This oxidation might be involved in the programmed cell death induced by some stresses like heat, since *GLDH* activity decreases during early stages of programmed cell death resulting in the inhibition of ascorbate biosynthesis (de Pinto et al., 2015). Therefore, the increased conversion of L-galactono-1,4-lactone to ascorbate under oxidative stress or high light might be an important control point of ascorbate biosynthesis (Smirnov, 2000).

Probably, the best described regulatory control point of ascorbate biosynthesis is exerted by *GGP* (Laing et al., 2015). This study reports that the amount of *GPP* protein in *Arabidopsis* is controlled by a cis-acting upstream Open Reading Frame (uORF). Thus, at high ascorbate concentration there is a decrease of the translation of *GGP* mRNA, functioning as a negative feedback loop (Laing et al., 2015). More importantly, since this uORF has been identified in *GGP* genes from mosses to angiosperms, this ascorbate posttranslational regulation is likely conserved throughout many plant species. Another possible control point exerted by ascorbate is L-GalDH, since the activity of this enzyme purified from spinach leaves is inhibited by ascorbate (Mieda et al., 2004). However, this is now under debate based on activity studies of the purified L-GalDH from kiwifruit (William A Laing et al., 2004). The role of *GLDH* in ascorbate biosynthesis has also been studied during fruit development of tomato and pea. *GLDH* activity is inhibited by high ascorbate levels (Mellidou et al., 2012b; Pallanca and Smirnov, 2000), a feedback control also found to affect GME activity in *Arabidopsis* (Wolucka and Van Montagu, 2003). Another link related with stress came with the finding that the activity of PMM is enhanced by a Ca²⁺-dependent interaction with Calmodulin-Like 10 (CML10; Cho et al., 2016), of which the expression is boosted by H₂O₂ and biotic stress (Zimmermann et al., 2004). Accordingly, *Arabidopsis* transgenic lines expressing an artificial microRNA against CML10 fail to increase ascorbate levels under heat stress (Cho et al., 2016).



Other genes involved in the regulation of ascorbate levels are *AMR1* (Zhang et al., 2009) and *ERF98* (Zhang et al., 2012). *AMR1* encodes an F-Box protein that represses the expression of virtually all the SW genes, particularly the expression of *GME* and *GGP*. Interestingly, this negative regulator of the pathway is barely expressed under high light conditions, pointing out the importance of the *de novo* biosynthesis of ascorbate in the response to light (Zhang et al. 2009). In contrast, *ERF98* is a positive regulator of the pathway since overexpression of this gene increase the content of ascorbate by enhancing the expression of genes of the SW pathway, in particular *GMP*, *GGP* and *L-GaIDH*. Further analysis indicated that *ERF98* can directly bind the promoter of the *GMP* gene (Zhang et al., 2012), supporting its regulatory role of the SW pathway.

An important aspect concerning ascorbate regulation is how it is distributed at the subcellular level. Cytohistochemical analysis, based on immunogold labelling and high-resolution immuno electron microscopy in tobacco and Arabidopsis leaves have shown that ascorbate is unevenly distributed at the subcellular levels (Zechmann et al., 2011). The estimated concentrations of ascorbate in Arabidopsis are: mitochondria (10.4 mM), chloroplasts (10.8 mM), peroxisomes (22.8 mM), nuclei (16.3 mM), vacuole (2.3 mM) and cytosol (21.7 mM) (Zechmann et al., 2011). In addition, low concentrations of ascorbate (0.002 mM) and DHA (0.36 mM) have been reported in the apoplast (Booker et al., 2012). These concentrations vary when plants are exposed to high light, which translates into an increase of ascorbate content in most cell compartments (Zechmann, 2011; Zechmann et al., 2011) with the exception of peroxisomes, whose content diminishes under high light. Interestingly, vacuolar ascorbate increases 4-fold when plants are exposed high light. This might be necessary to reduce the phenoxyl radicals that are oxidized by the high light associated-increase of H_2O_2 (Takahama, 2004). However, it is unknown whether the increase in ascorbate content in vacuole is due to the reduction of vacuolar MDHA through trans-membrane ascorbate-mediated electron transporters like cytochrome b561 (Asard et al., 2013; Griesen et al., 2004) or by direct transport of cytosolic ascorbate into the vacuole under high light using a transporter not identified yet.

Interestingly, despite the low concentration of ascorbate, the apoplast ratio of ascorbate/DHA ascorbate is important to determine the redox state of this compartment, which in turn controls redox-dependent signalling processes (Waszczak et al., 2018), such as stomata closure (Chen and Gallie, 2004) and chloroplast reprogramming leading to light acclimation (Karpinska et al., 2018). All these processes would be compromised if DHA and MDHA were not reduced back into ascorbate. Considering the little amount in the apoplast of glutathione and the enzymes in the Halliwell-Asada cycle other mechanisms must keep the redox homeostasis or the apoplast. First, apoplastic DHA produced by the spontaneous oxidation of MDHA enters the cytosol in exchange with ascorbate through facilitated diffusion using a yet-unknown protein (Horemans et al., 1998,

1997, 1996). Once in the cytosol, DHA is reduced to ascorbate by DHAR through the glutathione cycle. Second, MDHA is reduced to ascorbate in the apoplast by a cytochrome b-mediated trans-plasma membrane electron transport that uses cytosolic ascorbate as an electron donor (Horemans et al., 2000, 1994), which resembles the ascorbate restoration by electron transport across the tonoplast membrane (Asard et al., 2013), thus suggesting the involvement of cytochrome b561 in the reduction of apoplastic MDHA.

A similar question remains concerning MDHA and DHA reduction back to ascorbate in the thylakoid lumen. Taking into account the importance of luminal ascorbate in the maintenance of the functionality of the photosynthetic apparatus and energy dissipation (NPQ) commented above, MDHA and DHA must be reduced back to ascorbate. Since, to the best of our knowledge, there are no DHA reductases (DHAR) nor MDHA reductases (MDHAR) in the thylakoid lumen, other mechanisms should be involved. It has been shown that luminal DHA, produced by MDHA disproportionation in the lumen, crosses the thylakoidal membrane to the stroma (Mano et al., 1997), where it is reduced by the Halliwell-Asada cycle (Asada, 1999). The mechanism by which DHA crosses the thylakoidal membrane is not clear. Since no DHA transporter has been yet described in thylakoids (Foyer and Lelandais, 1996; Foyer and Noctor, 2011), the difference in DHA concentration between stroma and thylakoid lumen, and the lack of charge, would favour a high diffusion rate towards the stroma. On the other hand, ascorbate (newly synthesized and recycled from DHA) has to enter the lumen of the thylakoid. The diffusion hypothesis might also apply if the concentration of ascorbate in the stroma is much higher than that in the lumen, consistent with a non-active transport of ascorbate into the lumen previously reported (Foyer and Lelandais, 1996). However, unlike DHA, ascorbate has a negative charge making it a less suitable molecule to diffuse across the thylakoid membrane (Horemans et al., 2000). It has been recently reported that AtPHT4;4 transports ascorbate from the chloroplastic intermembrane space into the stroma (Miyaji et al., 2015). Interestingly, the homologous AtPHT4;1 is localised in the thylakoid membrane (Pavón et al., 2008) and its expression is modulated by light (Guo et al., 2008; Miyaji et al., 2015). Therefore, AtPHT4;1 is a good candidate to transport ascorbate across the thylakoid membrane.

Approaches to increase ascorbate in fruits

Increasing ascorbate content in highly consumed fruits would clearly have an impact on human nutrition. A concomitant increase of ascorbate in tissues or organs that are submitted to oxidative stress, i.e. photosynthetic tissues, might have an additional beneficial effect on plant tolerance. However, whether or not ascorbate increases in fruit would have an effect on stress tolerance is not so clear, although it is proposed that during fruit development and ripening oxidative stress might occur (Brennan and Frenkel, 1977; Huan et al., 2016; Jimenez et



al., 2002; Rogiers et al., 1998). Most of the attempts used to increase ascorbate levels are based on biotechnology and basically consist in the overexpression of genes involved in different aspects of ascorbate metabolism (biosynthesis, recycling or regulation). A second approach to increase the content of ascorbate would be through the selection of specific genomic regions that determine high ascorbate from a donor cultivar (or related species) and introgression into the cultivar of interest using molecular-assisted breeding (Singh and Singh, 2015). While in the first approach it is possible to use genes from different species and promoters that drive high or specific expression in desired tissues (Amaya et al., 2015), as far as the target species is amenable to transformation, the second approach relies on the identification of natural variants that can be used to intercross with these lines of interest. Although to date there are limited reports using this approach, the clear advantage is that these lines can be directly put into production because it does not involve transgenesis and therefore are not subjected to GMO regulation (Huang et al., 2016).

Biotechnological Approaches

There are abundant reports in the literature showing an increase of ascorbate in plants using biotechnological approaches (Macknight et al., 2017; Mellidou and Kanellis, 2017; Valpuesta and Botella, 2004). However, most of the studies have been performed in plants that do not produce edible fruits such as *Arabidopsis*, tobacco or rice and thus, most of the analyses were focused on vegetative tissues. Within fruits, tomato has been the preferred model due to its adoption as a model of fleshy fruits, its commercial value and the availability of efficient transformation protocols. The highest increase of ascorbate in tomato fruits reported so far has been about 6-fold and was achieved by ectopically expressing *GGP* from kiwi (Bulley et al., 2012). Interestingly, the transgenic tomato lines with the highest increase of ascorbate showed fruits with developmental defects and did not produce seeds (Bulley et al., 2012). A possible explanation is that an increase of metabolic flux to the synthesis of ascorbate had the effect of draining metabolites that are required for cell wall biosynthesis, particularly during seed development. Alternatively, this sharp increase of ascorbate might cause an increase in pectin solubilization (Dumville and Fry, 2003), which might provoke defects in seed development. Interestingly, in the same study, overexpression of *GGP* also caused an increase in ascorbate content of approximately two-fold in strawberry without obvious defects during seed formation. There can be several explanations for these differences in fruit development, first the ascorbate increase in strawberry fruit is smaller, thus not being enough to solubilize pectins, second strawberry is a false fruit with the real fruits (the achenes) located outside the fleshy part, and third the composition of the cell wall surrounding the fruits might be different in terms of pectin composition.

Genes involved in ascorbate biosynthesis from alternative pathways have also been used to increase ascorbate content in tomato fruit. Three different studies in tomato have been published expressing the *D-Galacturonate Reductase* (*GalUR*) gene from strawberry (Agius et al., 2003). In two reports, overexpression of *GalUR* caused an increase between 2 and 2.5-fold, which resulted in enhanced tolerance to various abiotic stresses (Cai et al., 2015; M. Y. Lim et al., 2016). In the third study, *GalUR* is driven by the constitutive 35S promoter or the tomato fruit-specific *polygalacturonase* (*PG*) promoters (Amaya et al., 2015). In both cases, transgenic lines showed a modest (1.3-fold) increase of ascorbate content. However, a comprehensive metabolomic analysis indicated complex changes in metabolites as well as concomitant increase of total antioxidant capacity in transgenic tomato fruits, suggesting that the increase of ascorbate is associated with a tight regulation of the cellular redox state of fruits.

Other approaches have employed genes involved in ascorbate recycling or transcription factors involved in the regulation of genes of the SW pathway. Overexpression of the cytosolic *DHAR1* gene from potato increased the ascorbate content by 1.9-fold in transgenic tomato fruits (Li et al., 2012). Two additional reports using regulatory factors also show a modest increase of ascorbate in fruits. Identification and overexpression of SIHZ24, a transcription factor that binds the promoter of the tomato *SIGMP3* gene (Hu et al., 2016), caused a 1.6-fold increase of total ascorbate in tomato fruits at the breaker stage. Further analysis indicated that SIHZ24 also can bind *in vitro* *SIGME2* and *SIGGP* promoters, suggesting that this transcription factor can target multiple genes involved in ascorbate biosynthesis. The tomato *SIDof22* negatively regulates ascorbate accumulation in tomato, and reduction of the endogenous expression of this gene by RNAi increased the levels of ascorbate 1.3-1.6-fold in mature fruits. Transcriptomic analysis indicated that the *SIDof22* silenced lines had increased expression of several genes involved in the SW pathway and recycling of ascorbate (Cai et al., 2016). Further, the authors showed that *SIDof22* can bind the promoter of the tomato *SOS1*, a Na^+/H^+ antiporter involved in Na^+ homeostasis and essential for salt tolerance (Zhu, 2002). However, how the SOS pathway and the ascorbate biosynthetic pathway are connected remains elusive.

From a breeding perspective, the increases of ascorbate between 1.5 and 2-fold using biotechnological approaches in tomato here reported might not seem outstanding (Amaya et al., 2015; Cai et al., 2015; M. Y. Lim et al., 2016). However, considering the large consumption of tomato, its relatively low ascorbate and its high raw intake, we believe that the reported increments would have a positive impact from a nutritional point of view, more so considering the recent reports on the health beneficial effects of a rich ascorbate diet. The 6-fold ascorbate increase reported by Bulley and co-workers (Bulley et al., 2012) would have a tremendous impact on ascorbate intake. Although the reported developmental defects make it unviable for agricultural use, from a scientific perspective it might be a useful model to investigate the role that high ascorbate has in tomato physiology.



Molecular Breeding and Genome Selection for ascorbate improvement

Improving fruit ascorbate content using marker-assisted selection requires prior identification of the genetic basis for natural variation of ascorbate. This can be achieved by genetic mapping and quantitative trait loci (QTL) analysis or genome-wide association studies (GWAS) in a developed mapping population, or alternatively in a diverse set of genotypes within the species, that are genotyped and phenotyped to determine molecular markers associated to specific traits (Mackay et al., 2009; Singh and Singh, 2015). Next, identified markers need to be validated for their application to select new cultivars with increased ascorbate content.

Several studies have shown that ascorbate content in fruits exhibit a quantitative inheritance, with several loci involved in ascorbate variation (Stevens et al., 2007; Zorrilla-Fontanesi et al., 2011). These studies have rarely identified the genes controlling the variation in ascorbate content, but they mark the genomic regions, and associated markers, and provide relevant information about the genetic architecture of the trait (how many loci and their quantitative contribution), as well as environmental effects. In some studies, candidate genes in those regions have been identified, with examples described below in apple, strawberry and tomato.

Apple

In this species (*Malus domestica*), a population derived from the cultivars 'Telamon' and 'Braeburn' was used to identify several QTLs for ascorbate content in fruit skin and flesh on linkage groups (LG) 6, 10, and 11 in the apple genome (Davey et al., 2006). The QTL identified on LG10 collocates with a major QTL controlling flesh browning (Sun et al., 2014). Four regions on LG 10, 11, 16 and 17 controlling ascorbate were detected over different years in another study using the same population (Mellidou et al., 2012a). Collocations between *GGP*, *DHAR* and a nucleobase-ascorbate transporter and some of the QTL were identified. In the case of *GGP*, allelic variations in two different *GGP* genes (*MdGGP1* and *MdGGP3*) were associated with ascorbate content (QTL on LG 11 and LG 10) both in the population and across commercial apple cultivars (Mellidou et al., 2012a). In particular, differences in the expression of *MdGGP1* between fruits from high- and low-ascorbate cultivars indicate a key role for *MdGGP1* in the regulation of fruit ascorbate content (Mellidou et al., 2012a). An allele-specific SNP in this gene represents a promising tool for molecular breeding for enhanced fruit ascorbate content in apple. In the same study, the gene *MdDHAR3-3* was associated with a stable QTL for flesh browning on LG 17, suggesting that regulation of redox status of the ascorbate pool via *DHAR* is important for postharvest fruit quality traits in apple. In agreement with this, transcriptomic studies revealed that prolonged postharvest storage downregulated *DHAR* expression, resulting in the oxidation of ascorbate and thus enabling browning to occur (Mellidou et al., 2014). Therefore, besides the nutritional relevance of



increasing ascorbate content in fruits, it has been shown that increased ascorbate is associated with improved post-harvest quality in fruits such as pear and apple (Davey et al., 2006; Mellidou et al., 2012a). For example, increased flesh browning in apple fruits is associated with the presence of a less reduced ascorbic acid pool (Davey et al., 2006).

Strawberry

Strawberry (*Fragaria* × *ananassa*) is the fruit with the highest global production among berries, reaching a value of over nine million tonnes (FAOSTAT¹) and it typically contains high ascorbate. However, ascorbate content varies widely between strawberry cultivars and *Fragaria* species, ranging from 10 to 80 mg/100 g FW (Cruz-Rus et al., 2011; Mezzetti et al., 2016). Using a biparental population of 95 F1 progenies derived from two strawberry breeding lines, three QTL explaining a total of 45% variation were identified on LG IV-2, LG V-1 y LG VII-1 (Zorrilla-Fontanesi et al., 2011). Two of the detected QTLs were stable in different years and candidate genes were identified based in orthologous positions in the diploid *F. vesca* reference genome. The gene *FaGalUR* collocated with the position of the stable QTL on LG IV-2 and a gene encoding a myoinositol oxygenase (*FaMIOX*) was located within the stable QTL on LG V-1 (Zorrilla-Fontanesi et al., 2011), although the role of this pathway remains controversial.

FaDHAR and *FaGMP* collocated with the QTL detected only one year on LG VII-1. Recently, a transcriptomic analysis by RNA-seq in pools of progeny lines contrasting in ascorbate content derived from the same population identified differential expression of gene *MANNOSE-6-PHOSPHATE ISOMERASE 1* (*FaM6PI1*) while *FaMIOX* was not differentially expressed (Vallarino et al., 2019). The *FaM6PI1* gene was also located within the confidence interval of the major QTL detected on LG V-I, and it is highly similar to the Arabidopsis *PMI* gene that encodes the first enzyme in the SW pathway (Maruta et al., 2008). Therefore, gene *FaM6PI1* was proposed as a candidate gene contributing to the natural variation in ascorbate content in strawberry.

Tomato

Several loci controlling ascorbate content have been detected using different populations derived from crosses between cultivated varieties (*Solanum lycopersicum*) and related wild *Solanum* species. Common genomic regions controlling ascorbate content have been identified on chromosomes 2, 8, 9, 10, and 12 (Stevens et al., 2007). In general, wild alleles increased ascorbate content and QTL were relatively stable across years or environments. The tomato gene *GME2* lies within the QTL interval on chromosome 9 (bin 9-J) and other candidate genes localised within QTL intervals were *MDHAR3* in bin 9-D, *GMP2* in bin 9-E, and *GLDH* in bin 10-E (Stevens et al., 2007). Further studies confirmed that this MDHAR activity was linked to ascorbate content in tomato fruits, which was found beneficial for an extended shelf life after chilling (Stevens et al., 2007). The role



of MDHAR in governing ascorbate pool size was demonstrated through assessing expression and activity profiles throughout fruit ripening (Mellidou et al., 2012b). In an independent report, 163 tomato accessions were analysed for several traits including ascorbate content by a GWAS approach and, again, significant SNPs associated to *MDHAR* were identified (Sauvage et al., 2014). All together, these reports indicate a relevant role of MDHAR in governing natural variation in ascorbate content in tomato.

Using transcriptomic analysis, a QTL detected in three trials on introgression line IL12-4 (*S. pennellii* in a *S. lycopersicum* background) was associated with up-regulation of genes involved in pectin degradation (Di Matteo et al., 2010). Further analyses of mutant variants and expression studies in introgression sublines from IL12-4 supported that pectinesterases might have a crucial role in determining ascorbate content in fruits of IL12-4 (Ruggieri et al., 2015). These studies suggested that ascorbate accumulation in IL12-4 fruits was achieved by increasing flux through the D-galacturonate pathway, as indicated above.

Recombinant Inbred Lines (RIL) have also been used to identify QTL/candidate genes linked to ascorbate content in tomato fruits. Thus, transcriptomic analyses in fruits of two groups of contrasting RILs suggested that ascorbate content co-regulates with genes involved in hormone signalling, and that they are dependent on the oxidative status of the fruit (Lima-Silva et al., 2012). Another study in tomato using the same RIL population, derived from the wild-relative *Solanum pimpinellifolium* TO-937, detected four QTL with a joint contribution of 42.1% to the variation of ascorbate content (Capel et al., 2015).

Melon

A limited number of genetic studies on ascorbate have been conducted in melon, although this fruit serves a significant source of this vitamin. There is considerable variation within the species. Ascorbate content in different varieties of the most widely consumed Cantaloupe and Honeydew melons range from about 10 to 29 mg/100 g FW, with the former types having higher content than the latter (Laur and Tian, 2011). This crop has a high global production (~31 million tonnes; FAOSTAT) and it is also amongst the highest productions in the European Union (~3 million tonnes; Eurostat, 2017). A single QTL for ascorbate has been mapped on LG 5 using different populations (Park et al., 2009; Sinclair et al., 2006). However, low reproducible RAPD markers were used in these studies, hampering their application in breeding programs.

Overall, the number of studies identifying QTLs affecting fruit ascorbate content is still rather limited to draw conclusions on common loci across different species. In order to effectively introduce QTLs using marker-assisted selection in order to develop new fruit varieties with increased ascorbate content, loci must be validated in independent studies. Also, it is important to use additional populations and to perform the QTL analysis in different locations in order to determine QTL stability. To date, only natural variation in *GGP* and *MDHAR* alleles have been shown in independent studies to be useful in increasing ascorbate in apple and tomato, respectively (Mellidou et al., 2012a; Stevens et al., 2008). Pyramiding QTLs has the potential to increase ascorbate content, particularly in those cases when an individual QTL has a limited effect. There are already reports in which *Solanum lycopersicum* lines containing two chromosomal fragments from *Solanum pennellii* double the ascorbate content in ripe tomato fruit (Rigano et al., 2014; Sacco et al., 2013). Furthermore, with the recent establishment of high-throughput genotyping platforms, the selection of lines that include only specific genomic regions of interest will now be performed in a very efficient manner (Crossa et al., 2017).

Conclusions and future perspectives

The importance of ascorbate for humans has been recently highlighted through the characterization of its role in the activity of TETs and histone demethylases. Therefore, it is important to understand the mechanisms that determine the levels of ascorbate in fruits, a major source for ascorbate in human diet. An essential role for ascorbate in plants and animals is to maintain the oxidative status in the active centre of several enzymes. It is also essential for scavenging ROS produced during photosynthesis. The identification of *vtc* mutants clearly highlighted an essential role of ascorbate in oxidative stress tolerance (Conklin et al., 1996). Ascorbate has additional roles during plant growth since early reports indicated that external application of ascorbate caused a significant increase in seedling growth and effects on cell division (Hausen, 1935; Havas, 1935), although the molecular mechanisms are not completely understood.

Most of the molecular studies have been performed in the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*, allowing the identification of all the catalytic steps of the SW pathway. However, with the exception of the established role of *GGP* as a key biosynthetic control step, very little is known about the factors that determine the final content of ascorbate in different tissues.

In fruits from different species or even within the same species large differences can be observed, with fruits that show extremely high content of ascorbate such as camu (Castro et al., 2015) and acerola (Badejo et al., 2009). How these fruits can accumulate such large amounts, or what is the advantage of having such a high content of ascorbate in these fruits is not known. As



previously indicated, an important aspect of ascorbate is the close interconnection between its biosynthesis and that of the non-cellulosic cell wall components, which might hamper a proper understanding of the regulation of ascorbate biosynthesis. Since degradation of the cell wall is a common process during fruit ripening, alternative pathways such as that using D-galacturonate may have an important role in the final accumulation of ascorbate in this organ. Considering all this, it is important to extend the research to ascorbate-rich fruits to identifying regulators that determine high-ascorbate accumulation. An advantage is that the high conservation of proteins of the SW pathway among plant species makes it relatively easy to identify the orthologous genes. With the current genomic tools and high throughput sequencing technology, GWAS could be a good approach to identify these components. The use of segregating populations using contrasting parental lines can also be a good choice, considering the expedition of gene identification through combination of bulk segregant analysis (BSA), high-throughput next-generation sequencing, efficient SNP arrays, mapping by sequencing approaches (Takagi et al., 2013), or global gene expression studies (Amaya et al., 2016).

The CRISPR/Cas9 technology has greatly improved our capacity to engineer targeted mutations in eukaryotic genomes (Doudna and Charpentier, 2014). In tomato, CRISPR/Cas9 has been recently used to modify quantitative trait variation in some key agronomical traits such as fruit size, inflorescence number and plant size in tomato (Rodríguez-Leal et al. 2017). In a recent report, genome editing of the uORF of *GGP* in lettuce increased the ascorbate content by 1.5-fold, leading to oxidative stress tolerance (H. Zhang et al., 2018). A similar edition of tomato *GGP1* also led to an ascorbate increase of ~1.5-fold in leaves (Li et al., 2018). Thus, a future trend will be to use genome editing to target gene determinants in either the cis-regulatory elements to modify their gene expression, substrate affinity, catalytic efficiency, generation of specific alleles or targeting interacting partners to modulate the ascorbate content in fruits. All this will be further facilitated by increasing sequence replacements via homologous recombination as has been already reported in Arabidopsis through CRISPR/Cas9 (Miki et al., 2018).





HYPOTHESIS & OBJECTIVES



Hypothesis

Most of the enzymes that catalyse the biosynthesis of ascorbate through the Smirnoff-Wheeler pathway are predicted to be localized in the cytosol. It is becoming clear that enzymes in different metabolic pathway tend to form metabolons in order to improve the efficiency. In this thesis we investigated whether enzymes that catalyse ascorbate biosynthesis through the Smirnoff-Wheeler pathway associate forming an enzymatic complex, hence facilitating its biosynthesis. Ascorbate content is also regulated by environmental conditions. Furthermore, several metabolic pathways are regulated by a limiting catalytic step. Thus, ascorbate biosynthesis might also be controlled by a limiting catalytic step whose activity is an integrated response to endogenous (inner ascorbate level) and exogenous (light intensity, time of the day) cues. Our working hypothesis is that the regulation of its stability must be finely tuned to balance the biosynthesis rate to meet the cell requirements. Moreover, the identification of regulators of this limiting step and those controlling the formation of this functional unity of enzymes could lead to a marker-assisted breeding programme or biotechnological strategy to engineering ascorbate biosynthesis in crop plants of interest without compromising fruit development or fertility. Therefore, in order to answer the previous questions, we defined the following objectives.

Objectives

1. To investigate whether the ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes associate *in vivo*.
2. Identifying the ascorbate biosynthesis limiting activities.
3. To study the protein dynamics of ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes with a special focus on VTC2, the enzyme proposed to catalyse the limiting step of the ascorbate biosynthesis pathway.







CHAPTER 1



A brief introduction

L-Ascorbate (ascorbate, vitamin C) is the most abundant soluble antioxidant in plants and functions as a cofactor in many enzymatic reactions (Fenech et al., 2019; Smirnov, 2018). Some groups of animals, among which humans are included, lost the ability to biosynthesize ascorbate (Smirnov, 2018).

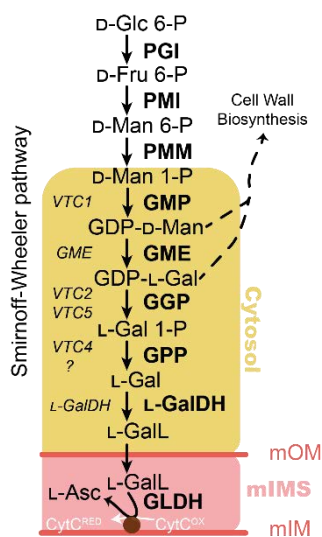


Figure 4. The ascorbate biosynthesis via GDP-mannose and L-galactose (the Smirnov-Wheeler [SW] pathway) in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Yellow area refers to the cytosolic enzymes used in this work. mOM: mitochondrion outer membrane, mIMS: mitochondrion intermembrane space, mIM: mitochondrion inner membrane. In the left-hand side of the arrows, the genes encoding each enzyme are displayed while in the right-hand side the encoded proteins/enzymatic activities are shown. Glc: glucose, Fru: fructose, Man: mannose, Gal: galactose, Gall: galactono-1,4-lactone, Asc: ascorbic acid. PGI: phosphoglucose isomerase, PMI: phosphomannose isomerase, PMM: phosphomannomutase, GMP: GDP-mannose pyrophosphorylase, GME: GDP-mannose 3',5' epimerase, GGP: GDP-L-galactose phosphorylase, GPP: L-galactose 1-phosphate phosphatase, L-GalDH: L-galactose dehydrogenase, GLDH: L-galactono-1,4-lactone dehydrogenase. CytC^{RED}: cytochrome c reduced, CytC^{OX}: cytochrome c oxidized.

Therefore, we need to incorporate this essential nutrient through the diet, with fruits and vegetables being the major source. In plants, ascorbate is synthesized from the hexose phosphate pool *via* D-mannose/L-galactose through the Smirnov-Wheeler (SW) pathway (Wheeler et al., 1998; Figure 4). The pathway is supported by abundant biochemical and genetic studies (Bulley and Laing, 2016; Wheeler et al., 2015). D-Glucose 6-P is sequentially transformed into D-fructose 6-P, D-mannose 6-P and D-mannose 1-P by phosphoglucose isomerase (PGI), phosphomannose isomerase (PMI) and phosphomannomutase (PMM). GDP-D-mannose pyrophosphorylase (VTC1; GMP) then converts D-mannose 1-P into GDP-D-mannose, which is subsequently epimerized by GDP-D-mannose epimerase (GME) into GDP-L-galactose. GDP-D-mannose and GDP-L-galactose are additionally used in synthesis of cell wall polysaccharides and protein glycosylation thereby interconnecting the SW pathway with cell wall biosynthesis (Conklin et al., 1999; Fenech et al., 2019; Reiter and Vanzin, 2001). The next step is catalysed by GDP-L-galactose phosphorylase (GGP), producing L-galactose 1-P. This step is proposed to be the main control point of the pathway (Dowdle et al., 2007; Laing et al., 2015, 2007; Linster et al., 2007; Yoshimura et al., 2014). In *Arabidopsis thaliana* (*Arabidopsis*), GGP activity is encoded by two paralogues, VTC2 and VTC5. Next, L-galactose 1-phosphate phosphatase (VTC4, GPP) and other unidentified phosphatases (Conklin et al., 2006; Torabinejad et al., 2009), transform L-galactose 1-phosphate into L-galactose. L-Galactose is then oxidized to L-galactono-1,4-lactone by a L-galactose dehydrogenase (L-GalDH). All these steps are believed to occur in the cytosol while L-galactono-1,4-lactone crosses the outer membrane of the mitochondria

to be oxidized by L-galactono-1,4-lactone dehydrogenase (GLDH) which is an integral component of mitochondrial electron transport Complex 1 on the inner membrane (Pineau et al., 2008; Schimmeyer et al., 2016).

Ascorbate concentration is dependent on the tissue (Franceschi and Tarlyn, 2002; Lorence et al., 2004; Müller-Moulé, 2008; Zhang et al., 2011) and the ascorbate pool adjusts to changes in environmental conditions, particularly light (Bartoli, 2006; Page et al., 2012; Plumb et al., 2018). Surprisingly, despite being the most abundant soluble antioxidant, a good understanding of the mechanisms that control ascorbate concentration remains limited. While mutant analyses of genes involved in biosynthetic pathway have corroborated the involvement of the various enzymes (Table 1), they provide little information on how the pathway is controlled. This is further complicated because the ascorbate pool is determined by the balance between synthesis, oxidation, recycling and breakdown. The oxidation product of ascorbate is the monodehydroascorbate radical. This is either directly reduced back to ascorbate or can give rise to dehydroascorbate (DHA) in its hydrated bicyclic hemiketal form, which is reduced back to ascorbate through the Halliwell-Foyer-Asada cycle (Asada, 1999). In addition, a proportion of ascorbate and DHA can be degraded to various products such as oxalate, threonate, and tartrate (Debolt et al., 2007; DeBolt et al., 2006; Dewhirst et al., 2017; Green and Fry, 2005; Pallanca and Smirnov, 2000; Terai et al., 2020; Truffault et al., 2017). These recycling and breakdown reactions are evident under severe oxidative stress, which results in decreased cellular ascorbate (Terai et al., 2020; Waszczak et al., 2018).

Table 1. Phenotypes associated to Arabidopsis mutants affected in the genes involved in ascorbate biosynthesis available in the literature. Phenotype analyses show that VTC2 is the first enzyme fully dedicated to ascorbate synthesis since growth arrest occurring in the *vtc2/vtc5* double mutant and downstream mutants is rescued by ascorbate supplementation. Although a reduced function (knock-down mutation) of genes upstream of GGP (*VTC2*, *VTC5*) also results in lower ascorbate concentration, the lethality occurring in knock-out mutants cannot be prevented by exogenous ascorbate supplementation.

Enzyme	Mutant	Allele	Phenotype	Reference
GMP	<i>cyt1-1</i>	Knock-out	Embryo lethal	Lukowitz et al., 2001
	<i>vtc1-1</i>	Knock-down	30% of WT ascorbate	Conklin et al., 1996, 2000.
GME	<i>gme-1</i>	Knock-out	Male gametophyte lethal. Growth defect, rescued by boron but not by ascorbate supplementation.	Qi et al., 2017
	<i>gme-2</i>	Knock-down	30% of WT ascorbate	
GGP	<i>vtc2-4</i>	Single knock-out	20% of WT ascorbate	Lim et al., 2016
	<i>vtc5-2</i>	Single knock-out	80% of WT ascorbate	Dowdle et al., 2007
	<i>vtc2/vtc5</i>	Double knock-out	Growth arrest, rescued by ascorbate supplementation	Dowdle et al., 2007; Lim et al., 2016
GPP	<i>vtc4-4</i>	Knock-out	65% of WT ascorbate	Torabinejad et al., 2009
L-GalDH	<i>lgaldh</i>	Not reported	30% of WT ascorbate in antisense suppression lines	Gatzek et al., 2002
L-GalLDH	<i>gldh</i>	Knock-out	Growth arrest, rescued by ascorbate supplementation	Pineau et al., 2008

Multiple lines of evidence point to VTC2 as the critical controlling step of ascorbate biosynthesis. The transcription of VTC2 gene (Dowdle et al., 2007; Müller-Moulé, 2008; Urzica et al., 2012) and the activity of the encoded enzyme (Dowdle et al., 2007) are highly responsive to environmental factors. Furthermore, VTC2 translation is subject to feedback repression *via* a conserved upstream open reading frame (uORF) in the 5'-UTR (Laing et al., 2015). As a consequence, removing the uORF results in increased ascorbate in Arabidopsis (Laing et al., 2015), tomato (Li et al., 2018) and lettuce (H. Zhang et al., 2018). In addition, VTC2 is the only gene of the pathway whose overexpression consistently increases the ascorbate content (Bulley et al., 2012; Yoshimura et al., 2014) and QTL analysis shows that GGP paralogs located within regions of the genome associated to fruits containing high ascorbate content (Mellidou et al., 2012a). There have been reports where overexpression of other genes of the pathway such as VTC1 or GME also increase ascorbate concentration in Arabidopsis (Zhou et al., 2012 [1.3-fold]; Li et al., 2016 [1.5-fold]), rice (Zhang et al., 2015 [1.4-fold]), tobacco (Wang et al., 2011 [2-4-fold]), tomato (Cronje et al., 2012 [1.7-fold]; Zhang et al., 2011 [1.4-fold]) and kiwifruit (Bulley et al., 2009 [1.2-fold]). However, overexpression of these genes does not always have an effect on ascorbate concentration (Sawake et al., 2015; Yoshimura et al., 2014). In addition, various studies have reported ascorbate feedback inhibition of the biosynthetic enzymes PMI (Maruta et al., 2008), GME (Wolucka and Van Montagu, 2003) and L-GaIDH (Mieda et al., 2004). This feedback control is further supported by the decreased incorporation of labelled sugars into ascorbate *in vivo* after feeding ascorbate (Pallanca and Smirnoff, 2000; Wolucka and Van Montagu, 2003).

In order to increase our understanding of the organization of the ascorbate biosynthesis pathway, we have performed a systematic over-expression of single and multiple combinations of all the enzymes of the pathway from VTC1 downstream in *Nicotiana benthamiana*. This allowed the systematic investigation of their effects on the ascorbate pool and supported the formation of a multiprotein complex. In addition, complementation of the Arabidopsis mutants with the respective GFP-tagged enzymes confirmed the functionality of the constructs and provided information on their subcellular localisations. Finally, we constructed a kinetic model based on the known properties of the pathway whose predictions support that activity of VTC2 is the only significant controlling step and which also explains other observed features of the pathway. In addition to this information, this work provides a set of tools that will allow a better understanding of ascorbate biosynthesis at the molecular and cellular level.

Results

Generation and analyses of GFP-tagged ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes in Arabidopsis complementation lines reveal major differences in protein expression along the pathway

In order to study the function of SW proteins we aimed to generate Arabidopsis lines transformed with genomic regions (including their promoters) of ascorbate biosynthesis genes that resulted in proteins fused to GFP at their C-terminus. To investigate the functionality of these constructs, they were introduced into Arabidopsis mutants and the complementation of their phenotypes was analysed. Arabidopsis mutants in SW genes typically show lower ascorbate concentration and/or lethality in early stages of development (Table 1). Selfing of Arabidopsis heterozygous mutants for *GME* (SALK_150208, *gme-3*, hereafter *gme*; Figure 5A) and *L-GaIDH* (SALK_056664, Figure 5B) did not produce homozygous mutants (Figure 6). Since exogenous supplementation of ascorbate prevented growth arrest of several SW mutants (Dowdle et al., 2007; Pineau et al., 2008) we germinated seeds from heterozygous *gme* and *lgaldh* plants on solid media without and supplemented with 0.5 mM ascorbate (Figure 7A). As a control we included seeds from a heterozygous *gldh* mutant plant, whose growth arrest is prevented by exogenous ascorbate (Pineau et al., 2008). The analysis of heterozygous *gme* progeny identified 40 wild-type (WT) seedlings, 46 heterozygous seedlings and no homozygous for the T-DNA, confirming the lethality of a loss-of-function allele of *GME* (Qi et al., 2017; Voxeur et al., 2011) (Figure 6A; Figure 7A). Similarly, no homozygous *gme* seedlings were identified when the growth medium was supplemented with 0.5 mM ascorbate in contrast to *gldh* (Pineau et al., 2008; Figure 6B), confirming that *GME*, similarly to *VTC1* (Lukowitz et al., 2001), has additional roles to that of ascorbate biosynthesis (Figure 6A; Gilbert et al., 2009; Qi et al., 2017; Voxeur et al., 2011). On the other hand, diagnostic PCR of heterozygous *lgaldh* progeny identified 23 WT seedlings and 69 heterozygous T-DNA seedlings while no homozygous mutants were found in the medium not supplemented with ascorbate. Remarkably, a number of seedlings showed growth arrest and yellowing similarly to *gldh* progeny (Figure 7A, magnified square). In contrast, we identified 25 WT, 41 heterozygous T-DNA and 25 homozygous T-DNA seedlings by diagnostic PCR in ascorbate containing medium (Figure 6C, Figure 7A). Therefore, and in contrast to *gme* mutants, *lgaldh* mutants could be rescued by supplementation with exogenous ascorbate. This supports that the expression product of *L-GaIDH* is responsible for the L-galactose dehydrogenase activity present in Arabidopsis. Additionally, the finding that, like *gldh*, *lgaldh* is an ascorbate auxotroph also indicates that the activity of this enzyme is essential for ascorbate biosynthesis.

In order to investigate the functionality of a *GME* protein fused with a GFP at the C-terminus, we transformed WT plants with a *GMEp:GME-GFP* construct. Of the several transformants that showed high expression of *GME-GFP* and a single insertion (Figure 8A), line 6 (L6) was selected to introduce the transgene



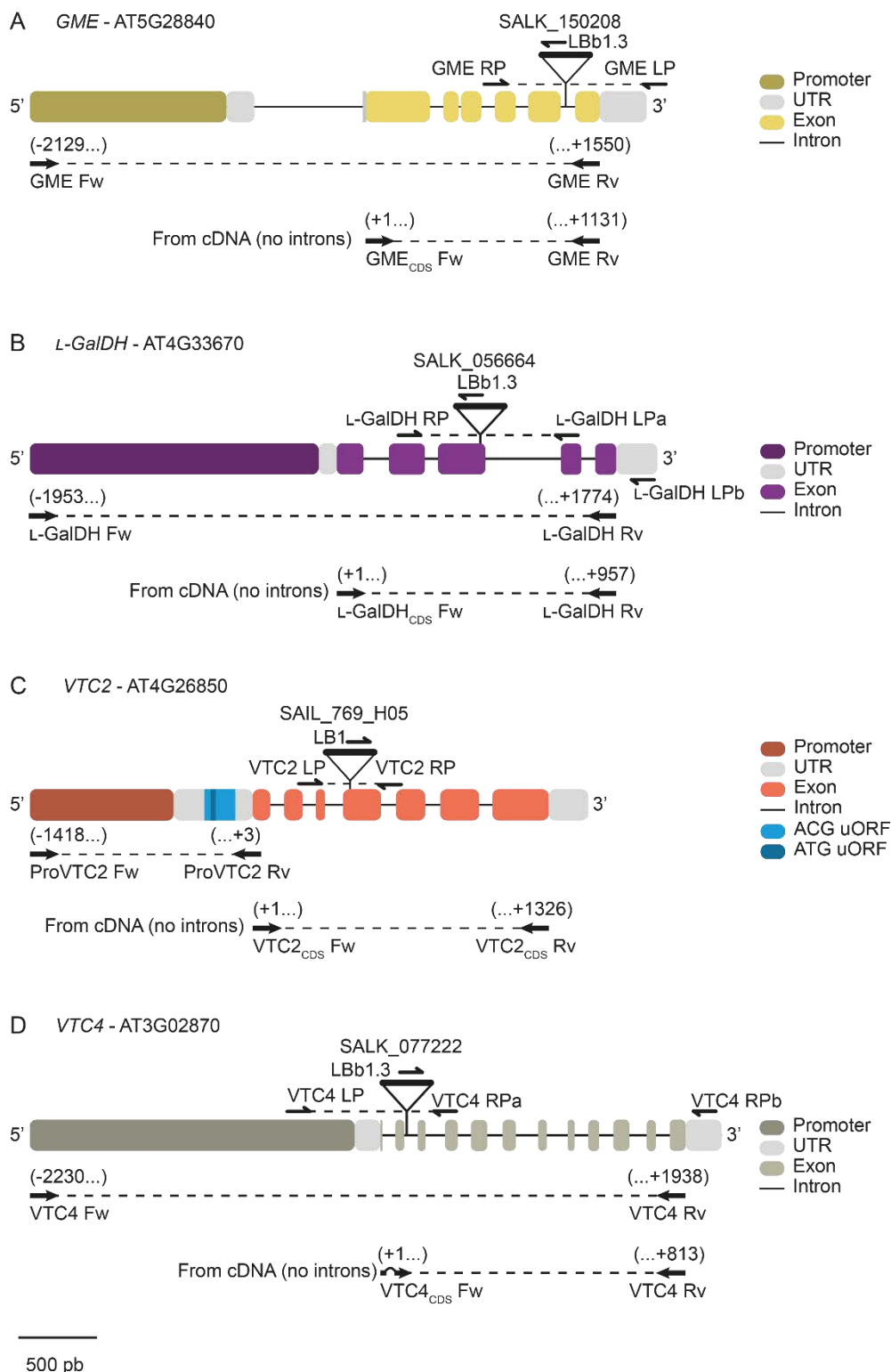


Figure 5. Gene structure, primers disposition and mutants' T-DNA location. Primers' sequences are available in Material and Methods section.

into the *gme* mutant background using reciprocal crosses. Using heterozygous *gme* plants as male parent, we did not obtain F1 *gme/GMEp:GME-GFP* (hereafter named *gme/GME-GFP* L6) descendants, supporting the role of *GME* in pollen development and pollen tube elongation (Qi et al., 2017). However,

when L6 was used as a male parent we obtained viable *gme/GME-GFP* F1 seedlings that allowed the identification in the F2 of homozygous *gme/GME-GFP* L6 seedlings (Figure 8B). Surprisingly, while the GME-GFP fusion protein complement the sterility defects, it contained ~55% of the ascorbate content of WT plants (Figure 7B) which, considering the lower ascorbate content of knock-down *gme* Arabidopsis mutants (Qi et al., 2017), indicates that it complements only partially the ascorbate content. Similarly, a *L-GalDHp:L-GalDH-GFP* construct was transformed into WT plants and selected line 1 (L1) that showed high expression and a single insertion (Figure 8C). Then, reciprocal crosses between heterozygous *lgaldh* plants and *L-GalDHp:L-GalDH-GFP* L1 were performed. In this occasion, we did obtain F1 plants when *lgaldh* plants were used as male or female parent. Homozygous *lgaldh/GalDH-GFP* L1 seedlings were identified in F2 progeny using diagnostic PCR in medium lacking ascorbate (Figure 8D), indicating that the L-GalDH-GFP protein driven by the *L-GalDH* promoter restores the enzyme activity lost in *lgaldh* mutant. In addition, ascorbate content of *lgaldh/L-GalDH-GFP* L1 plants contained WT levels of ascorbate (Figure 7B).

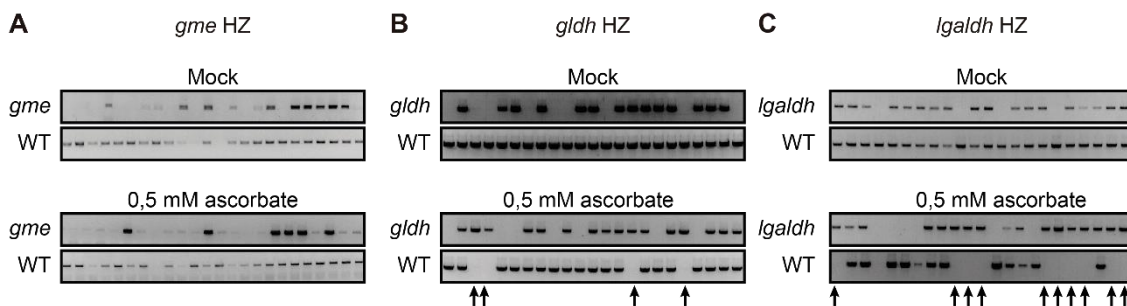


Figure 6. Diagnostic PCR of the *gme*, *gldh* and *lgaldh* seedlings analysed in the complementation assay. Whereas ascorbate does not recover the lethality of *gme* mutation (A), it does recover *lgaldh* (C). As a control, we used *gldh* (B), previously published to be recovered by ascorbate (Pineau et al., 2008). Arrows at the bottom indicate homozygous mutants.

In contrast to *gme* and *lgaldh*, loss of function *vtc2* and *vtc4* homozygous mutants are viable and show WT growth at standard conditions despite presenting a 20% and 55% of WT ascorbate content, respectively (Figure 7B; Conklin et al., 2000; Dowdle et al., 2007; Torabinejad et al., 2009). In the case of *vtc2* mutant, GDP-L-galactose phosphorylase activity is also provided by the paralogous *VTC5* gene. Consistently, *vtc2/vtc5* double mutants, like *lgaldh* and *gldh* mutants show growth arrest (Figure 7A) that can be complemented with exogenous ascorbate (Figure 6B, C; Dowdle et al., 2007; Lim et al., 2016). However, considering the phenotypes described (Table 1) the viability of *vtc4* must rely on other enzymes with L-galactose 1-phosphate phosphatase activity (Nourbakhsh et al., 2015; Torabinejad et al., 2009). In order to test the functionality of GFP-tagged VTC2 and VTC4, we relied on restoring WT ascorbate content by introducing *VTC2p:VTC2-GFP* and *VTC4p:VTC4-GFP* constructs into their respective mutants. T-DNA knock-out mutant *vtc2-4* (SAIL_769_H05; hereafter named *vtc2*; Figure 5C; Lim et al., 2016) was directly transformed and lines with single

insertion were selected (Figure 8E). Among these lines, line 13 (L13) was selected because it showed the highest accumulation of VTC2-GFP (Figure 8F). Also, *VTC4p:VTC4-GFP* was introduced into *vtc4-4* mutant (Figure 5D) following the same strategy described for *GME* and *L-GalDH* (Figure 8G). A single insertion *VTC4p: VTC4-GFP* line 5 was selected to cross with *vtc4* homozygous mutant and the homozygous *vtc4/VTC4-GFP* line was isolated by diagnostic PCR (Figure 8H). Ascorbate concentration of *vtc2/VTC2-GFP* and *vtc4/VTC4-GFP* lines was restored to WT levels validating the functionality of the GFP-tagged enzyme (Figure 7B).

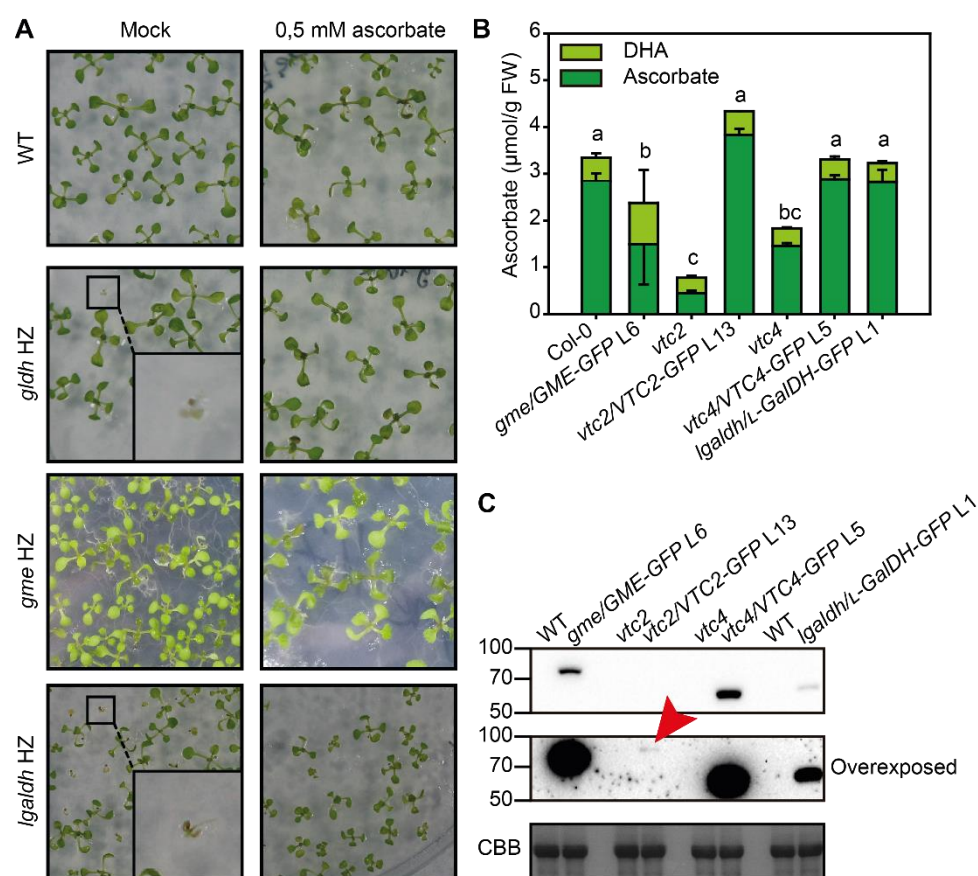


Figure 7. Characterization of C-terminal GFP fusions of ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes.

A) Ascorbate complementation assay rescues growth arrest from *gl dh* and *lgaldh* mutants but not *gme* lethality. In *gl dh* and *lgaldh* mutants, small squares show that homozygous mutants undergo growth arrest in media lacking ascorbate, but not in media supplemented with ascorbate. B) Complementation of ascorbate concentration by expression of GFP fusion proteins in ascorbate deficient Arabidopsis mutants. Different letters denote statistically significant differences for ascorbate concentration (One-Way ANOVA, $\alpha=0,05$, post-hoc Tukey test). Ascorbate was extracted from three independent samples composed of three 6-weeks old fully expanded rosettes grown in short day regime at $150 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, one and a half hours after lights turned on. C) Immunoblot (α -GFP) of complemented lines show that little amount of protein VTC2 compared other components restores ascorbate content. Red arrowhead indicates VTC2-GFP. A representative sample for each genotype is shown out of the three tested by immunoblot (not shown).

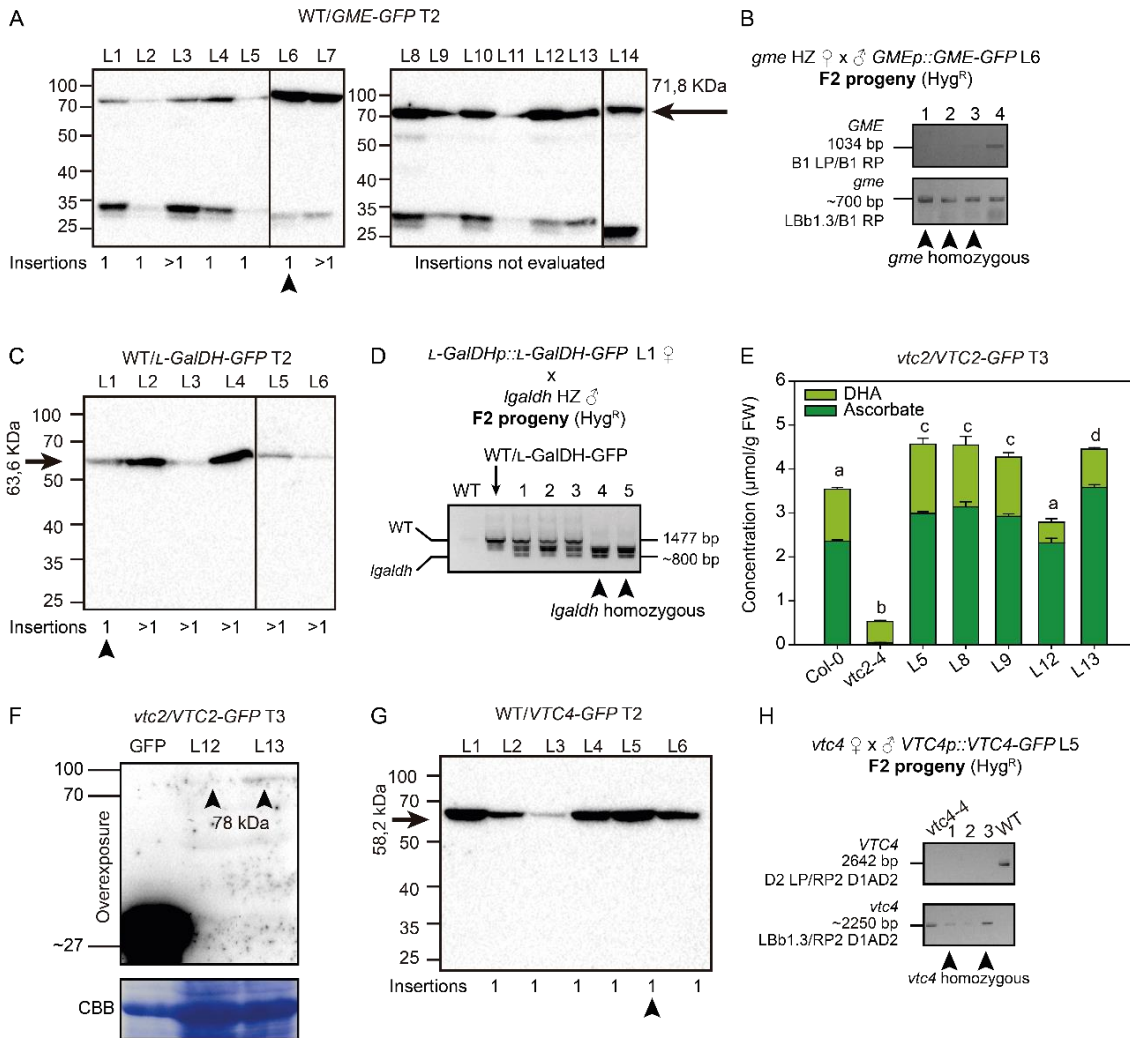


Figure 8. Generation of Arabidopsis transgenic lines containing ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes fused to GFP.

A) Immunoblot (α -GFP) analysis of fourteen GME-GFP T2 lines identifies several lines expressing different amounts of GME-GFP protein (background WT). After the identification of lines harbouring single insertions (T2 Hyg^R:Hyg^S=3, χ^2 ($\alpha=0.05$)), we selected line L6 (arrowhead) to introduce the *GMEp::GME-GFP* construct into the *gme* mutant (SALK_150208) background using reciprocal crosses. B) Diagnostic PCR of F2 generation from the cross indicated identified plants harbouring *GME-GFP* in homozygous mutant background (arrowheads). Ascorbate content of this line is shown in Figure 7B). C) Immunoblot (α -GFP) analysis of L-GalDH-GFP T2 generation showing the six lines expressing L-GalDH-GFP protein (background WT). After the identification of lines harbouring single insertions (T2 Hyg^R:Hyg^S=3, χ^2 ($\alpha=0.05$)), we selected line L1 to introduce the *L-GalDHp::L-GalDH-GFP* construct into the *lgaldh* mutant (SALK_056664) background using reciprocal crosses. D) Diagnostic PCR of F2 generation from the cross indicated identified plants harbouring *L-GalDH-GFP* in homozygous mutant background (arrowheads). Ascorbate content of this line is shown in Figure 7B). E) Ascorbate content of the T3 generation of lines generated consisting of *vtc2* mutants harbouring *VTC2p::VTC2-GFP*. Three fully expanded leaves were collected on five-week-old T3 plants grown on soil in a growth chamber under short-day conditions (10 h light at 22°C/14 h dark at 19°C), at 60% humidity and 200 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light intensity. Different letters denote statistically significant differences for ascorbate content (One-Way ANOVA, $\alpha=0,05$, post-hoc Tukey test). F) Immunoblot (α -GFP) analysis of VTC2-GFP of two lines containing ascorbate maximum and minimum values. Four days old seedlings were grown under long day conditions in solid half-strength MS agar plates. G) Immunoblot (α -GFP) analysis of VTC4-GFP T2 generation showing the six lines expressing VTC4-GFP protein (background WT). After the identification of lines harbouring single insertions (T2 Hyg^R:Hyg^S=3, χ^2 ($\alpha=0.05$)), we selected line L5 to introduce the *VTC4p::VTC4-GFP* construct into the *vtc4* mutant (SALK_077222) background using reciprocal crosses. H) Diagnostic PCR of F2 generation from the cross indicated identified plants harbouring *VTC4-GFP* in homozygous mutant background (arrowheads). Ascorbate content of this line is shown in Figure 7B).

We analysed the protein levels of the different lines generated in a single blot in order to compare the amount of proteins accumulated in each line. Immunoblot analysis indicated that GME-GFP and VTC4-GFP were easily detectable while L-GalDH-GFP showed reduced levels of proteins (Figure 7C). Interestingly, despite the complementation of ascorbate levels in L13, VTC2-GFP protein was not detected (Figure 7C, upper panel) and was detected only after overexposure of the blot using a high sensitivity ECL substrate for the detection of femtogram amounts of protein. This low amount of VTC2 protein cannot be explained by a low expression of *VTC2* at the transcriptomic level because, based on public available transcriptomic databases, *VTC2* and *GME* show the highest expression of all SW genes in vegetative tissue (Figure 9).

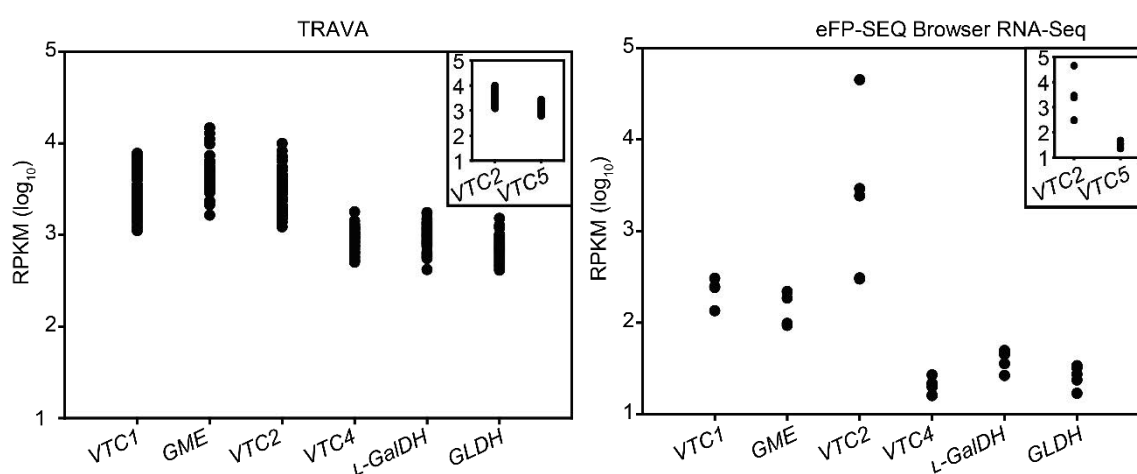


Figure 9. VTC2 mRNA levels are similar to those of VTC1 and GME, although VTC2 protein is hardly detectable. Data were taken from two different public RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) data sets: Transcriptome Variation Analysis (TRAVA, travadb.org; Klepikova et al., 2016) and the eFP-Seq Browser (https://bar.utoronto.ca/eFP-Seq_Browser/; Sullivan et al., 2019) corresponding to different adult plants' vegetative and green tissues, respectively.

Combinatorial expression of ascorbate biosynthesis genes in *N. benthamiana* leaves identifies VTC2 as the main control point of ascorbate biosynthesis

We have shown that that SW proteins are functional when a tag is added to their C-terminus and that a small amount of VTC2-GFP protein is required to increase the content of *vtc2* ascorbate to WT levels. In order to investigate the effect of the activity of ascorbate biosynthesis genes on ascorbate concentration we cloned the coding sequences (CDS) of Arabidopsis *VTC1*, *GME*, *VTC2*, *VTC4*, *L-GalDH* and *GLDH* with C-terminal GFP and HA, driven by the CaMV35S promoter (Figure 10A) and transiently expressed them in *N. benthamiana* leaves. Immunoblot analysis of the SW GFP tagged proteins showed that the molecular masses of the different fusion proteins were consistent with their predicted sizes (Figure 10B). Moreover, based on the low concentration of low molecular weight

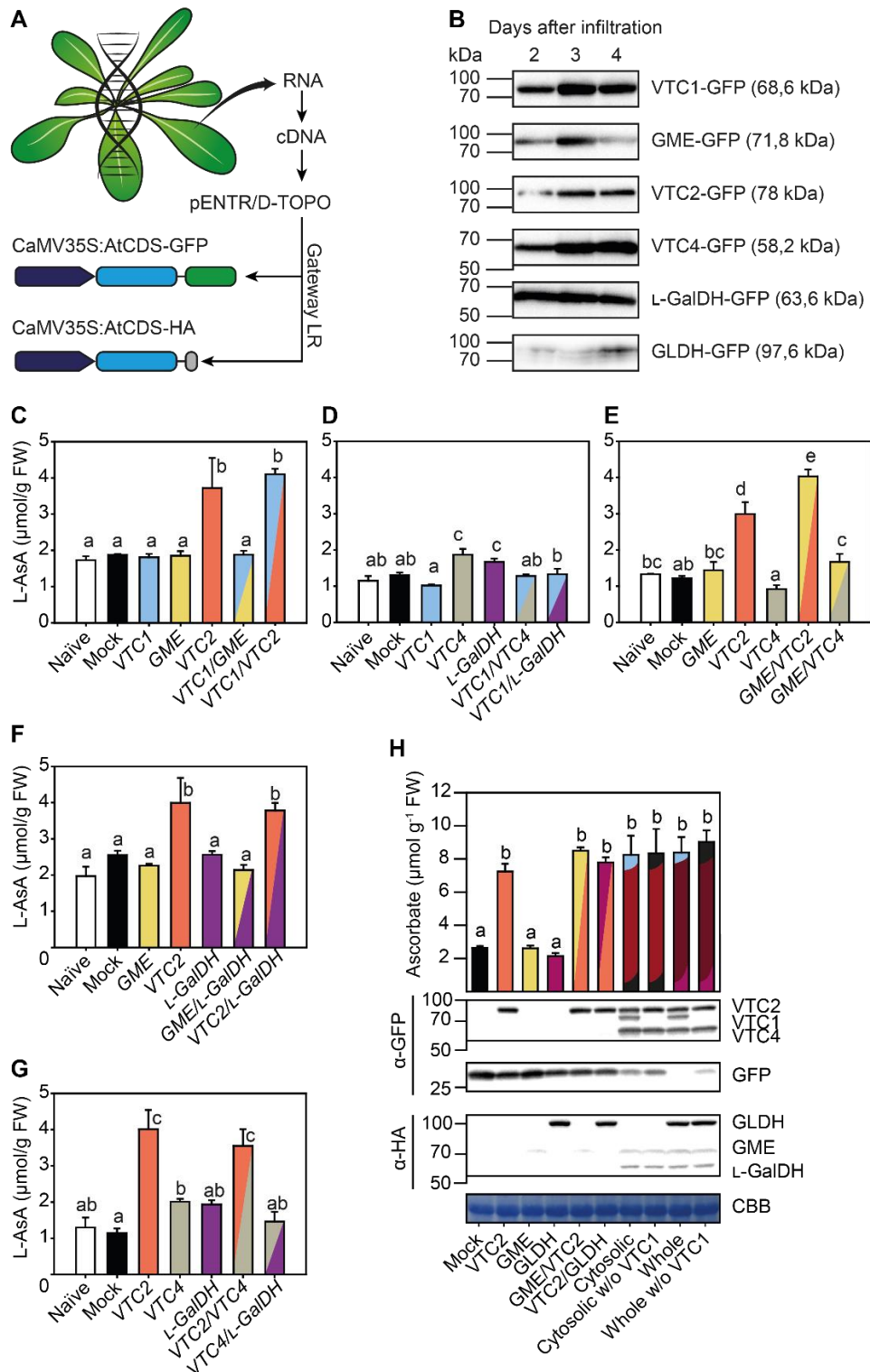


Figure 10. The effect of transient expression of C-terminal GFP and HA fusions of ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes on ascorbate concentration in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves. A) Strategy followed to clone and to overexpress in *N. benthamiana* leaves ascorbate biosynthesis genes from Arabidopsis translationally fused to GFP and HA at the protein C-terminus. B) Immunoblots (α -GFP) of fusion protein accumulation 2, 3 and 4 days after agroinfiltration. Expression was driven by the 35S promoter. Protein amount was measured and loaded to obtain similar intensities in the blot at 2 days after infiltration. C-H) Leaf ascorbate concentration 3 days after agroinfiltration with different combinations of C-terminal GFP and HA fusions of ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes. Constructs used in each infiltration are shown in Supplementary Table 1. Two leaves of at least three *N. benthamiana* plants were infiltrated and samples were collected at 3 days after infiltration. Different letters denote statistically significant differences (One-Way ANOVA, $\alpha=0,05$, post-hoc Tukey test)

fragments of the protein, all the fusion proteins showed little degradation of the proteins at all time points tested (Figure 11). Three days after agroinfiltration, VTC1-GFP, GME-GFP, VTC2-GFP and VTC4-GFP proteins showed the highest expression while L-GalDH-GFP and GLDH-GFP were also well expressed (Figure 10B).

Then, we performed a systematic analysis of the effect of transient overexpression of individual or multiple combinations of these *SW Arabidopsis* genes on the ascorbate concentration in *N. benthamiana* leaves. Based on the expression data showed in Figure 10B, we analysed the ascorbate content 3 days after agroinfiltration. All genes were expressed either individually or in pairs (Figure 10C-G; Appendix 1), and due to the large number of possible combinations, three genes were expressed individually and two genes out of the three were co-expressed in order to analyse the ascorbate content in the same experiment (Figure 10C-G). This experimental design validated the reproducibility of our experimental system since individual genes have been analysed three times with their proper controls (except for *VTC1*, with only two). As shown in Figure 10C, the transient expression of individual *VTC1-GFP* and *GME-GFP* genes did not increase ascorbate content relative to the naïve (not agroinfiltrated) or control (infiltrated with GFP) in *N. benthamiana* leaves. However, expression of *VTC2-GFP* increased ascorbate concentration between 2 and 3-fold. The expression of individual *VTC1*, *GME* and *L-GalDH* genes or any combination of these three genes without *VTC2-GFP* did not significantly increase ascorbate concentration in any of the multiple assays (Figure 10D-G). It also demonstrates that higher levels of *VTC1* (Figure 10C), *VTC4* (Figure 10G) and *L-GalDH* (Figure 10F) do not contribute to increase the ascorbate content, either individually or combined. The combination of *VTC2* with *GME* caused a significant increase in ascorbate relative to *VTC2* (Figure 10E), although the effect was not consistent in all experiments (Figure 10E, H). An increased ascorbate content by combining *GME* and *VTC2* has been previously reported using transient overexpression of kiwifruit *GME* and *VTC2* homologs in tobacco leaves (Bulley et al., 2009).

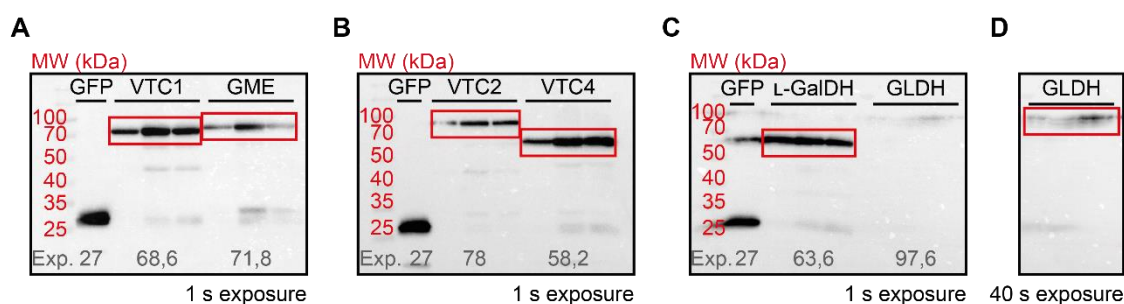


Figure 11. Complete blots corresponding to Figure 10B (red rectangle) show little degradation of the proteins transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana* leaves. Blots A, B and C have the same time of exposure using an ultra-sensitive enhanced chemiluminescent substrate for low femtogram protein level detection. Blot C and D are the same membrane with different exposure times. Protein loads were calculated using FIJI so the amount of protein at the first timepoint were similar among constructs. In red letters, protein mass weigh (in kDa); In grey letters, the expected size of the GFP-tagged protein calculated *in silico*.

Finally, we tested the effect of the simultaneous transient overexpression of all SW cytosolic Arabidopsis genes on the ascorbate concentration in *N. benthamiana* leaves. The expression of all cytosolic components was confirmed by immunoblot analysis (Figure 10H) and increased the ascorbate content to similar levels as produced by expressing *VTC2* alone (Figure 10H). Expressing all the cytosolic enzymes together with the final mitochondrial enzyme *GLDH* also did not increase ascorbate concentration (Figure 10H). Overall, these results point to *VTC2* as the main control point in the biosynthesis of ascorbate.

Subcellular localisation of ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes using GFP-tagged proteins

The biosynthesis of ascorbate up to the L-galactose dehydrogenase step is proposed to take place in the cytosol with the exception of the last step that occurs at the intermembrane space of the mitochondria (Dunkley et al., 2006; Heazlewood et al., 2004; Østergaard et al., 1997; Pineau et al., 2008; Schimmeyer et al., 2016). *In silico* analysis using the software *Compartments* (<https://compartments.jensenlab.org/Search>) predicted a cytosolic subcellular localisation for GME, VTC4 and L-GalDH, an annotated dual cytosolic-nuclear localisation of VTC1 and VTC2 and a mitochondrial localisation of GLDH (Figure 12). Confocal microscopy imaging of C-terminal GFP-tagged proteins transiently

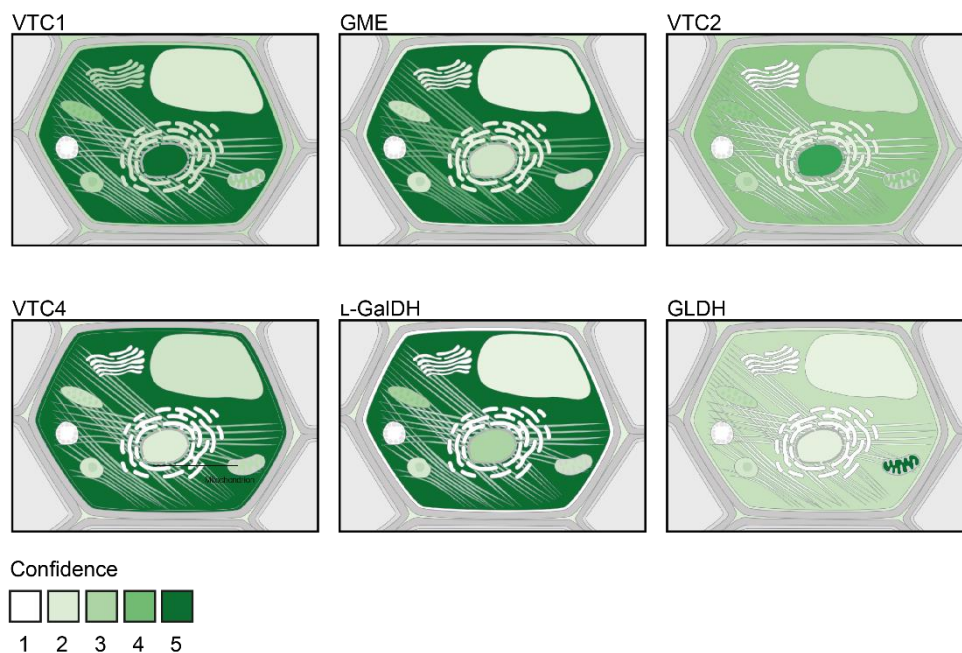


Figure 12. Predicted and/or annotated subcellular localisation of the SW proteins in the plant cell according to Compartments (<https://compartments.jensenlab.org/Search>).

expressed in *N. benthamiana* revealed a cytosolic subcellular localisation for VTC1, GME, VTC2, VTC4 and L-GalDH while GLDH-GFP appeared in structures that resembled mitochondria (Figure 13). Interestingly, VTC1-GFP, VTC2-GFP,

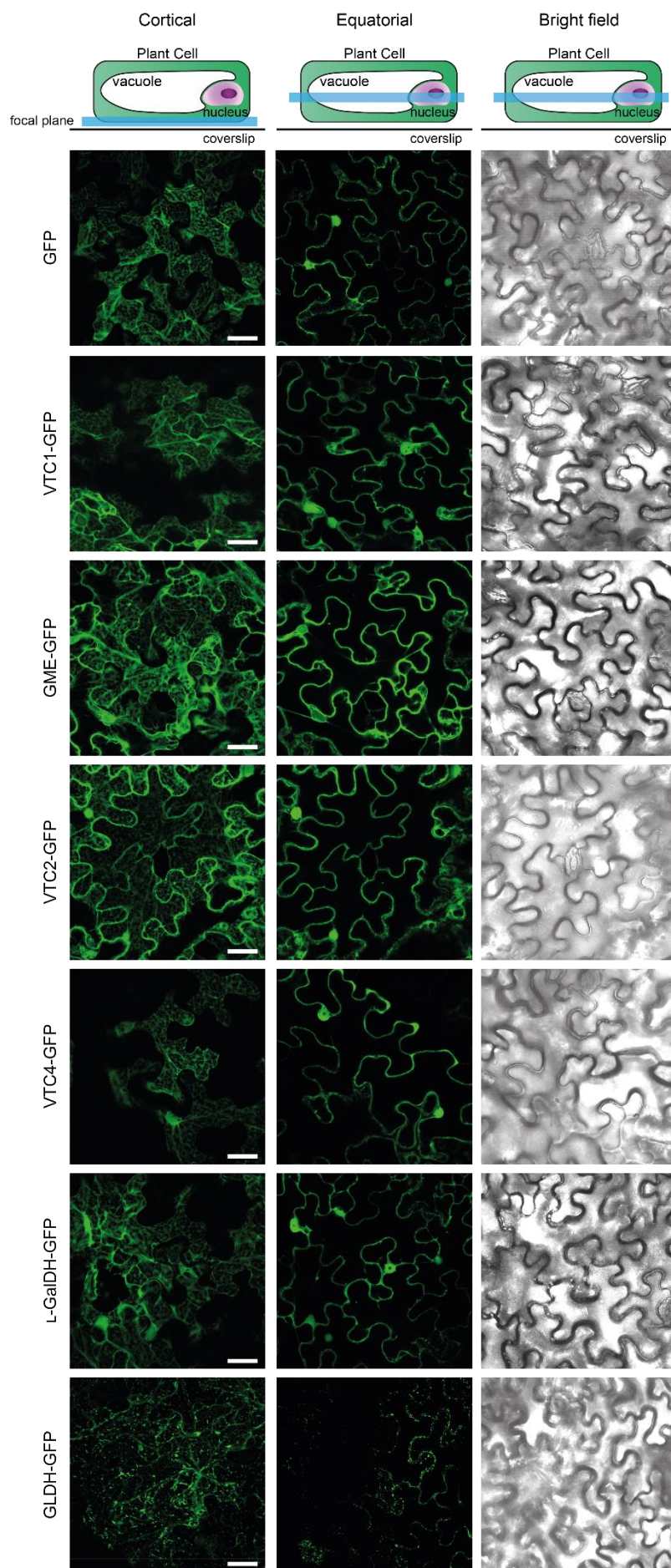


Figure 13. Subcellular localisation of free GFP and C-terminal GFP fusions of ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana* leaves under the control of the 35S promoter 3 days after agroinfiltration. GFP was visualized by laser scanning confocal microscopy. Scale bar = 30 μ m.

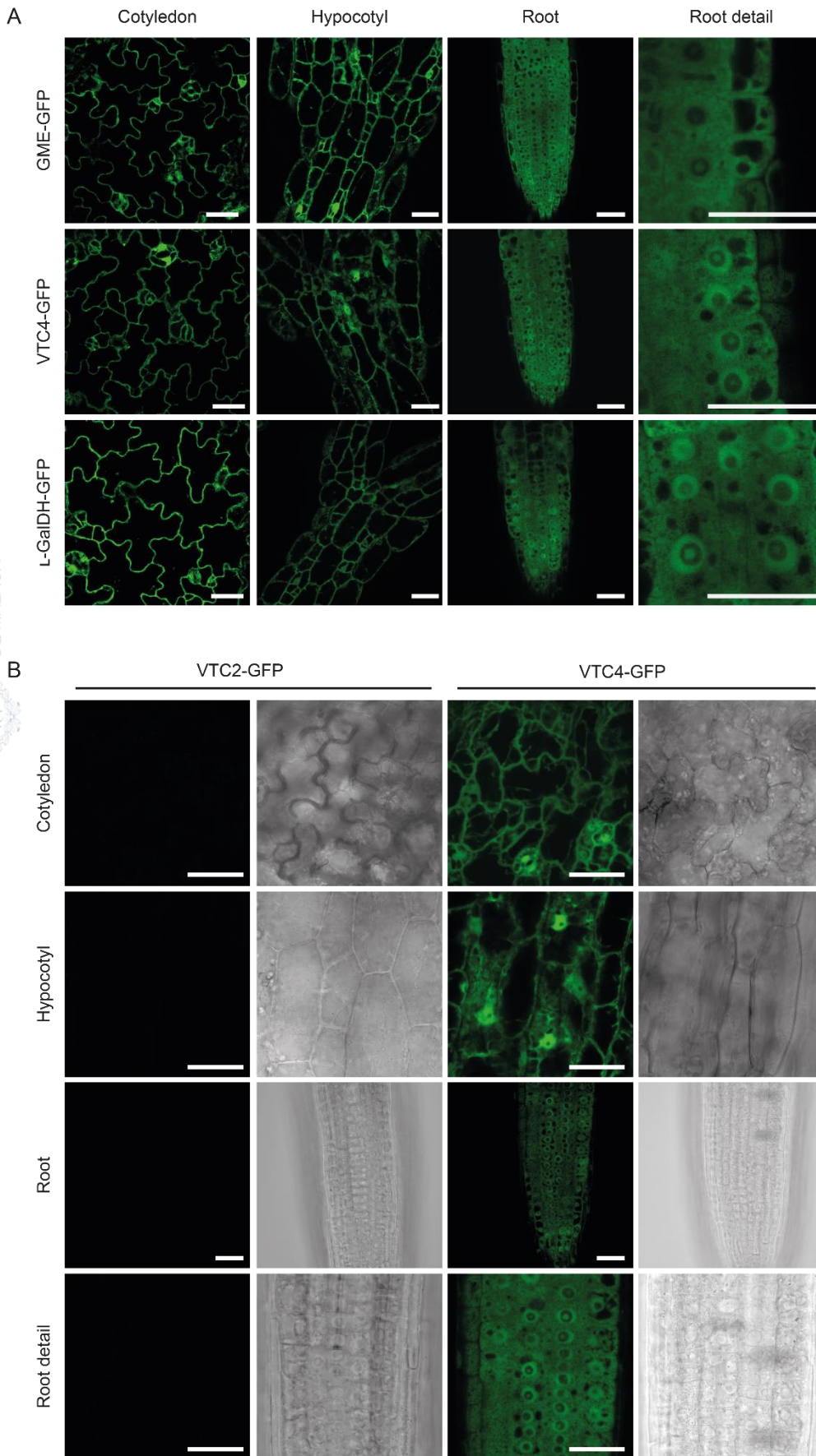


Figure 14. Subcellular localisation of transgenic Arabidopsis lines expressing ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes fused to GFP at the C-terminus under the control of their native promoters. A) The expression of GFP-tagged enzymes is ubiquitous in four days-old seedlings and their subcellular localisation is compatible with cytosol and nucleus except for GME, which only locates in cytosol. **B)** GFP signal of a functional VTC2-GFP (line 13) protein was not detectable. GFP was visualized by laser scanning confocal microscopy. Scale bar = 30 μ m

VTC4-GFP and L-GaIDH-GFP also showed a nuclear localisation in addition to their cytoplasmic localisation, whereas we observed a GME-GFP signal surrounding the nuclei (Figure 13). Evidence for a dual cytosolic-nuclear localisation has been provided for VTC1 and VTC2 using stable transgenic Arabidopsis lines (Müller-Moulé, 2008; Wang et al., 2013), suggesting a potential nuclear function of these proteins. Remarkably, similarly to VTC1, nuclear localisation signals are not predicted for VTC4 or L-GaIDH and, therefore, the localisation reported here was unexpected (Appendix 2).

Because overexpression can result in ectopic localisation of proteins, we used the Arabidopsis transgenic lines that carry functional biosynthetic ascorbate proteins C-terminally fused to GFP and driven by their own promoters to analyse their *in vivo* subcellular localisation as well as their tissue distribution. Cotyledons, cotyledon-hypocotyl junction, hypocotyl and root tip of four-day-old Arabidopsis seedlings were analysed. GME-GFP, VTC4-GFP and L-GaIDH-GFP lines showed a strong fluorescence signal in the cytoplasm (Figure 14A). In addition, VTC4-GFP and L-GaIDH-GFP were present within nuclei-like structures. In roots, these two proteins were present within nucleus as a dot that resembles nucleolus, but they also displayed a ring-like pattern in nucleus whereas GME-GFP showed an even distribution across cytosol (Figure 14A). We did not detect fluorescence signal for VTC2-GFP above the background level (Figure 14B) consistent with the weak signal previously observed in immunoblot analysis (Figure 7C; Figure 8F). Except for VTC2, these data are consistent with the over-expression data of *SW-GFP* constructs in *N. benthamiana*.

Protein-protein interaction assays support a physical association of proteins involved in ascorbate biosynthesis

Enzymes involved in metabolic pathways can associate in order to increase the efficiency of consecutive enzymatic transformations (Smirnov, 2019; Sweetlove and Fernie, 2018). Since VTC1, GME, VTC2, VTC4 and L-GaIDH proteins showed cytoplasmic localisation (Figure 13, Figure 14) we investigated their interaction *in vivo* using yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) (Figure 15; Figure 16A). For this, all ascorbate biosynthesis CDSs (including the mitochondria-localised GLDH as a negative control) were cloned into both binding domain (BD, pGBKT7) and activation domain (AD, pGADT7) yeast vector and tested all 36 possible interactions resulting from the combination of all the enzymes of the pathway in both directions (fused to AD or to BD; Figure 15). As positive controls, we included SNF1/SNF2 (Fields and Song, 1989) and p53/SV40-Large AgT (Iwabuchi et al., 1993; Li and Fields, 1993) interactions, whereas Laminin C/SV40-Large AgT was used as a negative control (Bartel et al., 1993; Ye and Worman, 1995). This analysis did not provide evidence of direct interactions between the enzymes of the pathway, although VTC1, GME and VTC4 showed self-interaction, showing that these proteins were expressed in yeast (Figure 16A). A dimerization interface is predicted for GME and VTC4, while a trimerization domain is predicted for VTC1 (Figure 16B), consistent with our yeast two-hybrid interaction results.

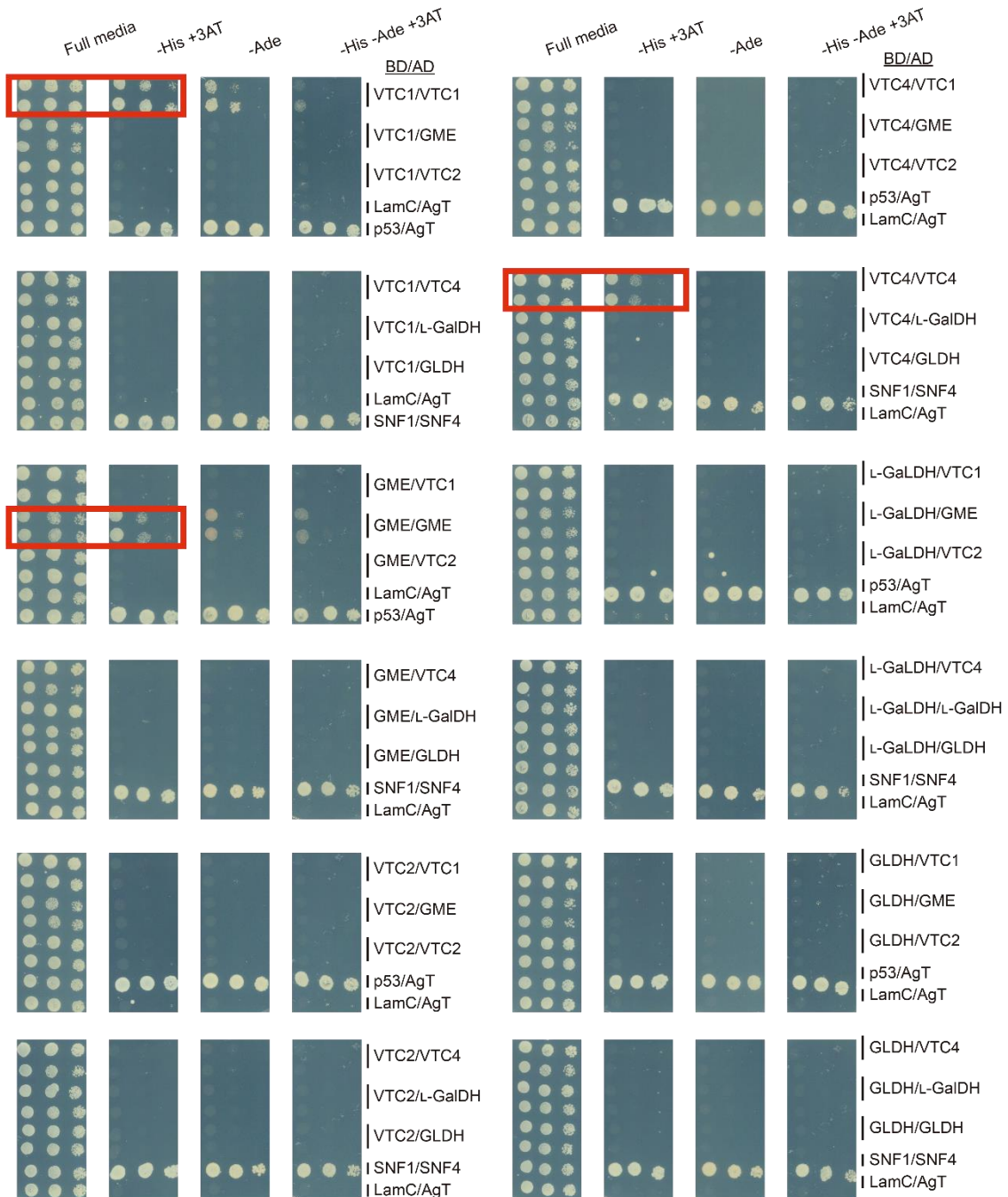


Figure 15. Yeast two-hybrid whole screening. Red rectangles correspond to the spotting presented in Figure 16A. As positive interaction controls, we used SNF1/SNF4 (Fields and Song, 1989) and p53/SV40-Large AgT (AgT; Li and Fields, 1993; Iwabuchi et al., 1993). As a negative control, we included LamC/AgT cotransformation (Bartel et al., 1993; Ye & Worman, 1995). His: histidine, 3-AT: 3-amino-1,2,4-triazole, Ade: adenine.

Despite the apparent lack of direct interactions of ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes in yeast, we investigated whether these proteins could indirectly associate in a model plant. For this, we co-expressed biosynthesis enzymes of the pathway tagged with C-terminal GFP and HA in *N. benthamiana* and performed coimmunoprecipitation (CoIP) assays. We used GFP-Trap beads to immunoprecipitate GFP tagged proteins and α -HA antibodies to detect coimmu-

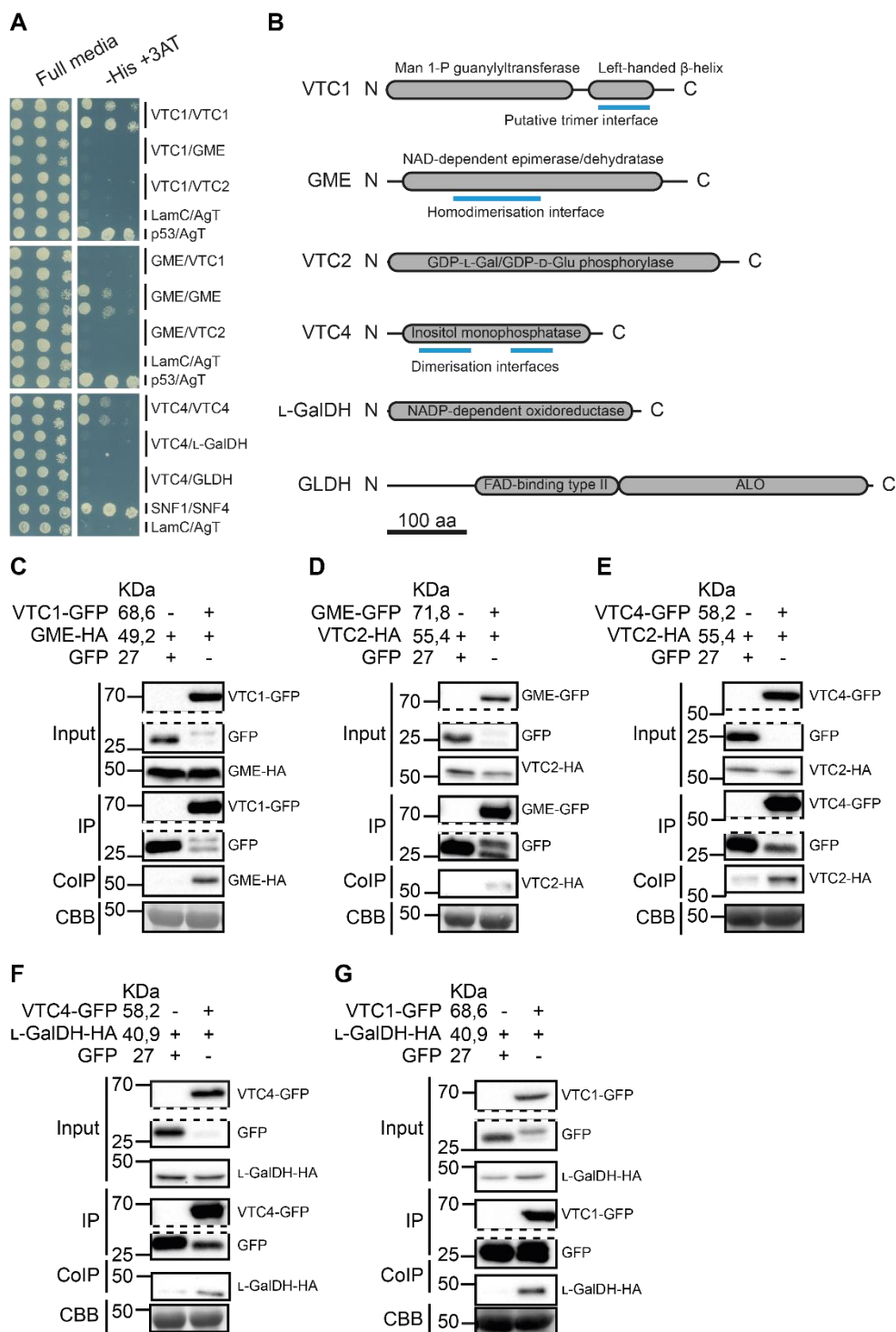


Figure 16. Interaction of ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes assessed by yeast two-hybrid analysis and coimmunoprecipitation (CoIP). (A) Yeast two-hybrid assay (also Figure 15) detected no direct interaction between the enzymes, but VTC1, GME and VTC4, which contain predicted dimerization/trimerization domains (B), form dimers/trimers. (B) Protein scheme for each of the enzymes assayed in yeast two-hybrid showing length (in amino acids), annotated domains and dimer/trimerization interfaces. (C-G) CoIP assay reported association in vivo in *Nicotiana* between consecutive steps as well as between the first (VTC1) and the last (L-GalDH) steps occurring in cytosol. GFP-tagged enzyme from *Nicotiana* crude protein extracts containing two overexpressed consecutive enzymes, GFP and HA-tagged, was pulled-down using α -GFP agarose beads and coimmunoprecipitated protein was detected using α -HA antibody.

noprecipitated HA-fused proteins using immunoblot. We first tested biosynthesis proteins that are consecutive in the pathway (Figure 16C-F), i.e., VTC1/GME, GME/VTC2, VTC2/VTC4, VTC4/L-GalDH. We co-expressed VTC1-GFP and GME-HA to test the interaction, and GFP together with GME-HA as a negative control (Figure 16C) and checked by immunoblot if protein expression was suitable for immunoprecipitation prior to the assay (Figure 17). After immunoprecipitation of VTC1-GFP and free GFP, we detected a specific association between GME-HA with VTC1-GFP but not with free GFP (Figure 16C). Following the same strategy, we found associations between all consecutive enzymes of the pathway (Figure 16D-F). In addition, we also performed CoIP between the first and last cytosolic enzymes of the pathway, i.e., VTC1 and L-GalDH and found a specific association between VTC1-GFP and L-GalDH-HA (Figure 16G).

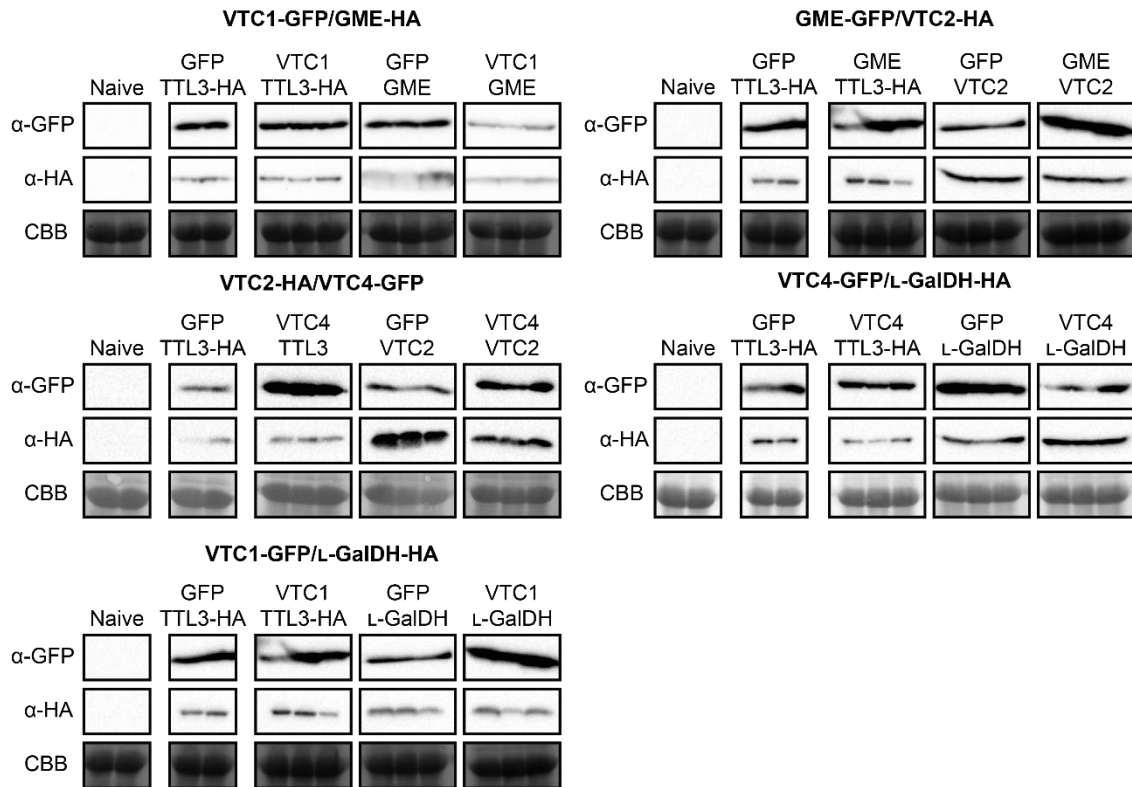


Figure 17. Immunoblot (α-GFP) of *N. benthamiana* leaves crude extracts following agroinfiltration of above-indicated combinations of proteins (also see Appendix 1). Two leaves of 2 or 3 independent plants were infiltrated, using GFP or TTL3-HA (an HA-tagged protein non-related to ascorbate synthesis; Amorim-Silva et al., 2019) to set optical density up to 1.

A kinetic model of ascorbate biosynthesis indicates GDP-L-galactose phosphorylase as the main control point

To further understand the results of over-expression, a kinetic model of ascorbate biosynthesis was constructed using Complex Pathway Simulator (COPASI; Hoops et al., 2006). Reactions were described by reversible Michaelis-Menten kinetics, except for L-Gal 1-P phosphatase/VTC4 and GLDH which were described by irreversible Michaelis-Menten kinetics (Figure 18A). Published K_m values were used except for GGP, which was set to 0.1 mM in the absence of published data (Gatzek et al., 2002; Hoerberichts et al., 2008; Laing et al., 2004; Linster et al., 2007; Maruta et al., 2008; Østergaard et al., 1997; Wolucka and Van Montagu, 2003). The relative activity of enzymes has been reported in only one case (Dowdle et al., 2007) but these are not guaranteed to reflect the maximum rate of each enzyme. Low expression of GGP compared to other pathway enzymes is suggested from very low expression of the GFP fusion which nevertheless rescues ascorbate concentration in the mutant background (Figure 7B, C; Figure 8E, F). However, conservatively, the relative activity of each enzyme (V) was set to the same value (10 mM s^{-1}) but was varied during simulations. Evidence from radiolabelling suggests that ascorbate synthesis is subject to feedback inhibition by ascorbate (Conklin et al., 1997; Laing et al., 2015; Pallanca and Smirnov, 2000; Wolucka and Van Montagu, 2003). The proposed uORF-mediated feedback repression of GGP translation (Laing et al., 2015) was modelled by including non-competitive inhibition by ascorbate. Competitive inhibition of PMI and L-GalDH by ascorbate (Maruta et al., 2008; Mieda et al., 2004) were included, although in the case of L-GalDH, the inhibition could be an assay artefact (Laing et al., 2004). Once synthesised, ascorbate and its oxidation product dehydroascorbate (DHA) can be broken down to a wide range of products (Dewhirst et al., 2020; Dewhirst and Fry, 2018; Green and Fry, 2005). The oxidation of ascorbate to monodehydroascorbate (MDHA) and DHA was included in simplified form including only ascorbate and DHA. The breakdown rate of DHA was described by irreversible 1st order kinetics (Conklin et al., 1997; Pallanca and Smirnov, 2000). It is assumed in the model that all breakdown products are recycled to D-Glc 6-P. This is unlikely to be correct but did not affect model predictions.

The starting parameters used in the model are shown in Appendix 3. The model carried out metabolic control analysis (MCA) at steady state. The effect of changing the strength of feedback repression of GGP by ascorbate on the flux control coefficients for each step are shown in Figure 18B (and data in Appendix 4). At the highest K_i value (relatively weak feedback), all steps up to GGP contributed equally to flux, indicated by similar flux control coefficients. However, biosynthesis steps beyond GGP had very low flux control coefficients and changes in activity of these enzymes would be predicted to have a very small effect on pathway flux. The turnover step also had a significant effect on flux. Decreasing K_i by ten-fold or more resulted in all flux control being shared between GGP and turnover, the pre-GGP steps having very low flux control coefficients. Therefore, for the biosynthesis steps, the model predicts that only GGP controls the flux through the pathway if feedback repression is sufficiently strong.

Correspondingly, concentration control coefficients (i.e. the change in the concentration of each pathway intermediate caused by a change in enzyme activity) for each step were calculated. The results for ascorbate are shown in Figure 18C and for all intermediates in Appendix 5. At the highest K_i value, all steps up to GGP had similar concentration control coefficients indicating change in activity at each step would exert a similar effect on ascorbate concentration.

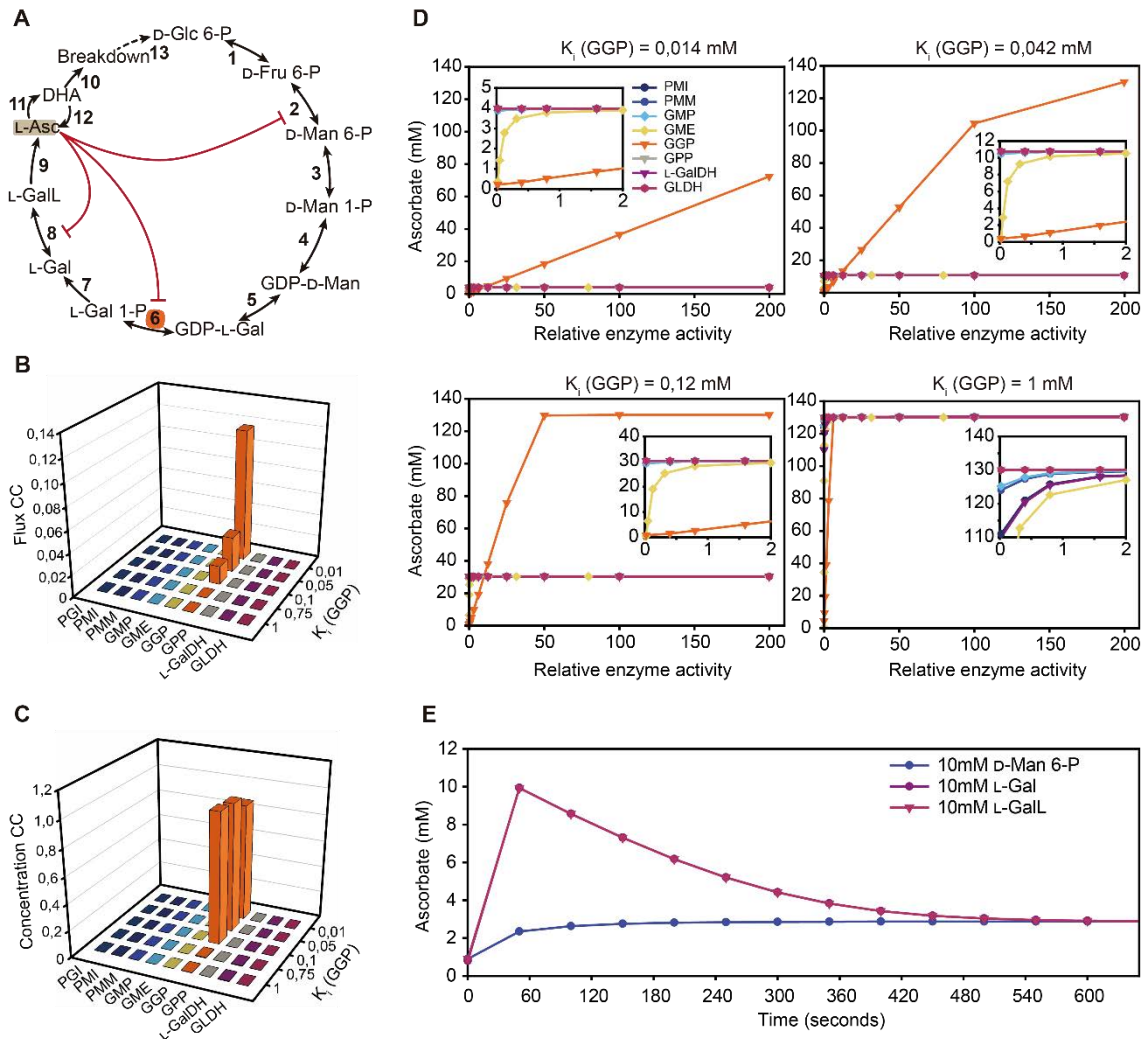


Figure 18. A kinetic model of ascorbate biosynthesis, recycling and turnover. A) Scheme of the pathway modelled in COPASI showing intermediates catalytic steps (arrows) and feedback (red lines). The initial model parameters are shown in Supplementary Table 3. B) Metabolic control analysis at steady state was used to calculate flux control coefficients (CC) for each enzyme with various strengths of non-competitive inhibition exerted by ascorbate (indicated by K_i values) on GGP (step 6). C) Metabolic control analysis at steady state was used to calculate concentration control coefficients (CC) for ascorbate with various strengths of non-competitive inhibition exerted by ascorbate (indicated by K_i values) on GGP (step 6). D) The effect of varying enzyme activity on ascorbate concentration with various strengths of non-competitive inhibition exerted by ascorbate (indicated by K_i values) on GGP (step 6). E) Time course of the change in ascorbate concentration in response to the addition of D-mannose 6-phosphate (D-Man 6-P), L-galactose (L-Gal) and L-galactono-1,4-lactone (L-GalL). 1: PGI, 2: PMI, 3: PMM, 4: GMP, 5: GME, 6: GGP, 7: GPP, 8: L-GalDH, 9: GLDH, 10: Turnover, 11: Oxidation, 12: Reduction).

Increasing feedback strength decreased the concentration control coefficients of all steps except GGP predicting that only this step controls ascorbate concentration. The outcome could be affected by the starting conditions (relative enzyme activities and kinetic constants) but testing the model with varying K_m values or with and without competitive feedback inhibition of PMI and L-GalDH had little effect on ascorbate concentration (Appendix 6). To simulate metabolic engineering experiments, the enzyme activity of each step was increased over a large range and the predicted change in ascorbate concentration at various feedback repression strengths was determined (Figure 18D and Appendix 7). As expected from the MCA, only varying GGP activity had a significant effect on ascorbate over a very wide range of activities and this effect was strongly dependent on the extent of feedback repression. In comparison, it was necessary to decrease the activity of the other enzymes to very low values before ascorbate concentration was affected and this behaviour was particularly marked for the post-GGP steps. The kinetic model therefore reflects the effect of transient expression of the pathway enzymes in *N. benthamiana*: only increasing GGP activity increases ascorbate concentration. Simulation of mannose 6-P addition caused a small transient increase in ascorbate accumulation, while L-galactose and L-galactono-1,4-lactone addition had a large effect (Figure 18E). This differential response reflects the operation of feedback repression at the GGP step.

Discussion

Here, we report the effect of systematic overexpression, individually and in combination, of all genes involved in the SW pathway have on the endogenous ascorbate content using *N. benthamiana* leaves. The GFP-tagged enzymes were functional since translational fusion of GFP at the C-termini of all enzymes increased ascorbate concentration in their respective Arabidopsis mutants. Further, immunoblots of the expressed enzymes showed that they were all well expressed in *N. benthamiana* (Figure 17). Under these experimental conditions, only VTC2/GGP over-expression was able to increase ascorbate concentration, which confirms previous studies (Ali et al., 2019; Bulley et al., 2012, 2009; Laing et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018; Yoshimura et al., 2014; H. Zhang et al., 2018). Interestingly, a *vtc2* mutant containing a VTC2-GFP construct driven by its own promoter and including the 5'-UTR showed an extremely low GFP fluorescence compared to other SW GFP-tagged proteins. This low expression of VTC2-GFP was also reflected in the immunoblot comparing the expression of all the components of the pathway at the protein level (Figure 7C), likely reflecting the translational repression of VTC2 via the conserved uORF in the 5'-UTR (Laing et al., 2015). This is further confirmed by the finding that the overexpression in *N. benthamiana* of VTC2 without the uORF showed a similar amount of VTC2 proteins to other proteins of the pathway (Figure 17). The expected low level of endogenous VTC2 protein in *N. benthamiana*, which also contains the uORF



(Laing et al., 2015), may explain the marked increase of ascorbate after the overexpression of Arabidopsis VTC2 lacking the uORF.

Based on the data presented here and other reports, we constructed a kinetic model based on the known properties of the pathway enzymes that includes the repression of GGP by ascorbate. However, it does not explicitly distinguish between transcriptional, translational, post-translational and metabolite feedback on enzyme activity as the mechanism of repression. This model was used for metabolic control analysis, an approach which determines the distribution of the control of flux and concentration of pathway intermediates in response to small changes in activity of each enzyme in the pathway by calculating flux control and concentration control coefficients for each step (Fell, 1992). This analysis showed that the only step in the biosynthesis pathway that controls pathway flux and ascorbate pool size is GGP as long as feedback repression is included. The other critical step is ascorbate breakdown while the flux control coefficients of all the other steps were negligible. Decreasing the strength of feedback repression by ascorbate on GGP eventually decreased its flux and concentration control coefficients, resulting in control being more evenly distributed across the steps up to GGP. The model predicts that the steps post GGP exert little control and that in the presence of feedback repression, GGP is the only critical step. Consequently, in virtual metabolic engineering experiments, in which each enzyme was changed over a large range, only GGP affected ascorbate concentration.

The model prediction is consistent with the transient expression results shown in this report and with the relatively small effect of over-expressing enzymes other than GGP. In a previous study of transient expression in *Nicotiana tabacum*, GME alone did not affect ascorbate, in accordance with the model, but enhanced the effect of expressing GGP (Bulley et al., 2009). However, in our hands this increase in ascorbate was not always reproducible suggesting that other factors need to be considered such as different carbohydrate status caused by growth conditions. Stable over-expression of GMP and GME has been reported to increase ascorbate in tomato and *N. tabacum* (Badejo et al., 2008, 2007; Li et al., 2019) and the model predicts that these enzymes could be effective if endogenous activity is low. Similarly, increasing the expression of L-GalDH in *N. tabacum* had no effect on ascorbate while antisense suppression in Arabidopsis only had a small effect in high light (Gatzek et al., 2002).

The model outcomes are robust over a range of starting conditions and are minimally affected by the Km values tested nor by the presence/absence of competitive inhibition of PMI and L-GalDH. The model also explains another feature of the pathway, which is that VTC2 and VTC5, the paralogues of GGP in Arabidopsis, do not compensate for each other when knocked out (Dowdle et al., 2007). The control features of the pathway appear to emerge from its architecture in which a strongly repressible GGP step is followed by the irreversible L-Gal 1-P phosphatase and L-galactonolactone dehydrogenase steps. In a previous study comparing the activity of SW enzymes where ascorbate pool size differs under low and high light intensity, only GGP showed increased activity in high light in Arabidopsis (Dowdle et al., 2007). Transcript levels suggest that only VTC2 and VTC5 (and sometimes GME) are responsive to environmental conditions (Li et



al., 2013), and that there is not a coordinated induction of SW genes under high light and low temperature, conditions that increase ascorbate concentration (Laing et al., 2017). The control of ascorbate biosynthesis therefore differs from pathways in which there is coordinated induction of multiple pathway enzymes by transcription factors, for example anthocyanin synthesis (Zhang et al., 2014).

Importantly, the model shows that ascorbate pool size responds to GGP over a wide range and thereby explains how a combination of transcription and feedback repression controls the amount/activity of GGP and provide a mechanism to adjust ascorbate pool size to prevailing conditions. Light is the best studied factor and ascorbate adjusts to the prevailing light intensity over several days (Page et al., 2012). The mechanism likely involves a changed balance between increased transcription of GGP via a possible photosynthesis-derived signal and light response promoter elements (Gao et al., 2011; Yabuta et al., 2007) and ascorbate repression of translation via the uORF. In addition to the transient expression assays showing the role of the uORF in translational repression of GGP (Laing et al., 2015), CRISPR-Cas9 editing of the uORF in *Arabidopsis*, lettuce and tomato increases ascorbate, confirming its role in repression of ascorbate synthesis in diverse species (Li et al., 2018; H. Zhang et al., 2018). Faster control could also occur if ascorbate status more directly affects GGP activity via direct inhibition or post-translational modification. These latter possibilities have not been investigated but could operate since ascorbate addition relatively rapidly decreases incorporation of ^{14}C -glucose or mannose into ascorbate (Pallanca and Smirnoff, 2000; Wolucka and Van Montagu, 2003). It is not known if ascorbate or a proxy of ascorbate concentration exerts repression and, also, the mechanism by which the uORF controls GGP translation is not known.

In addition to investigating the effect of enzyme overexpression on ascorbate accumulation, we used tagged enzymes to investigate subcellular localisation and the formation of enzymatic complexes. With the exception of GLDH, the cytosolic localisation of the SW enzymes is consistent with the in-silico prediction (Figure 12). In this study, we have shown that all SW proteins are present in the cytosol (Figure 13; Figure 14). Interestingly, in addition to VTC1 and VTC2 that were previously reported to localise in the nucleus (Müller-Moulé, 2008; Wang et al., 2013) VTC4 and L-GaIDH also showed nuclear localisation (Figure 13; Figure 14) despite the lack of nuclear localisation signals (Appendix 2). Whether or not this nuclear localisation is functionally important remains to be determined but several metabolic enzymes moonlighting in the nucleus have been previously reported (Boukouris et al., 2016).

Using CoIP in *N. benthamiana* we have shown that enzymes catalysing consecutive steps in the pathway associate (Figure 16C-F) as well as proteins catalysing distant enzymatic steps such as VTC1 and L-GaIDH (Figure 16G). However, no direct interactions were found using yeast two-hybrid analysis (Figure 15). It could be possible that the N-terminal position of both AD and BD could be impairing the interactions involving VTC2 or L-GaIDH but not the other enzymes, since self-interactions of VTC1, GME and VTC4 proved otherwise. Furthermore, previous studies reported ascorbate-producing yeasts by heterologous expression of the plant pathway in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, thus

lightening that these proteins can be stabilised in yeast (Branduardi et al., 2007; Fossati et al., 2011). The lack of direct interaction in yeast but the positive associations in *N. benthamiana* may indicate that the enzymes might require the presence of each other so that the interaction would not be detectable in the yeast two-hybrid assay. Although this deserves further investigation it is tempting to speculate that some of the ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes might form a functional enzymatic complex (metabolon) that could potentially channel pathway intermediates to increase flux and perhaps aid partitioning of GDP-D-mannose and GDP-L-galactose between ascorbate and polysaccharide synthesis. Such channeling has been shown for a number of pathways (Amorim-Silva et al., 2019; Smirnov, 2019; Sweetlove and Fernie, 2018; Zhang et al., 2017).

In conclusion, metabolic engineering experiments using the last six enzymes of the SW pathway show that only GGP has significant control over the pathway, and we have developed a kinetic model that provides a rationale for this result. It is clear that the balance of VTC2/VTC5 amount is controlled by a combination of transcription and translation repression, largely, but not entirely mediated by the uORF mechanism. In addition, we have produced a set of complemented mutants from GME to L-GalDH tagged with GFP that provides a resource for further investigation of the SW pathway.





CHAPTER 2



A brief introduction

Ascorbate is known to exert a plethora of roles in plants, some of which are extensively described in the introduction of this thesis. Among them, ascorbate was proposed to have a role in growth and photoprotection (Smirnoff et al., 2000), although recent experiments using the ascorbate deficient mutant *vtc2-1* suggest that ascorbate is essential for growth but it is not so clear its photoprotective role (Plumb et al., 2018). However, there are experimental evidences supporting otherwise. For example, dehydroascorbate (DHA), the oxidised form of ascorbate, is an electron acceptor from ferredoxin, the last component of the photosynthetic electron transport chain in chloroplasts (Asada, 1999), hence preventing the formation of O_2^- . Also, ascorbate can act as an electron donor of photosystem II (Tóth et al., 2013) preventing the manganese cluster from photodamaging under circumstances such as high light-induced stress (Tyystjärvi, 2008). Therefore, this data support that ascorbate is essential for the response to the oxidative stress caused by high irradiance. In the previous chapter we have shown that only the overexpression of *VTC2* increases the biosynthetic flux of the pathway and, therefore, its protein concentration is regulated accordingly. More recently, it has been reported that ascorbate accumulation under high light stress not only requires a higher rate of biosynthesis but also mechanisms to prevent a massive degradation of ascorbate, which rely on DHA reductases and glutathione (Terai et al., 2020). Therefore, increase of the ascorbate pool under adverse environmental conditions depends on both ascorbate biosynthesis and turnover. Likewise, the stationary ascorbate content will depend on the translation of *VTC2* as well as on its degradation. It has been well established that *VTC2* is translationally regulated (Laing et al., 2015), but very little is known about its degradation. *VTC1*, the enzyme catalysing the conversion of D-mannose 1-phosphate into GDP-D-mannose acting upstream *VTC2*, is finely regulated even though an increase in its protein content does not lead to ascorbate accumulation (Figure 10C, D). Wang and collaborators (2013) have shown that the photomorphogenic factor CONSTITUTIVE PHOTOMORPHOGENESIS9 (COP9) signalosome subunit 5B (CSN5B), which is part of the CSN complex that regulates the cullin-RING E3 ubiquitin ligase activity (Schwechheimer and Isono, 2010), is required for *VTC1* degradation through the 26S proteasome pathway in the dark, hence repressing ascorbate biosynthesis during the night, i.e., in conditions with no photosynthesis. We have reported that *VTC2*, the main regulator of the pathway is also subjected to proteasome regulation, although the exact molecular mechanism remains elusive.

In this chapter, we investigated the effect that high irradiance, which leads to increase ascorbate, has on ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes concentration. We used transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants containing functional GFP-tagged proteins of the SW pathway under the control of their own promoter in their respective mutant backgrounds previously generated (Chapter 1). In addition, we



have generated *vtc2/VTC2-GFP* transgenic lines expressing *VTC2-GFP* under the 35S promoter due to the low amount of VTC2 protein produced in those lines when driven by the *VTC2* promoter. Taking advantage of this biological tools, we studied the evolution in the content of SW proteins along a day/night cycle.

Results

Higher ascorbate content as a response to high light correlates with lower amounts of enzymes involved in ascorbate biosynthesis.

Light intensity is considered one of the main factors determining the amount of ascorbate in green tissues in such a way that the greater the irradiance the higher the content (Laing et al., 2017). However, how the ascorbate content correlates to the concentration of biosynthetic enzymes remains elusive. Therefore, we investigated if the increase in the content of ascorbate during high light acclimation was caused by a rise in the SW protein concentration.

To perform this study, we generated Col-0 Arabidopsis transgenic lines harbouring the genomic regions (including promoter region) of Arabidopsis genes involved in the cytosolic steps of the pathway. The resulting proteins (from GME to L-GalDH) contained a GFP fused to C-terminus (Figure 5; Figure 7, Figure 8; Figure 19A). Transgenic T2 lines carrying single insertion also showing high expression based on immunoblot analysis were selected. These lines were then crossed with their respective mutants in order to generate complementing lines with C-terminal GFP-tagged proteins (Figure 19B). As showed in Chapter 1, all enzymes tagged with GFP were functional and rescued ascorbate levels. The only exception was GME-GFP, which prevented the lethality of the mutation although contained ~50% of WT ascorbate content (Figure 7B).

Due to the impossibility to amplifying the complete genomic region of *VTC2* despite several attempts, we generated a construct that contained the promoter region including 5' UTR/uORF and the CDS of *VTC2* (*VTC2p:VTC2-GFP*) (Figure 19C). Remarkably, *VTC2-GFP* protein was either not detected or weakly detected in all the T2 transformants analysed by immunoblot despite using an ultra-sensitive enhanced chemiluminescent substrate for low femtogram protein level detection. Therefore, based on the WT growth of *vtc2* mutants and the easily scored phenotype (20% of ascorbate), we transformed *vtc2-4* plants and selected transformants based on increased ascorbate content and the presence of a single insertion (Figure 19D, F). This allowed the selection of two independent lines, C12 and C13, with significantly higher ascorbate than *vtc2-4* (Figure 19F). However, while line C12 showed an amount of ascorbate similar to WT plants, line C13 showed a greater content than the WT. This content correlated with the higher amount of protein in C13 than C12, however, both lines presented hardly detectable amounts of *VTC2-GFP* protein, further supporting that the amount of endogenous *VTC2* protein is very little compared with the other cytosolic proteins of the SW pathway.



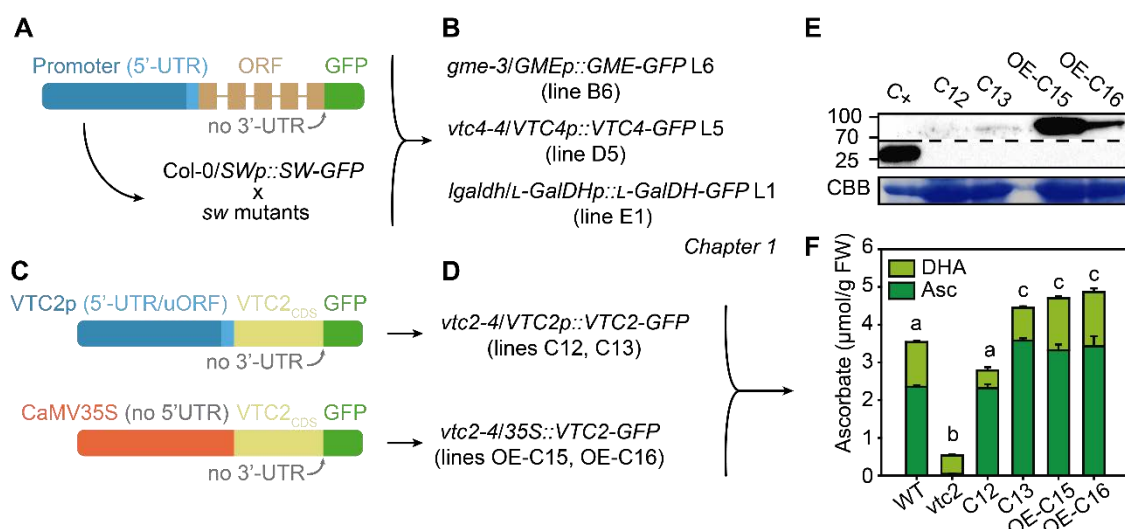


Figure 19. Genomic constructs used to generate Arabidopsis transgenic lines. A, B) Genomic constructs used to generate Arabidopsis transgenic lines in Chapter 1 (Line B6: GMEp::GME-GFP line 6; Line D5: VTC4p::VTC4-GFP line 5; line E1: L-GalDH::L-GalDH-GFP line 1). C, D) Transgenic lines generated for this chapter (lines C12, C13: VTC2p::VTC2-GFP; lines OE-C15, OE-C16: 35S::VTC2-GFP). E) T3 generation of homozygous *vtc2/VTC2-GFP* lines showed a broad range of VTC2-GFP concentration that, however, rescued ascorbate content (F). Ascorbate was extracted from three fully expanded leaves from five-week-old T3 plants grown on soil in a growth chamber under short-day conditions (10 h light at 22°C/14 h dark at 19°C), at 60% humidity and 200 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ light intensity. Means±SD are shown, and different letters denote statistically significant differences for ascorbate content (One-Way ANOVA, α=0,05, post-hoc Tukey test).

In addition, we generated transgenic lines in *vtc2-4* background with the VTC2 CDS driven by *CaMV35S* promoter. This construct lacks the 5' UTR/uORF and therefore is not subjected to translational control (Figure 19C, D, E). Two homozygous lines with single insertions, *OE-C15* and *OE-C16* were selected that showed an increased amount of ascorbate content relative to WT plants (Figure 19F). Consistent with the regulatory role of VTC2 uORF, these lines presented high amounts of VTC2-GFP protein that could be readily monitored by immunoblot (Figure 19E). Notably, total ascorbate level in line C13 was similar to that in VTC2-overexpressing lines and greater than WT under the same growth conditions (Figure 19F), meaning that despite the large difference in the concentration of VTC2-GFP, the increase in ascorbate level is limited.

Overall, we described above the generation of homozygous lines carrying loss-of-function mutations in their endogenous SW genes of the cytosolic steps harbouring their respective GFP-tagged enzymes driven by their endogenous promoters that resulted in functional translational fusions. In addition, we have generated *vtc2* plants complemented with a VTC2-GFP but using two different approaches. In the first approach, the transcription and the translation of VTC2 is controlled by the VTC2 promoter and its 5'-UTR/uORF, respectively. In the second approach, the VTC2-GFP is driven by the constitutive *CaMV35S* promoter (Figure 19D, E) not including the 5' UTR, thus lacking both transcriptional and translational control.

In order to investigate how differences in light intensity that translated into differences in ascorbate affect the content of SW proteins plants were grown for 7 weeks at $100 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (standard irradiance). Then, plants were transferred to low light intensity ($57.5 \pm 2 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and high light intensity ($770 \pm 10 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) for 4 days and collected the samples half-way through the light period. As expected, high light caused an increase in ascorbate content in WT plants, from $1,25 \mu\text{mol/g FW}$ in low light to $2,4 \mu\text{mol/g FW}$ in high light. This 90% difference in ascorbate levels between high and low light indicated that these conditions were suitable for further analysis. We then analysed the ascorbate content and the protein levels of transgenic lines expressing GME-GFP, VTC4-GFP and L-GalDH-GFP. In addition to the GFP-tagged lines in mutant background, we analysed the content of the transgenic lines in WT background in order to discard differences at protein levels that might be caused for differences in gene copy number.

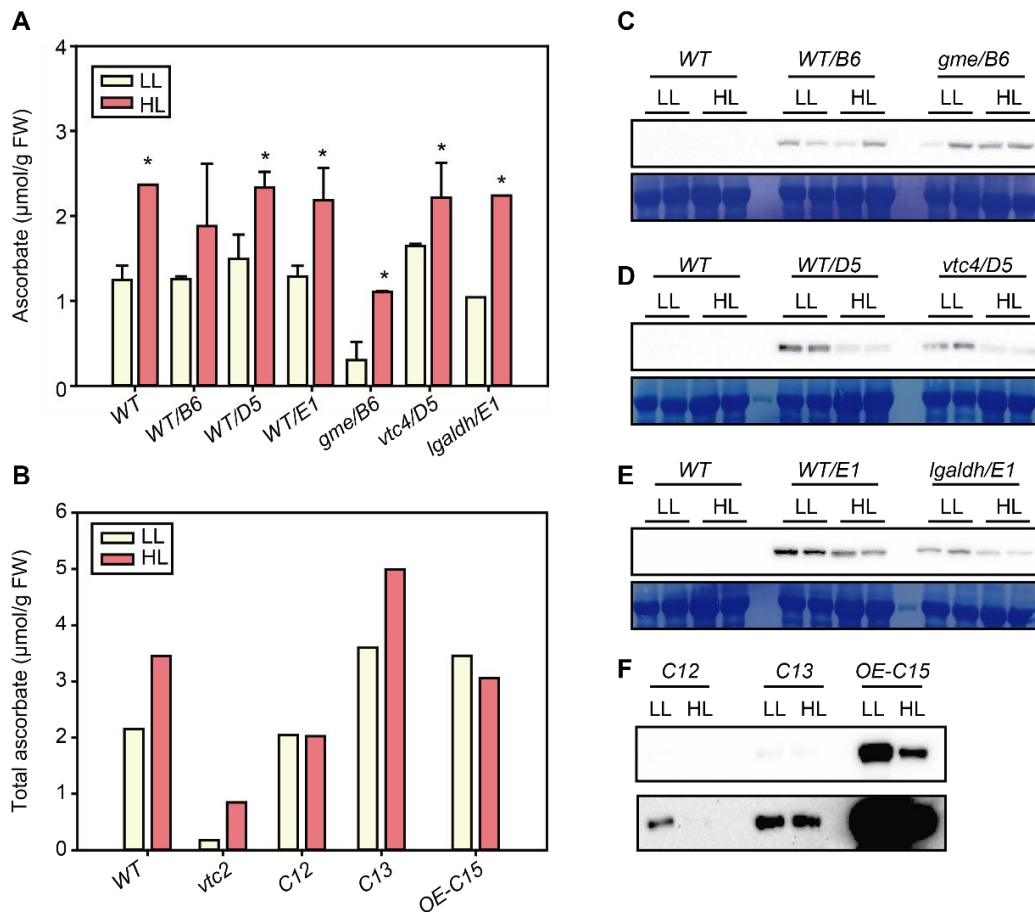


Figure 20. Effect of light intensity on the Arabidopsis transgenic lines generated in this work. Ascorbate levels increased up to 2-fold in response to high light (A, B). Mean and standard deviation are displayed ($n=2$) in A. Asterisks denote significant differences between low (LL) and high light (HL) based on confidence intervals ($\alpha=0.05$). Values displayed in B represent ascorbate levels for 12-plants pools. C) α -GFP immunoblot shows that GME-GFP protein level did not change when grown under different light intensities. Two independent biological replicates are shown for each light treatment and genotype. D) α -GFP immunoblot shows that VTC4-GFP and L-GalDH-GFP (E) did respond to light intensity accumulating enzyme under high light. F, α -GFP immunoblot following VTC2-GFP concentration using GFP-Trap columns, above – 11s exposure, below – 1000s exposure. LL, low light. HL, high light. Asc, ascorbate. DHA, dehydroascorbate.

As shown in Figure 20A, most of the transgenic lines showed an ascorbate content between 1.3 to 2-fold higher in high light than in low light, similar to the increase shown by WT plants. The only exception was *gme/GME-GFP*, that showed 3,6-fold increase in ascorbate content under high light conditions.

For *VTC2*, we analysed five-week old plants of C12, C13 and OE-C15 at the same light conditions previously described. In addition to WT plants we also included *vtc2-4 (vtc2)* in the analysis. At high light, WT and *vtc2* plants showed higher ascorbate content than plants grown at low light intensity (Figure 20B). Interestingly, ascorbate content of *vtc2* was 5-fold greater in high irradiance than in low irradiance, while WT plants showed a 1.6-fold difference. Therefore, ascorbate content in *vtc2* mutants was 8% of WT under low irradiance but 25% under high irradiance. Surprisingly, C12 and OE-C15 lines did not increase the ascorbate content in high light conditions, suggesting that the activation of *VTC2* in these lines was not happening properly. This is not the case for line C13, in which the ascorbate content was ~40% higher in high light thus behaving as WT plants.

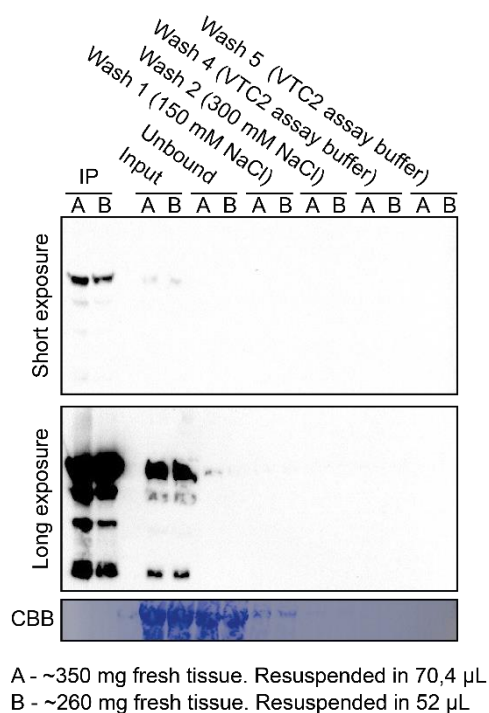


Figure 21. GFP-Trap column-mediated VTC2-GFP concentration from Arabidopsis OE-C15 line quality control. Two independent extracts from different amounts of tissue belonging to plants grown under high light intensity were performed from a single 12-plants pool.

To determine whether there is a correlation between the light-dependent ascorbate content and the amount of SW enzymes, we performed immunoblot analyses using GFP antibodies of protein extracts from the different lines previously analysed. When we analysed the expression of *GME-GFP* we did not find differences in the protein amount. This is somewhat expected because, in addition to ascorbate biosynthesis, *GME* has an essential role in the biosynthesis of cell wall polysaccharides. Surprisingly, *VTC4-GFP* and *L-GalDH-GFP*, two enzymes entirely dedicated to ascorbate biosynthesis, showed higher protein concentration when plants were grown under low light intensity (Figure 20D, E).

Our previous data, together with published data covered in the introduction, indicate that *VTC2* is the main regulatory step on ascorbate biosynthesis (Chapter 1). Although *VTC2-GFP* is detected using a highly sensitive immunoblot detection system in crude extracts of the overexpressing lines (Figure 19E, Figure 20F), it did not provide enough sensitivity in lines in which *VTC2-GFP* is driven by its own promoter. Therefore, we first concentrated the *VTC2-GFP* protein of C12 and C13 lines using GFP-

Trap columns which allowed the detection of VTC2-GFP (Figure 20F; Figure 21). In addition to C12 and C13 lines we used the OE-C15 line as a control (Figure 20F, bottom panel). In order to further validate the functionality of VTC2-GFP fusion protein, we used extract A from immunoprecipitation showed in Figure 21 to measure the conversion of GDP-D-glucose into D-glucose 1-P by GC/MS (Figure 22). VTC2 catalyses the conversion of GDP-D-glucose into D-Glucose 1-P in a phosphate-dependent manner (Linster et al., 2007). The incubation of VTC2-GFP attached to α -GFP agarose beads used to concentrate this protein with GDP-D-glucose led to an increase of D-glucose 1-P concentration only in the presence of phosphate after 1 hour. Therefore, VTC2-GFP exerts its enzymatic activity not only *in vivo* but also *in vitro*.

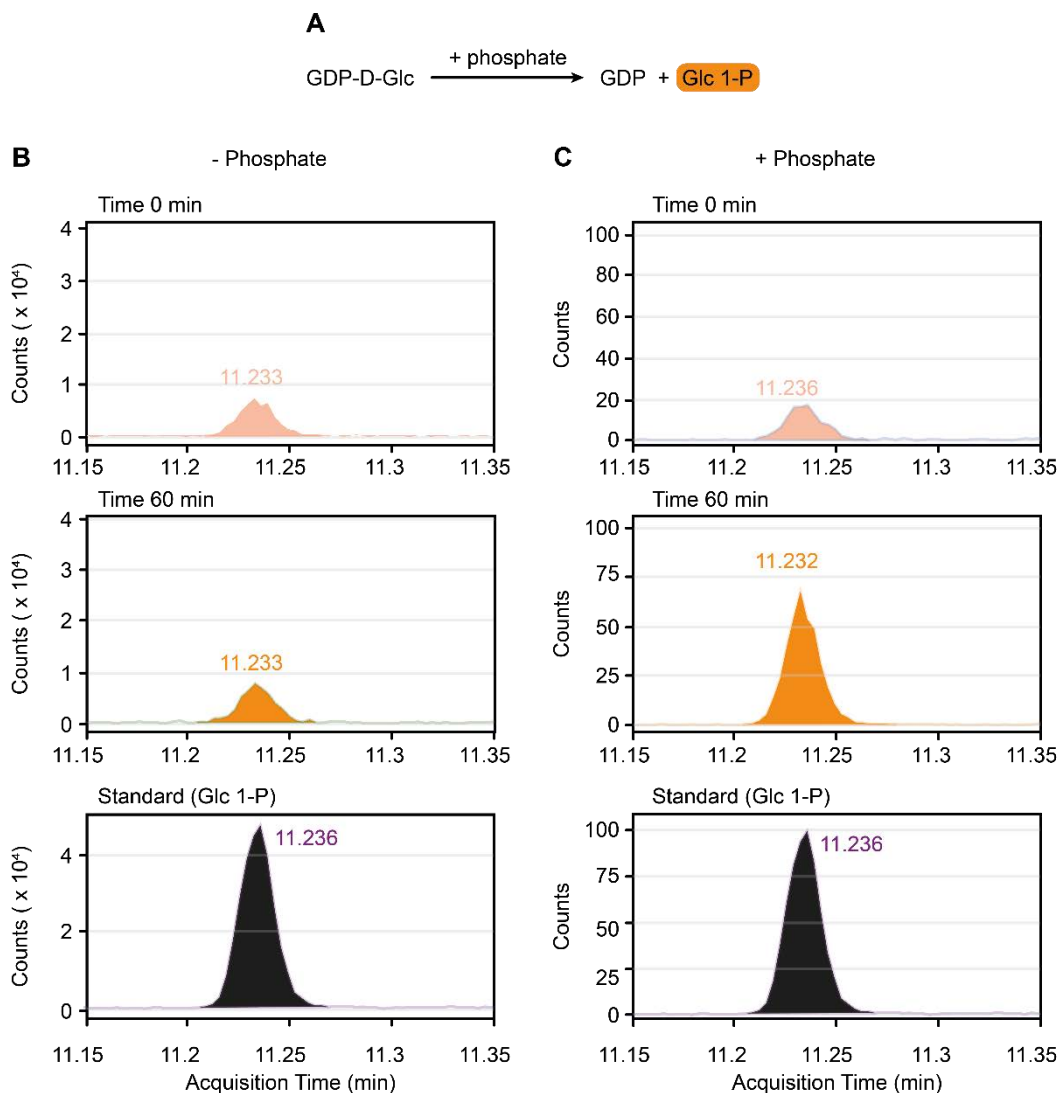


Figure 22. Immunoprecipitated VTC2-GFP shows enzymatic activity. A) VTC2 catalyses the conversion of GDP-D-glucose into D-glucose 1-P (Linster et al., 2007) in a phosphate-dependent manner. VTC2 enzymatic activity was measured as the increase in D-glucose 1-P eluted at the same retention time than the standard (bottom panel) by GC/MS. Reaction was measured at time 0 (prior to mock/phosphate addition) and after 60 minutes of mock (B) or phosphate (C) addition.

The concentration of VTC2-GFP was lower in plants exposed to high irradiance compared with those grown under low light intensity. This reduction of VTC2-GFP protein occurred regardless of the promoter driving VTC2-GFP expression and the response of ascorbate. The finding that C13 and OE-C15 presented similar amounts of ascorbate despite the significantly higher amount of VTC2-GFP in OE-C15 (Fig. 19E, F; 20F) suggests that the rise of ascorbate is dependent on an increased activity rather than on the content of VTC2. Since the reduction in the amount of VTC2 protein in response to light also occurs in the OE-C15, it is tempting to speculate that factors other than mRNA amount and translation are involved. Post-translational modifications such as phosphorylation could trigger an enhanced VTC2 activity given that the phosphorylated state of both, VTC2 and VTC5, was detected in all thirty tissues studied in the recently released *Arabidopsis*' phosphoproteome (Mergner et al., 2020). The phosphorylation occurs in a highly conserved N-terminal threonine among photosynthetic organisms' VTC2-like proteins (Figure 23). Its substitution by a serine residue, which is also a substrate for Ser/Thr kinases-mediated phosphorylation, occurs in some species of higher plants that also contain a Thr-containing copy, with the only exception of *Setaria italica*.

In summary, our results show that those enzymes exclusively dedicated to ascorbate biosynthesis such as VTC2, VTC4 and L-GalDH, decrease their protein content when growing at high light intensity. These results are rather unexpected but are compatible with a high irradiance-induced VTC2 increased activity reported in previous studies (Dowdle et al., 2007), which adds a new layer of regulation of VTC2. Further studies of the enzymatic activities are needed in order to shed light on the regulation of this pathway in response to different light conditions.

VTC2-GFP accumulates during the day and falls after entering the dark period

Previously, we analysed the responses of ascorbate and protein amount of VTC2 to different light intensities. Considering that previous studies showed that VTC2 maximum enzymatic activity takes place a few hours after the transcript curve peaks during the light period (Dowdle et al., 2007), we aimed to investigate the responses of ascorbate and VTC2 protein amount of during a day/night cycle. During the light period, the transcript levels of VTC2 and enzyme activity vary despite growing under constant light intensity. Using available expression data (<http://bar.utoronto.ca/>; Michael et al., 2008), VTC2 shows dramatic changes in expression during short days (8 hours light, 16 hours dark) (Figure 24). The maximum of VTC2 expression occurs around 4 hours into the light period and then decreases ~4-fold at the end of the light-beginning of the night period. Therefore, we hypothesized that the high expression of VTC2 in light could result in higher protein content.

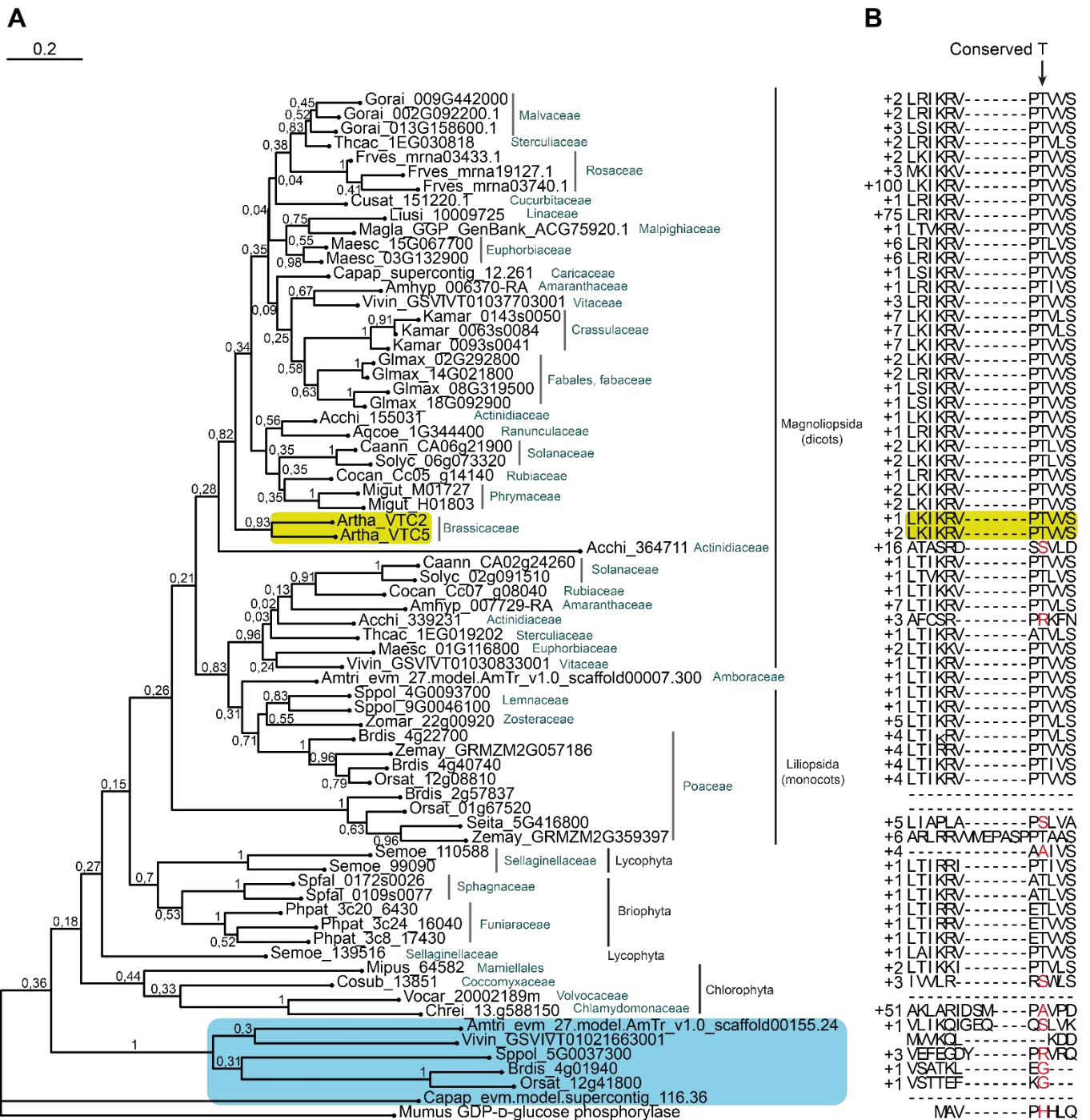


Figure 23. Arabidopsis VTC2 N-terminal threonine is highly conserved among photosynthetic organisms. The evolutionary history was inferred by using the Maximum Likelihood method and JTT matrix-based model (Jones et al., 1992). The tree with the highest log likelihood (-35643.28) is shown. A) Evolutionary analysis by Maximum Likelihood method. The percentage of trees in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown next to the branches. Initial tree(s) for the heuristic search were obtained automatically by applying Neighbor-Join and BioNJ algorithms to a matrix of pairwise distances estimated using the JTT model, and then selecting the topology with superior log likelihood value. This analysis involved 71 amino acid sequences. There was a total of 985 positions in the final dataset. Numbers at the nodes are bootstrap values (0-1). B) Multiple alignment of the various species' N-terminus of all proteins used in this study (see Appendix 8) show that threonine (arrow at the top), its position and its aminoacidic context are highly conserved. Substitutions of threonine by serine (S), which is also a substrate for Ser/Thr Kinases. Only *Setaria italica* (Seita) presents one Ser-containing sequence but not Thr. Blue-shaded sequences refer to outgroups with large dissimilarities to VTC2. All species containing these sequences also had a copy highly similar to VTC2. The number of N-terminal aminoacids preceding the sequence displayed are indicated at the beginning of the alignment. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA X (Kumar et al., 2018).

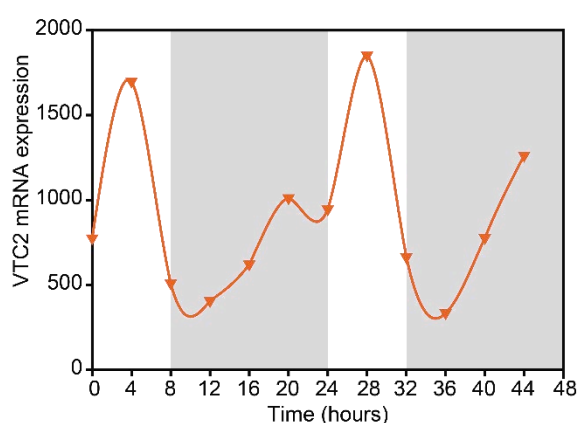


Figure 24. VTC2 expression during two light/dark cycles in short day conditions. Data extracted from Michael et al., 2008.

First, we measured ascorbate (Figure 25) and total ascorbate levels (Figure 26) at different time points along the day focussing on the light/dark transition period. We used 5-week-old WT, *vtc2*, C12, C13, OE-C15 and OE-C16 plants growing at short days (8h light/16h dark). Ascorbate contents of WT and *vtc2* plants were barely altered during the entire light/dark cycle (Figure 25A) even though there was a large difference in the amount of ascorbate between these two lines. Line C12 showed a similar pattern and ascorbate remained constant.

The level of ascorbate of line OE-C16 was similar to that of WT plants (Figure 25C) while lines C13 and OE-C15 contained higher content of ascorbate during the light period (Figure 25A, C), despite substantial differences in the content of VTC2-GFP (Figure 19E). Immediately after entering the dark period, the high VTC2 expressing lines C13, OE-C15 and OE-C16, underwent a decrease in ascorbate level (Figure 25A, C) and it remained steady until the end of the night with similar values to WT. We then measured total ascorbate, which included ascorbate and its oxidised forms (monodehydroascorbate and dehydroascorbate) and normalised the values to that measured at time 0.5 hours. Total ascorbate increased during the day and accumulated by the end of the light period in WT and *vtc2* (Figure 26A, B) as previously described (Dowdle et al., 2007). During the dark period, total ascorbate decreased within the first 30 minutes and increased until the middle of the night (Figure 26A, B). Similarly, line C12 followed this pattern with an early drop of total ascorbate content during the light period, and a more acute increase at the beginning of the night (Figure 26C). However, in those lines with high expression of VTC2-GFP, total ascorbate did not change during the day (Figure 26D, E, F), while the evolution of total ascorbate during the dark period was similar to WT. Noticeably, the evolution pattern of total ascorbate of the lines with high expression of VTC2-GFP mirrored that of ascorbate, meaning that these variations solely depended on ascorbate and not on its oxidised forms.

We then determined the content of VTC2-GFP protein in the transgenic lines using immunoblot analysis. As shown in Figure 25, VTC2-GFP accumulated towards the end of the light period in all lines, including those driven by their own promoter (Figure 25B) and driven by the 35S (Figure 25D). Additionally, VTC2-GFP protein amount decreased shortly after the light/dark transition, independently of the promoter driving the expression of VTC2. These results suggest that the amount of VTC2 is dependent on its stability (i.e., on its

degradation) rather than translational regulation. Despite ascorbate levels and the amount of VTC2-GFP did not perfectly correlate during the light period (Figure 25), lines with high expression of VTC2-GFP showed that ascorbate and total ascorbate changed according to protein amount, in the night period (Figure 26).

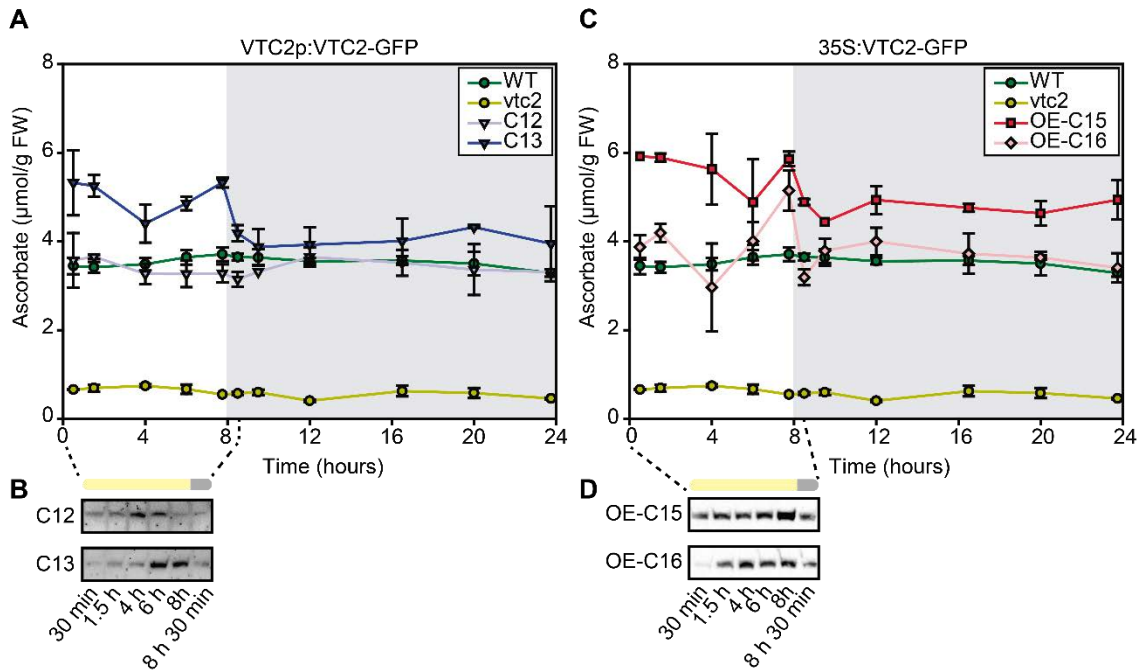


Figure 25. Evolution of ascorbate (A, C) and protein (B, D) concentration along a short day in *Arabidopsis* transgenic lines expressing VTC2-GFP under the control of VTC2 promoter (A, B) or 35S promoter (C, D). Wild type and *vtc2* plants were also included as controls. The shaded area represents the night period. Ascorbate data showed represent mean \pm SD (n=2).

Interestingly, VTC2-GFP in line C12, which virtually behaves like WT plants, only correlated to the concentration of total ascorbate. The fact that during the dark period the transgenic lines presented roughly WT levels of ascorbate supports that the activity and not the amount of VTC2-GFP determines the production of ascorbate.

Proteasomal regulation of proteins involved in ascorbate biosynthesis

Using available expression data, we analysed the expression at the transcriptional level of the last five genes of the pathway, i.e., *GME*, *VTC2*, *VTC4*, *L-GaIDH* and *GLDH* genes in plants grown under long day conditions (16h light/8h dark). Interestingly, all genes encoding cytoplasmic proteins showed differential expression throughout the day except for *GLDH* (Figure 27A). Genes that encode cytosolic proteins showed one peak in their expression except *VTC2*, with two peaks of expression, at 4 and 16 hours in the day period. Remarkably, at 4 hours of into the light period, the expression of all genes showed a change in their tendency. Although there are differences in the amplitude of the changes, *VTC4* and *GME* showed opposed expression patterns with peaks at 4 and 24 hours. *L-GaIDH* expression increased during the light period peaking at 8 hours in the

daytime. These genes showed day/night rhythmicity and it is known that *VTC2* is controlled by the circadian oscillator. Using available data (Covington and Harmer, 2007) we found that in addition to *VTC2*, the expression of *VTC5* and *L-GaIDH* also showed a circadian regulation (Figure 27B, C).

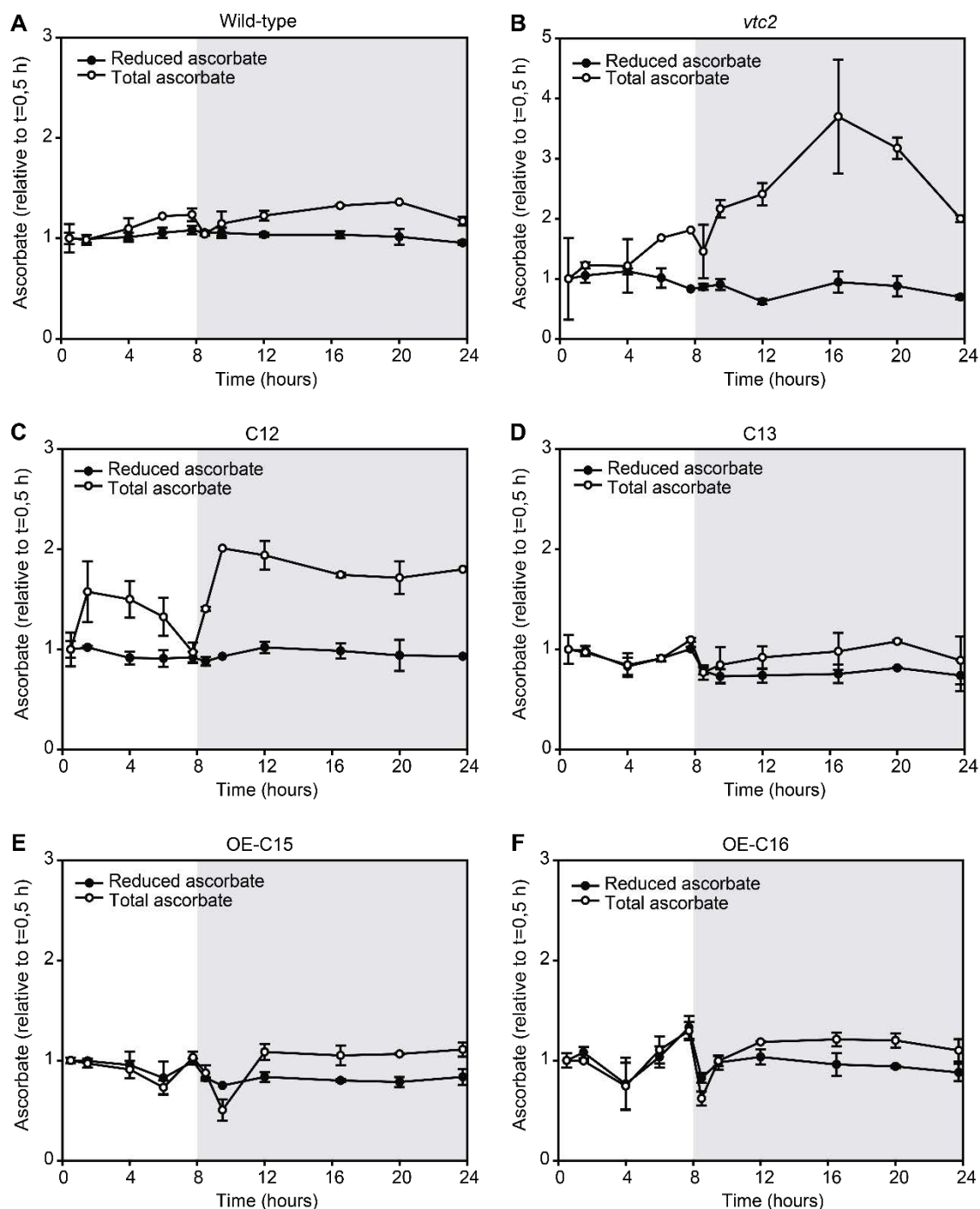


Figure 26. Evolution of ascorbate and total ascorbate (i.e., ascorbate + MDHA + DHA) in a normalised scale along a short day in *Arabidopsis* transgenic lines expressing *VTC2*-GFP under the control of *VTC2* promoter (C, D) or *35S* promoter (E, F). Wild type (A) and *vtc2* (B) plants were also included as controls. The shaded area represents the night period. Ascorbate data showed represent mean and SD (n=2). Values are normalised to that measured at time 0.5 hours.

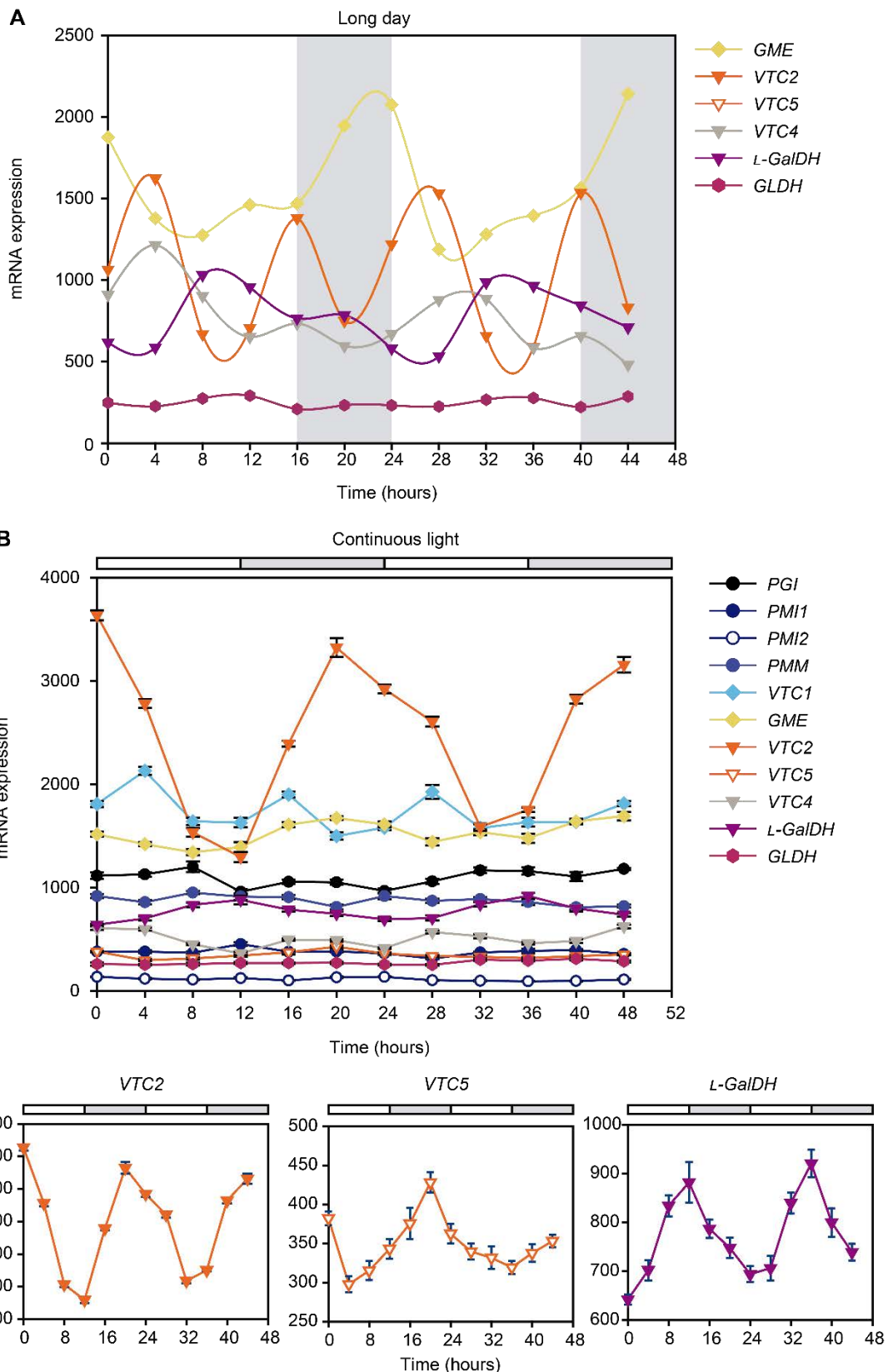


Figure 27. The expression of the Smirnoff-Wheeler genes shows day/night rhythmicity. A) Ascorbate biosynthesis genes expression for two light/dark cycles under long day conditions (extracted from Michael et al., 2008). B) Gene expression of the SW genes in seedlings entrained in 12-h white light (light source was cool white fluorescence tubes; fluence rate $\sim 120 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{sec}^{-1}$)/12-h dark cycles for 7 d before being released into free-running conditions of continuous white light at 22 °C. Starting at subjective dawn of day 9, tissue was harvested every 4 h over the course of the next 44 h. C) *VTC2*, *VTC5* and *L-GalDH* are considered circadian regulated according to Covington and Harmer (2007) ($p\text{MMC-}\beta < 0.05$ and $19 \leq \text{period} \leq 29 \text{ h}$). Data extracted from (Covington and Harmer, 2007).

Protein stability has previously been shown to affect ascorbate biosynthesis. More specifically, VTC1 degradation requires the photomorphogenic factor CSN5B for protein degradation through the 26S proteasome pathway in the dark (Wang et al., 2013). VTC2-GFP accumulates at the end of the day and that its content is reduced after entering the dark period. The finding that this reduction also occurs in lines lacking the translational regulator 5'-UTR/uORF suggests that protein stability is important for the regulation of VTC2. Therefore, we investigated whether a similar mechanism could be also playing a role in the regulation of the stability of other ascorbate biosynthesis proteins such as GME, VTC2, VTC4 and L-GaIDH using the transgenic lines previously developed (Figure 19C, D).

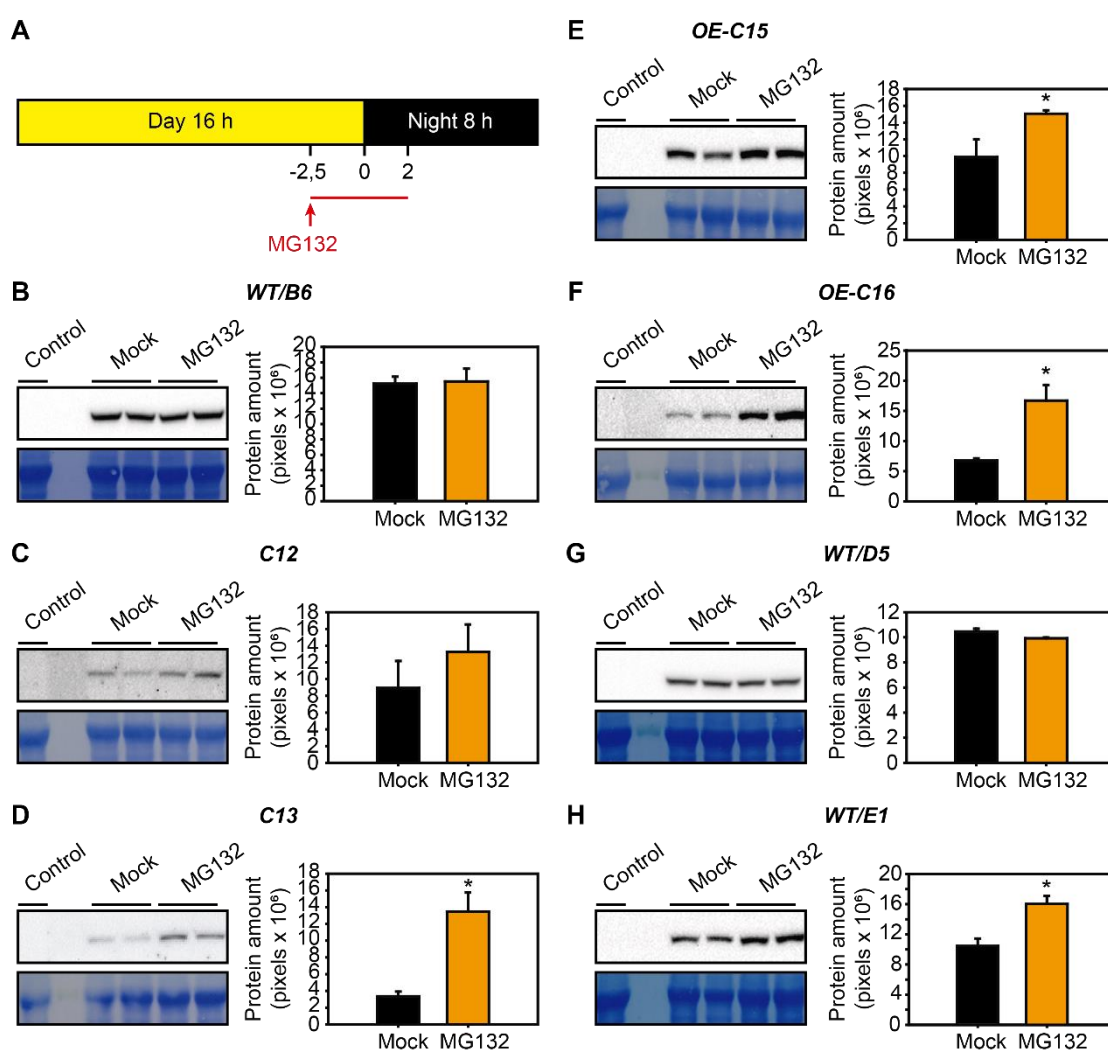


Figure 28. Proteasome inhibitor MG132 leads to the accumulation of VTC2 and L-GaIDH in Arabidopsis transgenic lines during the dark period. A) 12 days-old seedlings were submitted to 4,5 hours of 10 μ M MG132 treatment in liquid half-strength MS after three days of acclimation or the equivalent volume of DMSO (Mock), starting 2,5 hours prior to the beginning of the dark period. B-H) Immunoblot (α -GFP) and its quantification using Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012; Schneider et al., 2012) of two independent replicates consisting of at least 30 seedlings under mock and MG132 treatment at the end of the 4,5 hours of treatment of the various transgenic lines generated in this thesis. Arabidopsis transgenic lines used in this assay are described in Figure 19. Bar charts display mean+SD. Statistical significance (*) was inferred from confidence intervals ($\alpha=0.05$) due to the difference between standard deviations.

Ten-days old seedlings were grown in solid media and transferred to liquid media for three days for acclimation in long day conditions to maximise biomass yield in a shorter time on plates. Two and a half hours prior to the beginning of the dark period, seedlings were treated either with DMSO (mock) or with 26S proteasome inhibitor MG132 and collected duplicated samples after two hours into the dark period (Figure 28A). Immunoblot analysis showed that proteasome inhibition did not affect the amount of GME or VTC4 protein (Figure 28B, G). However, VTC2-GFP and L-GalDH-GFP showed protein accumulation in the presence of MG132, supporting that these proteins are regulated by the proteasome (Figure 28C, D, E, F, H). Particularly striking was the 4-fold increase after MG132 treatment compared to mock in seedlings of L16 line in which VTC2 expression is driven by its own promoter (Figure 28F). The finding that VTC2 lines driven by the constitutive 35S promoter also increase the amount of protein in the presence of MG132 further supports that VTC2 is regulated by the proteasome. Taken together, our results indicate that GME and VTC4 are not regulated by the 26S proteasome while L-GalDH showed a 1,5-fold increase after proteasome inhibition by MG132. Interestingly, inhibition of the proteasome caused a significant increase in the content of VTC2 (between 3-4-fold) regardless the promoter driving VTC2 expression or the presence of the 5'-UTR/uORF.

Discussion

High light intensity leads to oxidative stress caused by ROS produced as a consequence of the Mehler reaction during photosynthesis. This oxidative stress is reduced by ascorbate in the Foyer-Asada cycle (Asada, 1999). In this study we have investigated the response to light of all *sw-mutant/SW-GFP* transgenic lines generated in this work using different approaches. High light treatment of the transgenic lines, which caused an increase in ascorbate content, paradoxically led to a decrease of VTC2, VTC4 and L-GalDH content, which are enzymatic steps of the SW pathway committed to ascorbate biosynthesis. In contrast, GME, whose product is also involved in non-cellulosic cell wall polymers and glycoprotein biosynthesis, did not change its concentration. Interestingly, the proportion of ascorbate increase due to higher light intensity was similar (~2-fold) among lines except in those containing lower contents of ascorbate than WT (i.e., *gme/GME-GFP* and *vtc2*), which exhibited a more pronounced increase of ascorbate in high light (~3.5 and 5-fold, respectively). This suggests that other mechanisms different from biosynthesis, such as recycling or reduced degradation of ascorbate, are contributing to compensate ascorbate deficiency.

VTC2 is translationally regulated by an upstream open reading frame located within its 5'UTR (Laing et al., 2015). VTC2 showed a consistent pattern of protein accumulation during the light period followed by a sharp decrease immediately after entering the dark period (within 30 min), that do not correlate with the ascorbate content. However, total ascorbate showed a better correlation



with the amount of VTC2 protein, suggesting that the biosynthesised ascorbate is rapidly oxidised thus keeping a stable level of ascorbate but increasing that of total ascorbate. Considering these results, light and the day/night cycles have an impact in the concentration of ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes, likely because under low light intensity the requirement of ascorbate supply to scavenge ROS is lower than under high irradiance. Therefore, it is possible that the decrease of ascorbate biosynthesis in the dark is the result of the reduction of VTC2 activity, caused by post-translational modifications of the protein through phosphorylation. However, our data support that proteasomal regulation of VTC2 concentration is an important regulatory control point. It has been previously described that VTC1 degradation is promoted by COP9-signalosome subunit 5B. As a consequence, *csn5b* mutant has 30% more ascorbate content than WT plants due to a higher concentration of VTC1 (Wang et al., 2013). However, under the growing conditions set in our laboratory and according to a simulation analysis of metabolic control of ascorbate biosynthesis (Figure 10; Figure 18), the increase of VTC1 protein amount and enzymatic activity do not lead to an increase in the content of ascorbate. The fact that the CSN complex also regulates VTC2 protein amount becomes a plausible possibility since an additional biochemical evidence brings to the table a putative coordinated regulation of VTC1 and VTC2 in the cell wall biosynthesis of non-cellulosic compounds. The convergence of ascorbate and cell wall precursors biosynthetic pathways has been extensively covered in the introduction of this thesis. However, the fact that VTC1 catalyses the conversion of D-glucose 1-phosphate into GDP-D-glucose in the presence of Mn^{2+} (Jamil, 2018) was not discussed. GDP-D-glucose is involved in the biosynthesis of cell wall glucomannans (Liepman et al., 2005). The reverse reaction to that described by Jamil (2018) for VTC1, i.e., the conversion of GPD-D-glucose into D-glucose 1-P, is known to be catalysed by VTC2 (Linster et al., 2007). The opposition between these two enzymatic activities would need a coordinated regulation of these two proteins leading to the activation/deactivation of cell wall biosynthesis regulated by VTC1 and VTC2, respectively. Therefore, we proposed the alternative hypothesis by which the increased ascorbate content in *csn5b* mutant could be due to an accumulation of VTC2. Furthermore, the CSN complex also regulates the circadian function in *Neurospora* (Z. Zhou et al., 2012) so VTC2 protein stability, similarly to mRNA expression, might be regulated by the circadian clock. Alternatively, but also suggesting the importance of the circadian clock in VTC2 stability, previous yeast two-hybrid screening identified a PAS/LOV (Light-Oxygen-Voltage) protein as an interactor of both VTC2 and VTC5 whose interaction was diminished under blue light (Ogura et al., 2008). A LOV domain containing blue-light photoreceptor is also found in ZEITLUPE (ZTL), a protein regulator of the circadian oscillator (Más et al., 2003). Its interaction with TOC1, another circadian regulator, triggers TOC1 degradation in the dark, which can be stabilised by a proteasome inhibitor (Más et al., 2003). Therefore, it is possible that ZTL could be promoting VTC2 degradation in the dark hence increasing the control of the circadian clock over ascorbate concentration. Supporting this

hypothesis, L-GalDH, whose gene expression also displays circadian rhythm (Figure 27C; Covington and Harmer, 2007), also accumulated upon proteasome inhibition. Moreover, GME and VTC4, whose gene expression did not display circadian rhythm, were not affected by proteasome inhibitor treatment (Figure 28).

To conclude, in this chapter we have characterised the response of the ascorbate biosynthesis pathway and the protein level and the dynamic of VTC2, the main regulator of the pathway in response to high light conditions and during the day/night cycle. Here, we have shown that high irradiance leads to a reduced concentration of ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes (Figure 20) and that the accumulation of VTC2 does not necessarily correlates with higher ascorbate content (Figure 19E). Furthermore, we have shown that the proteasome is an important determinant of VTC2 protein stability whose interaction potentially opens a new approach on engineering VTC2 stability to increase ascorbate in crop plants. This could lead to increased tolerance to a number of abiotic stresses (Akram et al., 2017) such as salinity (Wang et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2012) and oxidative stress in crops of interest (Cai et al., 2016; Fenech et al., 2019; Hu et al., 2016). Other positive aspects on identifying regulatory mechanism of ascorbate accumulation are improving nutritional value, enhancing post-harvesting preservation of nutritional properties and extending fruit shelf life (Antunes et al., 2013; Stevens et al., 2007).



CONCLUSIONS



1. In this thesis we have developed a set of tools consisting of *Arabidopsis thaliana* mutants in the SW genes complemented with their respective enzyme fused to GFP whose expression is driven by its own promoter.
2. Molecular analysis of the transgenic lines generated in this work have provided information on the expression of SW enzymes downstream of VTC1. While GME and VTC4 show detectable expression, the levels of VTC2 proteins are hardly detectable supporting a regulatory role.
3. Metabolic engineering studies reveal that only the overexpression of VTC2 leads to a biologically significant increase of ascorbate concentration, which is further enhanced by the coexpression with GME.
4. Overexpression of the whole SW pathway in *Nicotiana benthamiana* supports the lack of substrate limitation during the biosynthesis of ascorbate, at least, downstream from VTC1.
5. Metabolic Control Analysis performed using the available kinetics data on SW proteins supports that VTC2 provides the most relevant activity controlling ascorbate concentration and ascorbate feedback inhibition.
6. All ascorbate biosynthesis enzymes localise in cytosol and nucleus, except GME, which only locates in cytosol after transient overexpression in *N. benthamiana*. This is further supported by the confocal analysis of the *A. thaliana* complemented transgenic lines.
7. The protein-protein interaction studies performed in *N. benthamiana* suggest that the cytosolic enzymes associate in an indirect manner pointing to the formation of an enzymatic complex assembly.
8. Ascorbate concentration does not correlate with the protein concentration under high and low light intensities in *A. thaliana* since, with the exception of GME, the amount of cytosolic enzymes were lower in high light than in low light.
9. VTC2 accumulates during the day and decrease after 30 minutes after entering the dark period. This regulation of VTC2 stability after entering the dark period is determined by the proteasome.
10. The dynamics of ascorbate concentration during a day/night cycle does not correlate well to VTC2-GFP amount, although dehydroascorbate does.







MATERIAL & METHODS



Plant material

Arabidopsis thaliana (L.) Heynh wild-type (WT) and transgenic lines generated were in Col-0 ecotype. *Arabidopsis* mutants *vtc2-4* (SAIL_769_H05; Lim et al., 2016), *vtc4-4* (SALK_077222; Torabinejad et al., 2008) and *gldh* (SALK_060087; Pineau et al., 2008) used in this study have been previously described. However, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that SALK_150208 (here named *gme-3*) and SALK_056664 (here named *lgaldh-1*), obtained from the European *Arabidopsis* Stock Centre (NASC: <http://arabidopsis.info/>), were described (M&M Table 1). Diagnostic PCR was performed to identify the presence of T-DNA insertion in individuals plants using the allele-specific primers listed in M&M Table 2A. The generation of transgenic lines either in WT or in the respective mutant backgrounds is described in the “Generation of transgenic lines” section and lines are listed in (M&M Table 1).

M&M Table 1. Arabidopsis mutants and lines used in this work.

Line	Background	T-DNA	Reference
WT	Col-0		-
<i>gme-3</i>	Col-0	SALK_150208	-
<i>vtc2-4</i>	Col-0	SAIL_769_H05	Lim et al., 2016.
<i>vtc4-4</i>	Col-0	SALK_077222	Torabinejad et al., 2009.
<i>lgaldh-1</i>	Col-0	SALK_056664	-
<i>gldh</i>	Col-0	SALK_060087	Pineau et al., 2008.
Transgenic lines			
<i>GME-GFP</i> L6	Col-0	GMEp:GME-GFP line 6	This work
<i>VTC4-GFP</i> L5	Col-0	VTC4p:VTC4-GFP line 5	This work
<i>L-GalDH-GFP</i> L1	Col-0	L-GalDHp:L-GalDH-GFP line 1	This work
Complemented mutants			
<i>gme/GME-GFP</i> L6	<i>gme-3</i>	GMEp:GME-GFP line 6	This work
<i>vtc2/VTC2-GFP</i> L12	<i>vtc2-4</i>	VTC2p:cdsVTC2-GFP line 12	This work
<i>vtc2/VTC2-GFP</i> L13	<i>vtc2-4</i>	VTC2p:cdsVTC2-GFP line 13	This work
<i>vtc2/VTC2-GFP</i> OE-L15	<i>vtc2-4</i>	35Sp:cdsVTC2-GFP line 15	This work
<i>vtc2/VTC2-GFP</i> OE-L16	<i>vtc2-4</i>	35Sp:cdsVTC2-GFP line 16	This work
<i>vtc4/VTC4-GFP</i> L5	<i>vtc4-4</i>	VTC4p:VTC4-GFP line 5	This work
<i>lgaldh/L-GalDH-GFP</i> L1	<i>lgaldh-1</i>	L-GalDHp:L-GalDH-GFP line 1	This work

Standard growth conditions

Arabidopsis seeds were surface sterilized using chlorine gas by pouring 3 mL of 37% HCl into 100 mL of commercial bleach and airtight sealed for 4 hours. Then, seeds were air-cleared for at least 4 hours in a laminar flow cabinet and stored at 4°C for 3-days stratification. Seeds were sowed on half-strength Murashige-Skoog (MS) agar-solidified (0.6% [w/v] agar) medium supplemented with 1,5% [w/v] sucrose under sterile conditions and grown with a long-day photoperiod (16-h light/8-h darkness cycle, 22±1 °C, 150±50 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) for 7-10 days. Seedlings were then collected for analysis, transferred to liquid media or to soil (4:1 (v/v) soil:vermiculite).

M&M Table 2. Oligonucleotides used in this work.

A. Oligonucleotides used as primers in diagnostic PCR. LB: Left Border primer; LPa/b: Left Primer; RPa/b: Right Primer						
Gene	Mutant line	LB	LPa	RPa	Tm	
GME	SALK_150208	LBb1.3	TCACCGTGAGTGATCCCTAAC	TGCTTGATCAACTTAGTGG	60	
VTC2	SAIL_769_H05	LB1	CTTCOGATCTCTCTTTCTCG	GAGGCAAGCAGTCAAGAACAC	55	
VTC4	SALK_077222	LBb1.3	GGCAGAAGCAGTAGACGATTG	TCACACCAATGCAGCTGTAG	60	
L-GalDH	SALK_056664	LBb1.3	CTGTGAGACAGAGCTCATCCG	AAAGGCTTTGCCAAGTCCCTAG	60	
L-GalLDH	SALK_060087	LBb1.3	GAAAGCTGTTTTGTGGCTCTG	CTAGCAAAGACAGCCACAACC	60	
LBb1.3:	ATTTTGCCGATTTCCGGAAC			VTc4 RPB: TGAGTTTTGTTTTCTTTCTACCgAA L-GalDH LPb: CACAATGACACACAAACAAGCATGC		
LB1: GCCTTTTCAGAAATGGATAAATAGCCTTGCTTCC Primers VTC4 RPB and L-GalDH LPb were used to genotyping the mutant background when it was complemented with the GFP-tagged sequence to avoid crossed-amplification with the GFP-tagged cassette						
Gene	Forward primer		Reverse primer		Tm	
B. Oligonucleotides used as primers to amplify genomic fragments from Arabidopsis thaliana's genomic DNA						
GME	CACCCTGCTTCCATCAGGTTCTGTTT		CTCTTTTCCATCAGCCCGG			
ProVTC2	AAGCTTACCGAAGCAGGATGGTAGTCA		AAGCTTCATTCTCAAAAAAGACAAAATTTCCG			57 °C
VTC4	CACCGAGAAGAGTTGGATCACCGA		TGCCCTGTAAAGCCGCAA			
L-GalDH	CACCCAAGGTGCAAAAGGTCAGTGC		GTTCTGATGGATTCCACTTGGC			
CACc was added to the 5' end of forward primers as a requirement to clone in pENTR/D-TOPO vector (except VTC2)						
C. Oligonucleotides used to amplify the gene of interest's CDS from Arabidopsis cDNA						
VTC1	CACCATGAAGGCACACTATTCTTGTTG		CATCACTATCTGTGGCTTCAAGATG			
GME	CACCATGGGAACCTACCAATGGAACAGA		CTCTTTTCCATCAGCCCGG			
VTC2	CACCATGTTGAAAATCAAAAAGAGTTCGCGACC		CTGAAAGACAAGGCACCTCGG			59 °C
VTC4	CACCATGGCGGACAAATGATTCTCTAGA		TGCCCTGTAAAGCCGCAA			
L-GalDH	CACCATGACGAAAATAGAGCTTCGAGC		GTTCTGATGGATTCCACTTGGC			
L-GalLDH	CACCATGCTCCGGTCACTTCTTCTC		AGCAGTGTGGAGACTGGG			
CACc was added to the 5' end of forward primers as a requirement to clone in pENTR/D-TOPO vector						

Gene	Forward primer	Reverse primer	T _m
D. Oligonucleotides used to perform colony PCR			
	See M&M Table 2B	See M&M Table 2B). Also: GFP Rv: GAACAGCTCCTCGCCCTTG GFP Rv2: TGCTCAGGTAAGTGGTTGTCG	59 °C

E: Oligonucleotides used for DNA sequencing in addition to B and D			
VTC1	ATGAAGGCACCTCATTCTTGTGG CTTGATGGATCTGGAGAGC GGGTTTGAGACTCTACTTAGACTC GTTTGGTGCAACCAATAAGAAAT GGTTTTAAATCCAGATTCTCTG		
GME	AACAGATTTGTTTTGCCAATTTTG GAGTCCATCTTGTGATCCTTAG CTCAAGATGCTTATGGTTTTGG GGAAGCGATGAGATGGTGA CGGCCATATTCAGAATAAGG CGACATTGATTTGACGCAG TCCTCGCGTTGATCATTAGAG GGTGTCCAAGGGAAGG AGGTCAGGTCCTTAGGAT		
VTC4	GAGTTAAATAATGTCGTTCCATTG GCITTCGGTCTCGIATCAA TGTTCTCAACCTTTACTAAGTGTTT GGCAGGTTAAATCTAATAGATGCT GGTTTGTTCCTGTGTTGATATTTTG CTCAGAAGCTCAATTCGATAA CATTAGAGAGCAGCAGATTGG TTTCTGCGIATGAACATTGGG		
L-GalDH			
L-GalDH			

Plasmid Constructs

Two different types of DNA fragments were used as templates (genomic and coding DNA sequence) to generate the constructs used in this work. First, genomic fragments were amplified starting from at least 2 kb upstream the +1 ATG unless otherwise specified (Figure 5) until the stop codon (not included) using genomic Col-0 DNA as template. Second, coding DNA sequences (CDS) were amplified, starting at +1 ATG until the stop codon (not included), using as template Col-0 Arabidopsis cDNA that was generated using total RNA. In the case of VTC2, due to a failure in amplifying the entire VTC2p:VTC2 product, about 1.4 kb (according to Gao et al., 2011) of the VTC2 promoter including the 5'UTR was amplified (Figure 5; M&M Table 3). The primers used to generate these above-mentioned DNA fragments are detailed in M&M Table 2B and 2C. A proofreading DNA polymerase was used for all these PCR amplifications (TAKARA PrimeSTAR Max DNA Polymerase, CAT. #R045A).

M&M Table 3. Summary of the constructs used in this work.

A. Sizes of constructs generated in this work using the vectors listed in B)							
Construct	Size	VTC1	GME	VTC2	VTC4	L-GalDH	GLDH
Genomic	bp	-	3680	ProVTC2: 1421	4172	3727	-
CDS		1083	1131	1326	813	957	1830
C'-GFP	kDa	68,6	71,8	78	58,2	63,6	97,6
C'-HA		46	49,2	55,4	35,5	40,9	75

B. Vectors used in this work and the resulting construct		
Name	Vector type	Final construct (selective marker)
pENTR/D-TOPO	Entry	attL1::GeneX::attL2 (Kan ^R)
pGWB4	Expression	PromoterX::GeneX-GFP (Kan ^R /Hyg ^R)
pGWB5	Expression	CaMV35S::GeneX-GFP (Kan ^R /Hyg ^R)
pGWB504	Expression	VTC2p:VTC2 _{CDS} -GFP (Kan ^R /Hyg ^R)
pGWB14	Expression	CaMV35S::GeneX-HA (Kan ^R /Hyg ^R)
pGADT7	Y2H prey	ADH1::AD-GeneX (Kan ^R /Leu ⁺)
pGBKT7	Y2H bait	ADH1::BD-GeneX (Kan ^R /Trp ⁺)

VTC2 promoter was digested with HindIII and directly cloned into the pGWB504 vector. All other DNA fragments (excluding VTC2 promoter) were cloned into pENTR/D-TOPO using the pENTR Directional TOPO cloning kit (Invitrogen). Next, on the one hand, DNA genomic fragments (which includes promoter and lacks the stop codon) were recombined from pENTR/D-TOPO into pGWB4 by LR reaction (Invitrogen) to generate SWp:SW-GFP constructs for GME, VTC4 and L-GalDH. On the other hand, all CDS fragments (without promoter, 5'-UTR and stop codon) were sub-cloned into pGWB5 and pGWB14 to generate CaMV35S:SW_{CDS}-GFP and CaMV35S:SW_{CDS}-HA, respectively. In

the case of VTC2, the CDS was also recombined to VTC2p-pGWB504 by LR reaction (Invitrogen) thus obtaining the VTC2p:VTC2CDS-GFP construct. Likewise, CDS (pENTR/D-TOPO) were recombined into both pGADT7-GW (activation domain, AD) and pGBKT7-GW (binding domain, BD) to generate SWCDS-AD and SWCDS-BD, respectively, for yeast two-hybrid assay (see Yeast two-hybrid assay section). The expression vectors generated using the destination vectors pGWB5 and pGWB14 contain a kanamycin and a hygromycin resistance gene for bacteria and plant selection, respectively. The yeast two-hybrid vectors pGADT7 and pGBKT7 contain an ampicillin and kanamycin resistance gene, respectively for selection in bacteria. A summary of generated constructs is showed in M&M Table 3. All constructs were analysed by colony PCR (using the primers indicated in M&M Table 2D), enzymatic DNA restriction and sequencing (using the primers indicated in M&M Table 2E).

The plasmids used from the pGWB vector series were provided by Tsuyoshi Nakagawa (Department of Molecular and Functional Genomics, Shimane University; Nakagawa et al., 2007). The pGADT7(GW) and pGBKT7(GW) destination vectors were provided by Salomé Prat (Nacional de Biotecnología-Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas).

Generation of Arabidopsis transgenic lines

The constructs generated using pGWB4 plasmid for native expression of the SW genes (pGWB504 for VTC2) were transformed into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* GV3101::pMP90 by electroporation and confirmed by colony PCR using the primers indicated in M&M Table 2D. Arabidopsis WT (Col-0) plants were then transformed using these *A. tumefaciens* strains by floral dipping (Clough and Bent, 1998). T2 plants were analysed for hygromycin resistance ratio resistant:sensitive (R:S) and lines with single insertion (T2 Hyg^R:Hyg^S=3, χ^2 ($\alpha=0.05$), $n>300$) were selected. Selected T2 plants were grown in long day photoperiod and a sample of rosette leaf was taken to perform immunoblot analysis (Figure 8). Seeds from different T2 lines with a high expression were selected and homozygous T3 and T4 plants were used in this work.

For generation of the complementation lines, selected T2 plants (with single insertion) were crossed with their respective mutants in both directions as male and female. In order to obtain homozygous plants for both the T-DNA insertion and the SWp:SW-GFP construct (Hyg^R), we selected hygromycin resistant plants and performed diagnostic PCR to identify T-DNA insertion using the primers in M&M Table 2A. Homozygous F3 plants for T-DNA and SWp:SW-GFP insertion were used in this work.



Ascorbate complementation assay

WT, *gme* (SALK_150208), *lgaldh* (SALK_056664) and *gldh* (SALK_060087) seeds were surface sterilized and stratified for 3 days at 4 °C. Seeds were then sowed in agar-solidified (0.5% [w/v] agar) modified Scholl medium with or without 0,5 mM ascorbate as described elsewhere (B. Lim et al., 2016) and grown with a long-day photoperiod. After 10 days, plants were individually collected and PCR-diagnosed to identify homozygous mutants.

Ascorbate measurements

High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) for combinatorial expression in Nicotiana benthamiana

Ascorbate was extracted from approximately 250 mg fresh tissue using 2 mL of a 2% (w/v) metaphosphoric acid, 2 mM EDTA ice-cold buffer (modified from Davey et al., 2006). Samples were centrifuged at 18000 g for 20 min at 4°C, and supernatants were filtered (0.45 µm) before injection into a HPLC (Agilent Technologies 1200 series; Rx-C18, 4.6x100 mm 3.5 µm column (Agilent Technologies 861967-902), diode array detector (Agilent Technologies G1315D). Samples were measured at 254 nm using filtered (0.45 µm) 0.1 M NaH₂PO₄, 0.2 mM EDTA, pH 3.1 (orthophosphoric acid) as mobile phase (Harapanhalli et al., 1993) at 4 °C (column at 20 °C; 5 µL sample injection, 0.7 mL/min flow, 200 bar). Standards were prepared using ascorbic acid dissolved in extraction buffer, with concentrations ranging from 0 mM to 2.5 mM.

Ascorbate oxidase (AO) activity for Arabidopsis transgenic lines

Ascorbate and dehydroascorbate were extracted from approximately 80 mg fresh tissue using 1 mL of a 3% (w/v) ice cold metaphosphoric acid plus 1 mM EDTA. Samples were centrifuged at 16000 g for 10 min at 4°C. Absorbance measurements were carried out at 265 nm using 20 µL sample/standard aliquots in a 96 well UV-transparent plate (Greiner UV-Star® 96-Well Microplate) mixed with 100 µL of either phosphate buffer (0.2 M KH₂PO₄, pH 7 to measure ascorbate) or Tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP)-phosphate buffer (0.2 M KH₂PO₄, pH7, 2 mM TCEP, to measure ascorbate and dehydroascorbate). Then, 5 µL 40 U/mL AO was added to each well, mixed and incubated at room temperature for 20 minutes, when the absorbance was again measured. The difference in the absorbance was interpolated in the standard curve, using standards ranging from 0 mM to 1 mM in extraction buffer. TCEP and AO stocks were prepared in phosphate buffer.



Immunoblot

Proteins were separated by size through a sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and transferred onto a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane (Immobilon-P, Millipore, 0.45 μm pore size; CAT. #IPVH00010) previously methanol-equilibrated. Next, the PVDF membrane was blocked with 5% (w/v) skimmed milk followed by an incubation with a primary antibody synthesised in mouse against GFP (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, CAT. #sc-9996; 1:600) or HA (Sigma-Aldrich, CAT. #H3663; 1:3000) epitopes. Then, the membrane was subsequently incubated with a horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated α -mouse whole IgG antibody produced in rabbit (Sigma-Aldrich, CAT. #A9044; 1:80000). Protein-HRP chemiluminescence was detected using Chemidoc XRS1 System (Bio-Rad) after incubation with Clarity ECL Western Blotting Substrate or SuperSignal West Femto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Transient expression in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves

Agrobacterium tumefaciens GV3101::pMP90 was transformed by electroporation with the constructs generated using pGWB5 and pGWB14 positive colonies were confirmed by colony PCR. Two leaves per plant (leaves 3 and 4 from apex) 4-week-old *N. benthamiana* were infiltrated in the abaxial side of using 1 mL syringe (without needle). *Agrobacterium* cultures were grown overnight in liquid Luria-Bertani medium containing rifampicin (50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$), gentamycin (25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$), and the construct-specific antibiotic kanamycin (50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$). Cells were then harvested by centrifugation (for 15 min at 3000 g in 50-mL falcon tubes) at room temperature, pellets were resuspended in agroinfiltration solution (10 mM MES, pH 5.6, 10 mM MgCl_2 , and 1 mM acetosyringone), and kept for 2-3 h in dark conditions at room temperature. In order to avoid overexpression-associated gene silencing, an *Agrobacterium* strain containing a p19 expression vector was coinfiltrated. For single gene expression, the gene of interest and p19 were mixed in such a way that the optical densities (600 nm, OD_{600}) were 0.8 and 0.2, respectively. For multiple co-infiltration experiments, the genes of interest were diluted in the same proportion so the final OD_{600} was 1 (0.8 for the combination of genes of interest and 0.2 for p19). *Agrobacterium* strains expressing either free GFP or TTL3-HA (an ascorbate biosynthesis non-related protein (Amorim-Silva et al., 2019) were used to compensate OD_{600} in co-infiltration experiments.

To achieve optimal protein expression, immunoblot time course analysis was addressed 2, 3 and 4 days after infiltration (Figure 9B). Protein loads were adjusted so comparable amounts of GFP-tagged protein were detected two days after infiltration for each construct using the Java-based image-processing program FIJI (Schindelin et al., 2012; Schneider et al., 2012).



Confocal laser scanning microscopy

All confocal images of *N. benthamiana* (Figure 13) were obtained using a Leica TCS SP5 II confocal microscope equipped with a 488-nm argon laser for GFP excitation and a PMT for its detection. The HCX PL APO CS 40x1,25 OIL objective was used with additional 2x digital zoom for images acquisition. Arabidopsis imaging was carried out using a Leica TCS SP8 equipped with a solid state 488-nm laser used to excite GFP and a high-sensitivity SP hybrid detector (objective HC PL APO CS2 40x/1,30 OIL, Figure 14A) and a Zeiss LSM 880 (objective C-Apochromat 40x/1.2 W Korr M27, Figure 14B) with a 488-nm argon laser and PMT detectors for GFP and transmitted light (bright field). All image processing was performed using FIJI (Schindelin et al., 2012; Schneider et al., 2012).

Yeast two-hybrid assay

The Gal4-based yeast two-hybrid system (Clontech Laboratories) was used for testing the interaction. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* Meyen ex E. C. Hansen strain PJ69-4A was transformed with the constructs described in the plasmid constructs section (SW genes clones into pGADT7 and pGBKT7) as described elsewhere (Gietz and Schiestl, 1995). Constructs transformed are explained in the plasmid constructs section (pGADT7 and pGBKT7). Transformants were grown on plasmid-selective medium (synthetic defined (SD)/-Trp -Leu) and grown at 28 °C for 4 days. Two independent colonies were taken per transformation event and resuspended in 200 µL of sterile water. Ten-fold serial dilutions were made and 5 µL of each dilution were spotted onto three different interaction-selective medium: SD -Trp (minus tryptophan) -Leu (minus leucin) -His (minus histidine) +2 mM 3-AT (3-amino-1,2,4-triazole); SD -Trp -Leu -Ade; SD -Trp -Leu -Ade +3-AT. Full SD medium was also used to check strain survival. Plates were grown at 28 °C and pictures were taken after 3, 5 and 9 days (only 5 days is shown). Concentrations are available in Rodríguez-Negrete et al. (2014).

Bioinformatic analyses

Protein domains predictions were performed using Protein Basic Local Alignment Search from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (Altschul et al., 1997), BLASTp; <https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi?PAGE=Proteins>) followed by functional annotation of protein domain using the Conserved Domain Database (Marchler-Bauer et al., 2017, 2015, 2011; Marchler-Bauer and Bryant, 2004; <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/cdd/cdd.shtml>). Protein subcellular localisation was predicted using COMPARTMENTS (Binder et al., 2014; <https://compartments.jensenlab.org/Search>). Predicted subcellular localisation

signals were performed using LOCALISER (Sperschneider et al., 2017; <http://localiser.csiro.au/>). Metabolic control Analysis was carried out using Complex Pathway Simulator (COPASI, Hoops et al., 2006; <http://copasi.org/>). All the details needed for the simulations are collected in Appendices 3-7). VTC2 mRNA expression datasets were extracted from Transcriptome Variation Analysis database (Klepikova et al., 2016, TRAVA; <http://travadb.org/>) and eFP-seq Browser (Sullivan et al., 2019; https://bar.utoronto.ca/eFP-Seq_Browser/). Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA X (Kumar et al., 2018) using the species' genomes listed in Appendix 8, downloaded from Phytozome database (<https://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov/pz/portal.html>). BLAST against these genomes was performed using Arabidopsis VTC2 protein sequence (TAIR: AT4G26850; UniProt: Q8RWE8) as a query. Results were filtered (E-value $\leq 10^{-10}$, percentage of identical matches $\geq 50\%$, High Score Pairing query coverage $\geq 70\%$.) using Linux (bash) scripts available in Fenech (2015, MsD thesis, University of Málaga).

Coimmunoprecipitation assay

Four-week-old *N. benthamiana* plants were used for transient expression assays as described above. Leaves were ground to fine powder in liquid nitrogen. ~0.5 g of ground leaves per sample was used, and total proteins were extracted with 1 mL of non-denaturing extraction buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1% (v/v) Nonidet P-40, 10 mM EDTA, 1mM Na₂MoO₄, 1 mM NaF, 10 mM DTT, 0.5 mM PMSF, 1% (v/v) protease inhibitor (Sigma P9599)) and incubated for 30 min at 4 °C using an end-over-end rocker. Protein extracts were centrifuged at 20000 g for 20 min at 4 °C and then filtered by gravity using Poly-Prep chromatography columns (731-1550, Bio-Rad). Supernatants were filtered by gravity through Poly-Prep chromatography columns (731-1550, Bio-Rad), and 100 mL was reserved for immunoblot analysis as input. The remaining supernatants were used for immunoprecipitation of GFP-fused proteins agarose using GFP-Trap coupled to agarose beads (Chromotek) and following the manufacturer's instructions. Total (input), immunoprecipitated (IP), and CoIP samples were resuspended with 2x concentrated Laemmli sample buffer and heated at 95°C for 5 min protein denaturation. Finally, samples were separated in a 10% SDS-PAGE gel and analysed as described above.

GFP-Trap column-mediated VTC2-GFP concentration from Arabidopsis plants grown under high and low light intensities

Arabidopsis plants from WT, *vtc2*, *C12*, *C13* and *OE-C15* lines were grown for five weeks, when plants were transferred to low light intensity ($57.5 \pm 2 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and high light intensity ($770 \pm 10 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) for 4 days and collected the samples half-way through the light period. Samples were collected and ground in liquid nitrogen and non-denaturing protein extraction was performed as described in "Coimmunoprecipitation assay" section. Following the incubation of the beads



with the protein extracts as described in the section above, an aliquot of the unbound fraction was taken. Beads were then washed once with 150 mM NaCl wash buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH7.5, 0,1% (v/v) Nonidet P-40, 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM EDTA, 1mM Na₂MoO₄, 1 mM NaF, 10 mM DTT, 0.5 mM PMSF, 1% (v/v) protease inhibitor (Sigma P9599)) and two more times with 300 mM wash buffer. Beads were further washed twice with a buffer compatible with VTC2 enzymatic assay (50 mM HEPES, 3mM MgCl₂, pH 7,5 KOH), described below. Then, samples were resuspended in one fifth of the extraction volume using VTC2 assay buffer.

VTC2 enzymatic assay

Sample preparation

Following VTC2-GFP concentration explained above, the experiment was set up as shown in M&M Table 4. Samples were collected at time 0 and after 1 hour of incubation at room temperature with soft agitation to prevent the beads to settle. The reaction was stopped by heating the samples at 95 °C for 1 minute and then centrifuged at maximum speed for 30 minutes at 4 °C. Supernatant was transferred to a fresh tube avoiding carrying over the pellet. GDP-D-Glucose and D-glucose 1-P 2 mM were prepared in assay buffer as standards (5 µL sugar + 5µL phosphate buffer + 90µL assay buffer). Prior to the injection into the GC/MS analyser, 300 µL acetonitrile were added to all samples and standards, centrifuged under the same conditions previously mentioned and supernatant was transferred to a fresh tube.

M&M Table 4. Design of VTC2-GFP enzymatic assay. Phosphate buffer (KH₂PO₄ 100mM in Assay Buffer) was used to trigger the reaction.

Volumes to add (µL)	Assay	Blank
Assay Buffer	70	75
Protein Extract	20	20
2 mM GDP-Glc	5	5
Phosphate Buffer	5	0
Total Volume (µL)	100	100

From this supernatant, 50 µl were transferred to glass vials and completely dried down using an evaporator (GeneVac EZ-2). 20 µl of methoxyamine hydrochloride (20 mg/ml dissolved in pyridine) was added to each sample and they were incubated at 37 °C for 2 hours. Then, 30 µl of MSTFA (N-Methyl-N-(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide) was added and the samples were heated again at 37 °C for 30 minutes before analysis on the GC-MS. Derivatizing agents were all from Sigma-Aldrich. GDP-glucose and glucose 1-phosphate standards were prepared at 1 µM, 10 µM and 100 µM.

Gas chromatography-Mass spectrometry analysis

Derivatized samples were analysed using an Agilent 7200 series accurate mass Q-TOF GC-MS together with a 7890A GC system (Agilent Technologies,

Santa Clara, USA), equipped with an EI (electron ionisation) ion source. 0.6 μ l of each sample was injected into a non-deactivated, baffled glass liner with a 10:1 split ratio (12.04 mL/min split flow) and the inlet temperature was maintained at 250 °C. A 3mL/minute septum purge flow was applied. A Zebron semi-volatiles (Phenomenex, Torrance, USA) column (30 m x 250 μ m x 0.25 μ m) coupled with a 10m guard column, was maintained at a constant helium flow of 1.2ml/min. The temperature gradient of the GC was ramped up at a rate of 15 °C/min, from 70 °C to 310 °C, over 16 min, and then held at 310 °C for a further 6 minutes. The total run time of 22 min, was followed by a 7 min backflush at 310 °C to clean the column at the end of every run. The MS emission current and emission voltage were held at 35 μ A and 70 eV respectively, and the MS was automatically calibrated after every run. The mass range was set from 50 to 600 amu, with an acquisition rate of 5 spectra/s, and a solvent delay of 3,5 min. DCM and extraction solvent blanks were run at the beginning and end of the run.

Data were analysed using Agilent technologies MassHunter qualitative (v B.07.00) and quantitative (v B.08.00) software.

Proteasome inhibitor MG132 assay

Arabidopsis seeds were germinated and grown for 10 days in half-strength MS with 1.5% sucrose under long day conditions and then transferred to liquid half-strength MS with 1.5% sucrose (7.5 mL/well) for 2 days under same grow conditions in transparent 6-well plates. Liquid medium in the wells was exchanged with 5 mL fresh medium containing 0.241% (v/v) dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, mock) or proteasome inhibitor (10 μ M MG132 in DMSO), 2.5 hours prior to the dark period. Samples were collected and weighed 2 hours after the beginning of the dark period and frozen in liquid nitrogen.

Statistical analysis

All analyses were performed using SigmaPlot v11 for Windows considering $n > 3$ and $\alpha = 0.05$.

Accession Numbers

Sequence data were sourced from the The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR) (<https://www.arabidopsis.org/>) under the following accession numbers: AT2G39770 for VTC1, AT5G28840 for GME, AT4G26850 for VTC2, AT3G02870 for VTC4, AT4G33670 for L-GalDH, and AT3G47930 for GLDH.





APPENDICES



Appendix 1. Infiltration in *N. benthamiana* corresponding to Figure 10C-H. * Data transformed with \log_{10} to accomplish normality and homoscedasticity required for ANOVA. Free GFP and TTL3-HA were used to rise the OD₆₀₀ up to 1 when necessary. p19 OD₆₀₀ was always 0,2.

OPanel	Description	Label	ANOVA-1 ($\alpha=0,05$)
C	Not infiltrated	Naïve	a
	GFP	Mock	a
	TTL3-HA	TTL3-HA	a
	VTC1-GFP	VTC1	a
	GME-HA	GME	a
	VTC2-HA	VTC2	b
D	VTC1-GFP	VTC1/GME	a
	VTC1-GFP	VTC1/VTC2	b
	Not infiltrated	Naïve	ab
	GFP	Mock	ab
	TTL3-HA	VTC1	a
	VTC4-HA	VTC4	c
E*	L-GalDH-HA	L-GalDH	c
	VTC1-GFP	VTC1/VTC4	ab
	VTC1-GFP	VTC1/L-GalDH	b
	Not infiltrated	Naïve	bc
	GFP	Mock	ab
	TTL3-HA	GME	bc
F	VTC2-HA	VTC2	d
	VTC4-HA	VTC4	a
	GME-GFP	VTC2/GME	e
	GME-GFP	GME/VTC4	c
	Not infiltrated	Naïve	a
	GFP	Mock	a
G	L-GalDH-GFP	L-GalDH	a
	GME-HA	GME	a
	VTC2-HA	VTC2	b
	L-GalDH-GFP	GME/L-GalDH	a
	L-GalDH-GFP	VTC2/L-GalDH	b
	Not infiltrated	Naïve	ab
H	GFP	Mock	a
	VTC4-GFP	VTC4	b
	VTC2-HA	VTC2	c
	L-GalDH-HA	L-GalDH	ab
	VTC4-GFP	VTC2/VTC4	c
	VTC4-GFP	VTC4/L-GalDH	ab
H	GFP, VTC2-GFP	VTC2	b
	GFP, GME-HA	GME	a
	GFP, GLDH-HA	GLDH	a
	GFP, GME-HA, VTC2-GFP	VTC2/GME	b
	GFP, VTC2-GFP, GLDH-HA	VTC2/GLDH	b
	GFP, VTC1-GFP, GME-HA, VTC2-GFP, VTC4-GFP, L-GalDH-HA	Cytosol	b
	GFP, VTC1-GFP, GME-HA, VTC2-GFP, VTC4-GFP, L-GalDH-HA	Cytosol w/o VTC1	b
	VTC1-GFP, GME-HA, VTC2-GFP, VTC4-GFP, L-GalDH-HA, GLDH-HA	Whole	b
GFP, GME-HA, VTC2-GFP, VTC4-GFP, L-GalDH-HA, GLDH-HA	Whole w/o VTC1	b	



Appendix 2. Prediction of transit peptides and nuclear localisation signals within ascorbate biosynthesis proteins genes. Values in the brackets are (probability | residues involved). Results obtained from LOCALISER (<http://localiser.csiro.au/>).

Identifier	Chloroplast	Mitochondria	Nucleus
VTC1	-	Y (0,992 1-22)	-
GME	-	-	-
VTC2	-	-	Y (KKRP, LGEV)
VTC4	-	-	-
L-GalDH	-	-	-
GLDH	-	Y (0,999 1-27)	Y (RKRFVVDAYNKARRE)

Appendix 3. Initial conditions for the COPASI kinetic model of ascorbate biosynthesis and turnover.

Initial conditions (time = 0 sec)
 Compartment size = 1 mL

Substrate	Initial concentration (mM)	#	Enzyme	K_{ms} (mM)	K_{mp} (mM)	V_f (mM/s)	V_r (mM/s)	K_i (mM)
D-Glc 6-P	5	1	PGI	5,9	0,5	10	10	
D-Fru 6-P	0,410388	2	PMI	0,04	0,04	10	10	1
D-Man 6-P	0	3	PMI	0,387	0,1	10	10	
D-Man 1-P	0,100795	4	GMP	0,1	0,1	10	10	
GDP-D-Man	0,0978087	5	GME	0,045	0,045	10	10	
GDP-L-Gal	0,0954264	6	GGP	0,01	20	10	2,2	0,01
L-Gal 1-P	0,00030303	7	GPP	0,03		10		
L-Gal	0	8	L-GalDH	0,1	0,133	10	1	0,1
L-Asc	0,895145	9	GLDH	0,12		10		
DHA	1	11	Oxidation	0,1		1		
Breakdown	124,057	12	Reduction	0,1		1,2		
		10	Turnover	$k = 0,1 \text{ s}^{-1}$				
		13	Recycle	$k = 0,1 \text{ s}^{-1}$				



Appendix 4. Flux control coefficients for ascorbate biosynthesis and turnover with various strengths of non-competitive feedback inhibition at the GDP-L-Gal phosphorylase step (Ki GGP). Values were calculated in COPASI using conditions indicated in Supplementary Table 3.

Ki (GGP) 1 mM		PGI	PMI	PMM	GGP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GaIDH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
PGI	6.67337E-07	6.88165E-06	5.66712E-07	5.7709E-07	3.27957E-08	3.8955E-06	3.06121E-09	9.93702E-06	1.34534E-08	0.828315	4.30223	-4.13058	1.00709E-05	
PMI	6.67337E-07	6.88165E-06	5.66712E-07	5.7709E-07	3.27957E-08	3.8955E-06	3.06121E-09	9.93702E-06	1.34534E-08	0.828315	4.30223	-4.13058	1.00709E-05	
PMM	6.67337E-07	6.88165E-06	5.66712E-07	5.7709E-07	3.27957E-08	3.8955E-06	3.06121E-09	9.93702E-06	1.34534E-08	0.828315	4.30223	-4.13058	1.00709E-05	
GMP	6.67337E-07	6.88165E-06	5.66712E-07	5.7709E-07	3.27957E-08	3.8955E-06	3.06121E-09	9.93702E-06	1.34534E-08	0.828315	4.30223	-4.13058	1.00709E-05	
GME	6.67337E-07	6.88165E-06	5.66712E-07	5.7709E-07	3.27957E-08	3.8955E-06	3.06121E-09	9.93702E-06	1.34534E-08	0.828315	4.30223	-4.13058	1.00709E-05	
GGP	6.67337E-07	6.88165E-06	5.66712E-07	5.7709E-07	3.27957E-08	3.8955E-06	3.06121E-09	9.93702E-06	1.34534E-08	0.828315	4.30223	-4.13058	1.00709E-05	
L-GaIDH	6.67337E-07	6.88165E-06	5.66712E-07	5.7709E-07	3.27957E-08	3.8955E-06	3.06121E-09	9.93702E-06	1.34534E-08	0.828315	4.30223	-4.13058	1.00709E-05	
GLDH	6.67337E-07	6.88165E-06	5.66712E-07	5.7709E-07	3.27957E-08	3.8955E-06	3.06121E-09	9.93702E-06	1.34534E-08	0.828315	4.30223	-4.13058	1.00709E-05	
Turnover	6.67337E-07	6.88165E-06	5.66712E-07	5.7709E-07	3.27957E-08	3.8955E-06	3.06121E-09	9.93702E-06	1.34534E-08	0.828315	4.30223	-4.13058	1.00709E-05	
Oxidation	1.55108E-07	1.55949E-06	1.31719E-07	1.34132E-07	7.62264E-09	9.05422E-07	7.11511E-10	2.30964E-09	3.12695E-09	-5.8834E-06	0.999957	4.10121E-05	2.34075E-06	
Reduction	1.33821E-07	1.37998E-06	1.13643E-07	1.15724E-07	6.57665E-09	7.81165E-07	6.13865E-10	1.99267E-06	2.69782E-09	-0.034428	0.862726	0.171695	2.01951E-06	
Recycle	6.67337E-07	6.88165E-06	5.66712E-07	5.7709E-07	3.27957E-08	3.8955E-06	3.06121E-09	9.93702E-06	1.34534E-08	0.828315	4.30223	-4.13058	1.00709E-05	
Ki (GGP) 0.75 mM		PGI	PMI	PMM	GGP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GaIDH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
PGI	6.77549E-07	6.87913E-06	5.78996E-07	5.89599E-07	4.02187E-08	1.26711E-05	3.07081E-09	9.91568E-06	1.34328E-08	0.828308	4.30219	-4.13054	1.00554E-05	
PMI	6.77549E-07	6.87913E-06	5.78996E-07	5.89599E-07	4.02187E-08	1.26711E-05	3.07081E-09	9.91568E-06	1.34328E-08	0.828308	4.30219	-4.13054	1.00554E-05	
PMM	6.77549E-07	6.87913E-06	5.78996E-07	5.89599E-07	4.02187E-08	1.26711E-05	3.07081E-09	9.91568E-06	1.34328E-08	0.828308	4.30219	-4.13054	1.00554E-05	
GMP	6.77549E-07	6.87913E-06	5.78996E-07	5.89599E-07	4.02187E-08	1.26711E-05	3.07081E-09	9.91568E-06	1.34328E-08	0.828308	4.30219	-4.13054	1.00554E-05	
GME	6.77549E-07	6.87913E-06	5.78996E-07	5.89599E-07	4.02187E-08	1.26711E-05	3.07081E-09	9.91568E-06	1.34328E-08	0.828308	4.30219	-4.13054	1.00554E-05	
GGP	6.77549E-07	6.87913E-06	5.78996E-07	5.89599E-07	4.02187E-08	1.26711E-05	3.07081E-09	9.91568E-06	1.34328E-08	0.828308	4.30219	-4.13054	1.00554E-05	
L-GaIDH	6.77549E-07	6.87913E-06	5.78996E-07	5.89599E-07	4.02187E-08	1.26711E-05	3.07081E-09	9.91568E-06	1.34328E-08	0.828308	4.30219	-4.13054	1.00554E-05	
GLDH	6.77549E-07	6.87913E-06	5.78996E-07	5.89599E-07	4.02187E-08	1.26711E-05	3.07081E-09	9.91568E-06	1.34328E-08	0.828308	4.30219	-4.13054	1.00554E-05	
Turnover	6.77549E-07	6.87913E-06	5.78996E-07	5.89599E-07	4.02187E-08	1.26711E-05	3.07081E-09	9.91568E-06	1.34328E-08	0.828308	4.30219	-4.13054	1.00554E-05	
Oxidation	1.57481E-07	1.5989E-06	1.34575E-07	1.37039E-07	9.34795E-09	2.94512E-06	7.13743E-10	2.30468E-06	3.12217E-09	-7.57419E-06	0.999949	4.94256E-05	2.33715E-06	
Reduction	1.35869E-07	1.37948E-06	1.16106E-07	1.18233E-07	8.06507E-09	2.54095E-06	6.15792E-10	1.9884E-06	2.69369E-09	-0.0344294	0.862719	0.171702	2.01641E-06	
Recycle	6.77549E-07	6.87913E-06	5.78996E-07	5.89599E-07	4.02187E-08	1.26711E-05	3.07081E-09	9.91568E-06	1.34328E-08	0.828308	4.30219	-4.13054	1.00554E-05	
Ki (GGP) 0.1 mM		PGI	PMI	PMM	GGP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GaIDH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
PGI	6.09882E-08	6.893E-08	7.05553E-08	7.18478E-08	3.89454E-08	0.0165875	1.19463E-11	7.6177E-09	5.27689E-11	0.817616	4.19902	-4.03322	3.95064E-08	
PMI	6.09882E-08	6.893E-08	7.05553E-08	7.18478E-08	3.89454E-08	0.0165875	1.19463E-11	7.6177E-09	5.27689E-11	0.817616	4.19902	-4.03322	3.95064E-08	
PMM	6.09882E-08	6.893E-08	7.05553E-08	7.18478E-08	3.89454E-08	0.0165875	1.19463E-11	7.6177E-09	5.27689E-11	0.817616	4.19902	-4.03322	3.95064E-08	
GMP	6.09882E-08	6.893E-08	7.05553E-08	7.18478E-08	3.89454E-08	0.0165875	1.19463E-11	7.6177E-09	5.27689E-11	0.817616	4.19902	-4.03322	3.95066E-08	
GME	6.09882E-08	6.893E-08	7.05553E-08	7.18478E-08	3.89454E-08	0.0165875	1.19463E-11	7.6177E-09	5.27689E-11	0.817616	4.19902	-4.03322	3.95066E-08	
GGP	6.09882E-08	6.893E-08	7.05553E-08	7.18478E-08	3.89454E-08	0.0165875	1.19463E-11	7.6177E-09	5.27689E-11	0.817616	4.19902	-4.03322	3.95064E-08	
L-GaIDH	6.09882E-08	6.893E-08	7.05553E-08	7.18478E-08	3.89454E-08	0.0165875	1.19463E-11	7.6177E-09	5.27689E-11	0.817616	4.19902	-4.03322	3.95064E-08	
GLDH	6.09882E-08	6.893E-08	7.05553E-08	7.18478E-08	3.89454E-08	0.0165875	1.19463E-11	7.6177E-09	5.27689E-11	0.817616	4.19902	-4.03322	3.95064E-08	
Turnover	6.09882E-08	6.893E-08	7.05553E-08	7.18478E-08	3.89454E-08	0.0165875	1.19463E-11	7.6177E-09	5.27689E-11	0.817616	4.19902	-4.03322	3.95064E-08	
Oxidation	1.42833E-08	1.61434E-08	1.65211E-08	1.68266E-08	9.12104E-09	0.00338848	2.79769E-12	1.78407E-09	1.23585E-11	-0.003322992	0.993412	0.0159329	9.25243E-09	
Reduction	1.23635E-08	1.39735E-08	1.43031E-08	1.4565E-08	7.89503E-09	0.00336262	2.42186E-12	1.54426E-09	1.06973E-11	-0.0369729	0.851226	0.182384	8.00876E-09	

Appendices

Recycle	6.09882E-08	6.893E-08	7.05553E-08	7.18478E-08	3.89454E-08	0.0165875	1.19457E-11	7.6177E-09	5.27689E-11	0.817616	4.19902	-4.03322	3.95064E-08
K1 (GGP) 0.05 mM	PGI	PMI	PMM	GMP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GaIDH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
PGI	1,0211E-07	1,11114E-07	1,18275E-07	1,20442E-07	6,54876E-08	0,0317267	1,79562E-11	5,84883E-09	7,93134E-11	0,80849	4,09703	-3,93724	5,93911E-08
PMI	1,0211E-07	1,11114E-07	1,18275E-07	1,20442E-07	6,54876E-08	0,0317267	1,79584E-11	5,84883E-09	7,93057E-11	0,80849	4,09703	-3,93724	5,93911E-08
PMM	1,0211E-07	1,11114E-07	1,18275E-07	1,20442E-07	6,54876E-08	0,0317267	1,79578E-11	5,84883E-09	7,93056E-11	0,80849	4,09703	-3,93724	5,93911E-08
GMP	1,0211E-07	1,11114E-07	1,18275E-07	1,20442E-07	6,54876E-08	0,0317267	1,79515E-11	5,84883E-09	7,93234E-11	0,80849	4,09703	-3,93724	5,93911E-08
GME	1,0211E-07	1,11114E-07	1,18275E-07	1,20442E-07	6,54876E-08	0,0317267	1,7951E-11	5,84883E-09	7,93249E-11	0,80849	4,09703	-3,93724	5,93911E-08
GGP	1,0211E-07	1,11114E-07	1,18275E-07	1,20442E-07	6,54876E-08	0,0317267	1,7956E-11	5,84883E-09	7,93134E-11	0,80849	4,09703	-3,93724	5,93911E-08
GPP	1,0211E-07	1,11114E-07	1,18275E-07	1,20442E-07	6,54876E-08	0,0317267	1,7956E-11	5,84883E-09	7,93134E-11	0,80849	4,09703	-3,93724	5,93911E-08
L-GaIDH	1,0211E-07	1,11114E-07	1,18275E-07	1,20442E-07	6,54876E-08	0,0317267	1,79561E-11	5,84883E-09	7,93134E-11	0,80849	4,09703	-3,93724	5,93911E-08
GLDH	1,0211E-07	1,11114E-07	1,18275E-07	1,20442E-07	6,54876E-08	0,0317267	1,79523E-11	5,84883E-09	7,93196E-11	0,80849	4,09703	-3,93724	5,93911E-08
Turnover	1,0211E-07	1,11114E-07	1,18275E-07	1,20442E-07	6,54876E-08	0,0317267	1,79564E-11	5,84883E-09	7,93123E-11	0,80849	4,09703	-3,93724	5,93911E-08
Oxidation	2,41323E-08	2,62603E-08	2,79526E-08	2,84648E-08	1,5477E-08	0,00749814	4,24365E-12	1,38229E-09	1,87445E-11	-0,00626093	0,968273	0,03049	1,40362E-08
Reduction	2,09678E-08	2,28167E-08	2,42871E-08	2,47322E-08	1,34475E-08	0,00651489	3,68724E-12	1,20102E-09	1,62863E-11	-0,0393254	0,841301	0,19151	1,21956E-08
Recycle	1,0211E-07	1,11114E-07	1,18275E-07	1,20442E-07	6,54876E-08	0,0317267	1,7956E-11	5,84883E-09	7,93132E-11	0,80849	4,09703	-3,93724	5,93911E-08
K1 (GGP) 0.01 mM	PGI	PMI	PMM	GMP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GaIDH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
PGI	3,1267E-07	3,31508E-07	3,62518E-07	3,69176E-07	2,01227E-07	0,118434	5,07844E-11	3,8222E-09	2,2423E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68108E-07
PMI	3,1267E-07	3,31508E-07	3,62518E-07	3,69176E-07	2,01227E-07	0,118434	5,07844E-11	3,8222E-09	2,2423E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68108E-07
PMM	3,1267E-07	3,31508E-07	3,62518E-07	3,69176E-07	2,01227E-07	0,118434	5,07844E-11	3,8222E-09	2,2423E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68108E-07
GMP	3,1267E-07	3,31508E-07	3,62518E-07	3,69176E-07	2,01227E-07	0,118434	5,07844E-11	3,8222E-09	2,2423E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68108E-07
GME	3,1267E-07	3,31508E-07	3,62518E-07	3,69176E-07	2,01227E-07	0,118434	5,07844E-11	3,8222E-09	2,2423E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68108E-07
GGP	3,1267E-07	3,31508E-07	3,62518E-07	3,69176E-07	2,01227E-07	0,118434	5,07844E-11	3,8222E-09	2,2423E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68108E-07
GPP	3,1267E-07	3,31508E-07	3,62518E-07	3,69176E-07	2,01227E-07	0,118434	5,07844E-11	3,8222E-09	2,2423E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68108E-07
L-GaIDH	3,1267E-07	3,31508E-07	3,62518E-07	3,69176E-07	2,01227E-07	0,118434	5,07844E-11	3,8222E-09	2,2423E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68108E-07
GLDH	3,1267E-07	3,31508E-07	3,62518E-07	3,69176E-07	2,01227E-07	0,118434	5,07844E-11	3,8222E-09	2,2423E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68108E-07
Turnover	3,1267E-07	3,31508E-07	3,62518E-07	3,69176E-07	2,01227E-07	0,118434	5,07844E-11	3,8222E-09	2,2423E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68108E-07
Oxidation	7,86502E-08	8,33887E-08	9,11892E-08	9,28693E-08	5,06175E-08	0,0297914	1,27745E-11	9,61451E-10	5,64036E-11	-0,0255375	0,881564	0,114182	4,22866E-08
Reduction	6,99307E-08	7,41439E-08	8,10796E-08	8,25687E-08	4,50059E-08	0,0264886	1,13583E-11	8,54861E-10	5,01505E-11	-0,0546451	0,78383	0,244326	3,75985E-08
Recycle	3,1267E-07	3,31508E-07	3,62518E-07	3,69176E-07	2,01227E-07	0,118434	5,07843E-11	3,8222E-09	2,2423E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68108E-07

Appendix 5. Concentration control coefficients at each step for pathway intermediates with various strengths of non-competitive feedback inhibition at the GDP-L-Gal phosphorylase step (Ki GGP). Values were calculated in COPASI using conditions indicated in Appendix 3.

Ki (GGP) 1 mM		PGI	PMI	PMM	GMP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GaldH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
D-Glc 6-P	-7.25E-02	-6.90E-01	-5.27E-02	-0.0564157	-0.0564124	-0.00314951	-0.297629	-2.96E-07	2.95E-03	4.00E-06	0.963552	4.98916	-4.7901	2.99E-03
D-Fru 6-P	0.00021205	-0.737938	-0.0564157	-0.0564124	-0.0564124	-0.00314951	-0.31633	-3.16E-07	0.00315754	4.27E-06	0.966123	5.00144	-4.80189	0.00320008
D-Man 6-P	2.43E-04	2.50E-03	-2.13E-01	-2.13E-01	-2.13E-01	-1.19E-02	-1.20482	-3.75E-06	3.61E-03	4.89E-06	1.35376	7.01243	-6.73264	3.66E-03
D-Man 1-P	3.06E-04	3.15E-03	2.60E-04	-2.69E-01	-2.69E-01	-1.50E-02	-1.51831	-4.73E-06	4.55E-03	6.16E-06	1.48301	7.67882	-7.37245	4.61E-03
GDP-d-Man	4.14E-04	4.27E-03	3.52E-04	3.52E-04	3.52E-04	-2.04E-02	-2.0581	-6.41E-06	6.17E-03	8.35E-06	1.70799	8.83885	-8.48619	6.25E-03
GDP-L-Gal	0.000420902	0.00434039	0.000357436	0.000357436	0.000357436	2.07E-05	-2.09171	-6.52E-06	0.00626747	8.49E-06	1.71873	8.89411	-8.53925	0.00635189
L-Gal 1-P	6.70E-07	6.91E-06	5.69E-07	5.69E-07	5.69E-07	3.29E-08	3.91E-06	-1.00E+00	9.98E-06	1.35E-08	0.83163	4.31945	-4.14711	1.01E-05
L-Gal	0.000202299	0.00208612	0.000171795	0.000174941	0.000174941	9.94E-06	0.00118089	9.28E-07	-1.00087	-0.00012437	0.823987	4.26395	-4.09382	0.00305291
L-GalL	6.70E-07	6.91E-06	5.69E-07	5.69E-07	5.69E-07	3.29E-08	3.91E-06	3.07E-09	9.98E-06	1.00E+00	0.83163	4.31945	-4.14711	1.01E-05
L-Asc	2.02E-04	2.08E-03	1.71E-04	1.75E-04	1.75E-04	9.92E-06	0.00117834	9.26E-07	3.01E-03	4.07E-06	-0.00765678	-0.055592	0.053374	3.05E-03
DHA	6.67E-07	6.88E-06	5.67E-07	5.77E-07	5.77E-07	3.28E-08	3.90E-06	3.06E-09	9.94E-06	1.35E-08	-0.171685	4.30223	-4.13058	1.01E-05
Breakdown	6.67E-07	6.88E-06	5.67E-07	5.77E-07	5.77E-07	3.28E-08	3.90E-06	3.06E-09	9.94E-06	1.35E-08	0.828315	4.30223	-4.13058	-1.00E+00
Ki (GGP) 0.75 mM		PGI	PMI	PMM	GMP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GaldH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
D-Glc 6-P	-6.38E-02	-5.97E-01	-4.67E-02	-0.0494608	-4.67E-02	-3.13E-03	-0.838064	-6.65E-07	4.30E-03	5.83E-06	1.31541	6.8096	-6.53791	4.36E-03
D-Fru 6-P	0.000311405	-0.633106	-0.0494608	-0.0494559	-0.0494559	-0.00331411	-0.888117	-7.05E-07	0.0045573	6.17E-06	1.3377	6.92402	-6.64777	0.00462151
D-Man 6-P	4.95E-04	5.03E-03	-1.34E-01	-1.34E-01	-1.34E-01	-9.00E-03	-2.41203	-3.49E-06	7.24E-03	9.81E-06	2.21246	11.4534	-10.9964	7.35E-03
D-Man 1-P	5.67E-04	5.76E-03	4.85E-04	4.85E-04	-1.54E-01	-1.03E-02	-2.76361	-4.00E-06	8.30E-03	1.12E-05	2.40713	12.4589	-11.9618	8.41E-03
GDP-d-Man	6.65E-04	6.75E-03	5.68E-04	5.68E-04	5.78E-04	-1.21E-02	-3.23661	-4.69E-06	9.73E-03	1.32E-05	2.67188	13.8266	-13.2749	9.86E-03
GDP-L-Gal	0.000689761	0.00680006	0.00052341	0.000582822	0.000582822	3.98E-05	-3.26503	-4.73E-06	0.00980171	1.33E-05	2.68273	13.8825	-13.3286	0.00989379
L-Gal 1-P	6.80E-07	6.91E-06	5.81E-07	5.92E-07	5.92E-07	4.04E-08	1.27E-05	-1.00E+00	9.96E-06	1.35E-08	0.831624	4.31945	-4.14707	1.01E-05
L-Gal	0.00020529	0.0020843	0.00017543	0.000178642	0.000178642	1.22E-05	0.00383922	9.30E-07	-1.00088	-0.000124467	0.821787	4.25254	-4.08287	0.00304667
L-GalL	6.80E-07	6.91E-06	5.81E-07	5.92E-07	5.92E-07	4.04E-08	1.27E-05	3.08E-09	9.96E-06	1.00E+00	0.831624	4.31941	-4.14707	1.01E-05
L-Asc	2.05E-04	2.08E-03	1.75E-04	1.75E-04	1.78E-04	1.22E-05	0.0038309	9.28E-07	3.00E-03	4.06E-06	-0.0098522	-0.0669626	0.0642909	3.04E-03
DHA	6.78E-07	6.88E-06	5.79E-07	5.90E-07	5.90E-07	4.02E-08	1.27E-05	3.07E-09	9.92E-06	1.34E-08	-0.171692	4.30219	-4.13054	1.01E-05
Breakdown	6.78E-07	6.88E-06	5.79E-07	5.90E-07	5.90E-07	4.02E-08	1.27E-05	3.07E-09	9.92E-06	1.34E-08	0.828308	4.30219	-4.13054	-1.00E+00
Ki (GGP) 0.1 mM		PGI	PMI	PMM	GMP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GaldH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
D-Glc 6-P	-2.43E-03	-2.02E-03	-1.45E-03	-1.33E-03	-1.33E-03	-6.42E-04	-0.237338	1.13E-06	7.19E-04	4.98E-06	0.200793	1.01207	-0.97211	3.73E-03
D-Fru 6-P	0.0075478	-0.00202508	-0.00144901	-0.00132705	-0.00132705	-0.00064228	-0.227549	1.13E-06	0.000718799	4.98E-06	0.194167	0.978037	-0.93942	0.00372779
D-Man 6-P	5.76E-03	6.51E-03	-1.45E-03	-1.33E-03	-1.33E-03	-6.43E-04	-0.238481	1.13E-06	7.19E-04	4.98E-06	0.187845	0.945553	-0.908218	3.73E-03
D-Man 1-P	5.76E-03	6.51E-03	6.66E-03	-1.33E-03	-1.33E-03	-6.43E-04	-0.238675	1.13E-06	7.19E-04	4.98E-06	0.181257	0.911716	-0.875717	3.73E-03
GDP-d-Man	5.76E-03	6.51E-03	6.67E-03	6.79E-03	6.79E-03	-6.43E-04	-0.238869	1.13E-06	7.20E-04	4.99E-06	0.174666	0.877864	-0.843202	3.73E-03
GDP-L-Gal	0.00576154	0.00665118	0.00666534	0.00678744	0.00678744	3.68E-03	-0.228943	1.13E-06	0.000719643	4.99E-06	0.171134	0.859725	-0.825779	0.00373216
L-Gal 1-P	6.12E-08	6.92E-08	7.00E-08	7.21E-08	7.21E-08	3.91E-08	1.67E-02	-1.00E+00	7.65E-09	5.30E-11	0.820845	4.2156	-4.04915	3.97E-08
L-Gal	3.66939E-06	4.14721E-06	0.000042445	4.32276E-06	4.32276E-06	2.34E-06	0.997996	7.19E-10	-1.00332	-0.000656703	0.00495423	0.0254311	-0.024427	2.37693E-06
L-GalL	6.12E-08	6.92E-08	7.08E-08	7.21E-08	7.21E-08	3.91E-08	1.67E-02	1.20E-11	7.65E-09	1.00E+00	0.820845	4.2156	-4.04915	3.97E-08
L-Asc	3.63E-06	4.10E-06	4.20E-06	4.28E-06	4.28E-06	2.32E-06	0.987145	7.11E-10	4.53E-07	3.14E-09	-0.820737	-4.21506	4.04863	2.35E-06
DHA	6.10E-08	6.89E-08	7.06E-08	7.18E-08	7.18E-08	3.89E-08	1.66E-02	1.19E-11	7.62E-09	5.28E-11	-0.182384	4.19902	-4.03322	3.95E-08
Breakdown	6.10E-08	6.89E-08	7.06E-08	7.18E-08	7.18E-08	3.89E-08	1.66E-02	1.19E-11	7.62E-09	5.28E-11	0.817616	4.19902	-4.03322	-1.00E+00



Appendices

Ki(GGP) 0,05 mM	PGI	PMI	PMM	GMP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GalDH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
D-Glc 6-P	-2,38E-03	-1,91E-03	-1,42E-03	-1,30E-03	-6,32E-04	-0,106165	9,91E-07	3,23E-04	4,38E-06	0,092556	0,452411	-0,434767	3,28E-03
D-Fru 6-P	0,00563929	-0,00191079	-0,00142172	-0,00130201	-0,000632068	-0,106449	9,92E-07	0,000323016	4,38E-06	0,0860998	0,41969	-0,403322	0,00328002
D-Man 6-P	5,64E-03	6,14E-03	-1,42E-03	-1,30E-03	-6,32E-04	-0,107015	9,92E-07	3,23E-04	4,38E-06	0,0798507	0,388017	-0,372884	3,28E-03
D-Man 1-P	5,64E-03	6,14E-03	6,54E-03	-1,30E-03	-6,32E-04	-0,107291	9,92E-07	3,23E-04	4,38E-06	0,0734342	0,355498	-0,341633	3,28E-03
GDP-d-Man	5,64E-03	6,14E-03	6,54E-03	6,66E-03	-6,33E-04	-0,107567	9,92E-07	3,23E-04	4,38E-06	0,0670149	0,322964	-0,310369	3,28E-03
GDP-L-Gal	0,00564355	0,0061412	0,00653695	0,00665674	3,62E-03	-0,107703	9,92E-07	0,000323259	4,38E-06	0,0635779	0,305547	-0,293631	0,00328249
L-Gal 1-P	1,03E-07	1,12E-07	1,19E-07	1,21E-07	6,57E-08	3,19E-02	-1,00E+00	5,87E-09	7,96E-11	0,811631	4,11294	-3,95254	5,96E-08
L-Gal	3,19478E-06	3,47649E-06	3,70053E-06	3,76834E-06	2,05E-06	0,992649	5,62E-10	-1,00265	-0,00128383	0,00941023	0,047677	-0,0458176	1,8582E-06
L-Asc	1,03E-07	1,12E-07	1,19E-07	1,21E-07	6,57E-08	3,19E-02	1,80E-11	5,87E-09	-1,00E+00	0,811631	4,11294	-3,95254	5,96E-08
DHA	1,02E-07	1,11E-07	1,18E-07	1,20E-07	6,55E-08	0,971975	5,50E-10	1,79E-07	2,43E-09	-0,811597	-4,11278	3,95238	1,82E-06
Breakdown	1,02E-07	1,11E-07	1,18E-07	1,20E-07	6,55E-08	3,17E-02	1,80E-11	5,85E-09	7,93E-11	-0,19151	4,09703	-3,93724	5,94E+08
Ki(GGP) 0,01 mM	PGI	PMI	PMM	GMP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GalDH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
D-Glc 6-P	-2,13E-03	-1,67E-03	-1,28E-03	-1,17E-03	-5,69E-04	-0,0196985	8,19E-07	6,16E-05	3,61E-06	0,0207316	0,083581	-0,0805787	2,71E-03
D-Fru 6-P	0,00504082	-0,00166874	-0,00127593	-0,00116859	-0,000568679	-0,0205524	8,19E-07	0,000061621	3,62E-06	0,015317	0,058467	-0,0563668	0,00271022
D-Man 6-P	5,04E-03	5,34E-03	-1,28E-03	-1,17E-03	-5,69E-04	-0,0214312	8,19E-07	6,16E-05	3,62E-06	0,010058	0,0340762	-0,0328522	2,71E-03
D-Man 1-P	5,04E-03	5,35E-03	5,85E-03	-1,17E-03	-5,69E-04	-0,0222785	8,19E-07	6,16E-05	3,62E-06	0,00467777	0,00912184	-0,00879417	2,71E-03
GDP-d-Man	5,04E-03	5,35E-03	5,85E-03	5,95E-03	-5,69E-04	-0,0231262	8,19E-07	6,16E-05	3,62E-06	-0,000704408	-0,0158415	0,0152725	2,71E-03
GDP-L-Gal	0,00504303	0,00534686	0,00584702	0,00595441	3,25E-03	-0,0235782	8,19E-07	0,000061648	3,62E-06	-0,003568695	-0,02921	0,0281608	0,0027114
L-Gal 1-P	3,14E-07	3,33E-07	3,64E-07	3,70E-07	2,02E-07	1,19E-01	-1,00E+00	3,84E-09	2,25E-10	0,758307	3,51682	-3,39049	1,69E-07
L-Gal	2,53355E-06	2,68619E-06	2,93747E-06	2,99142E-06	1,63E-06	0,959669	4,12E-10	-0,998178	-0,00550829	0,0377199	0,174928	-0,168645	1,36217E-06
L-GalL	3,14E-07	3,33E-07	3,64E-07	3,70E-07	2,02E-07	1,19E-01	5,10E-11	3,84E-09	-1,00E+00	0,758307	3,51682	-3,39049	1,69E-07
L-Asc	2,34E-06	2,48E-06	2,71E-06	2,76E-06	1,50E-06	0,884626	3,79E-10	2,85E-08	1,67E-09	-0,75831	-3,51684	3,39051	1,26E-06
DHA	3,13E-07	3,32E-07	3,63E-07	3,69E-07	2,01E-07	1,18E-01	5,08E-11	3,82E-09	2,24E-10	-0,244325	3,50461	-3,37872	1,68E-07
Breakdown	3,13E-07	3,32E-07	3,63E-07	3,69E-07	2,01E-07	1,18E-01	5,08E-11	3,82E-09	2,24E-10	0,755675	3,50461	-3,37872	-1,00E+00

Appendix 6. Flux (A) and concentration (B) control coefficients at each step with competitive feedback inhibition of PMI and L-GalDH relaxed to 100 mM (compare Supplementary Tables 4 and 5 for published Ki values). Values were calculated in COPASI using conditions indicated in Appendix 3.

A. Flux control coefficients. Ki (GGP) = 0,01 mM

Ki (PMI) 100 mM	PGI	PMI	PMM	GMP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GalDH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
PGI	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62518E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.07823E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	0.755675	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68101E-07
PMI	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62518E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.07823E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	0.755675	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68101E-07
PMM	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62518E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.07823E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	0.755675	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68101E-07
GMP	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62518E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.07823E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	0.755675	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68101E-07
GME	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62518E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.07823E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	0.755675	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68101E-07
GPP	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62518E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.07823E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	0.755675	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68101E-07
L-GalDH	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62518E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.0781E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	0.755675	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68101E-07
GLDH	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62518E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.07823E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	0.755675	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68101E-07
Turnover	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62518E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.07824E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	0.755675	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68101E-07
Oxidation	7.86461E-08	8.27654E-08	9.11891E-08	9.28638E-08	5.06175E-08	0.0297914	1.2774E-11	9.61413E-10	5.64014E-11	-0.0255375	0.881564	0.114182	4.22849E-08
Reduction	6.99271E-08	7.35897E-08	8.10795E-08	8.25686E-08	4.50059E-08	0.0264886	1.13578E-11	8.54827E-10	5.01485E-11	-0.0546451	0.78383	0.244326	3.7597E-08
Recycle	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62518E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.07823E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	0.755675	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68101E-07

B. Concentration control coefficients. Ki (GGP) = 0,01 mM

Ki (PMI) 100 mM	PGI	PMI	PMM	GMP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GalDH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
D-Glc 6-P	-0.00213012	-0.00165597	-0.0012757	-0.00116838	-0.000566578	-0.0197112	8.18563E-07	6.16078E-05	3.61423E-06	0.0207319	0.0535826	-0.0805802	0.00270963
D-Fru 6-P	0.00504082	-0.00165635	-0.001276	-0.00116865	-0.000566709	-0.0205651	8.1875E-07	6.16218E-05	3.61505E-06	0.0153174	0.0584686	-0.0563683	0.00271025
D-Man 6-P	0.00504092	0.00530495	-0.00127603	-0.00116868	-0.000566721	-0.0213304	8.18765E-07	0.000061623	3.61512E-06	0.0100576	0.0340748	-0.0328508	0.0027103
D-Man 1-P	0.00504182	0.00530305	0.00584592	-0.00116889	-0.000566824	-0.0222377	8.18911E-07	0.000061634	3.61576E-06	0.00467735	0.0091204	-0.00879279	0.00271079
GDP-d-Man	0.00504273	0.00530685	0.00584697	0.00595436	-0.000566928	-0.0230854	8.19059E-07	6.16451E-05	3.61641E-06	-0.000070482	-0.0158429	0.0152738	0.00271127
GDP-L-Gal	0.00504277	0.00530689	0.00584702	0.0059544	0.00324558	-0.0233574	8.19065E-07	6.16456E-05	3.61642E-06	-0.003358736	-0.0292114	0.0281621	0.0027113
L-Gal 1-P	3.13743E-07	3.30175E-07	3.6378E-07	3.70461E-07	2.01928E-07	0.118847	-1.00348	3.83536E-09	2.25002E-10	0.758307	3.51682	-3.39049	1.68687E-07
L-Gal	2.53342E-06	2.66611E-06	2.93747E-06	2.99142E-06	1.63054E-06	0.959669	4.11486E-10	-0.998178	-0.00550829	0.03772	0.174929	-0.168645	1.36212E-06



Appendices

L-Gall	3.13743E-07	3.30176E-07	3.6378E-07	3.70461E-07	2.01928E-07	0.118847	5.09598E-11	3.83536E-09	-1.00348	0.758307	3.51682	-3.39049	1.68687E-07
L-Asc	2.33531E-06	2.45763E-06	2.70776E-06	2.7575E-06	1.50304E-06	0.884626	3.79311E-10	2.85482E-08	1.67478E-09	-0.75831	-3.51684	3.39051	1.25561E-06
DHA	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62518E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.07824E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	-0.244325	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68101E-07
Breakdown	3.12654E-07	3.2903E-07	3.62517E-07	3.69176E-07	2.01228E-07	0.118434	5.07823E-11	3.82205E-09	2.24221E-10	0.755674	3.50461	-3.37872	-1
K1 (L-GaldH)	PGI	PMI	PMM	GMP	GME	GGP	GPP	L-GaldH	GLDH	Turnover	Oxidation	Reduction	Recycle
100 mM													
D-Glc 6-P	-0.00213012	-0.00166836	-0.00127564	-0.00116832	-0.000568548	-0.0196386	8.18505E-07	2.81918E-06	3.61397E-06	0.0207307	0.0835774	-0.0805752	0.00270944
D-Fru 6-P	0.00504081	-0.00166874	-0.00127593	-0.00116859	-0.000568679	-0.0204924	8.18692E-07	2.81982E-06	3.61479E-06	0.0153161	0.0584635	-0.0563634	0.00271006
D-Man 6-P	0.00504117	0.0053449	-0.00127602	-0.00116868	-0.000568721	-0.0213712	8.18749E-07	2.82002E-06	3.61505E-06	0.0100571	0.0340727	-0.0328488	0.00271025
D-Man 1-P	0.00504207	0.00534585	0.00584592	0.00584592	0.000568824	-0.0222185	8.18896E-07	2.82053E-06	3.61569E-06	0.00467687	0.0091184	-0.00879085	0.00271074
GDP-D-Man	0.00504298	0.00534682	0.00584697	0.00595435	-0.000568928	-0.0230662	8.19043E-07	2.82104E-06	3.61634E-06	-0.0007053	-0.0158449	0.0152757	0.00271122
GDP-L-Gal	0.00504302	0.00534686	0.00584701	0.0059544	0.00324558	-0.0235182	8.1905E-07	2.82106E-06	3.61637E-06	-0.00358784	-0.0292134	0.028164	0.00271124
L-Gal 1-P	3.13698E-07	3.32599E-07	3.63711E-07	3.70391E-07	2.0189E-07	0.118847	-1.00348	1.75483E-10	2.24955E-10	0.758307	3.51682	-3.39049	1.68652E-07
L-Gal	3.13044E-07	3.95519E-07	4.32517E-07	4.40461E-07	2.40083E-07	0.14133	6.05867E-11	-0.899071	-0.108413	0.742463	3.44334	-3.31965	2.00557E-07
L-Gall	3.13698E-07	3.32599E-07	3.63711E-07	3.70391E-07	2.0189E-07	0.118847	5.09483E-11	1.75482E-10	-1.00348	0.758307	3.51682	-3.39049	1.68652E-07
L-Asc	2.33498E-06	2.47566E-06	2.70724E-06	2.75697E-06	1.50275E-06	0.884626	3.79231E-10	1.30619E-09	1.67443E-09	-0.75831	-3.51684	3.39051	1.25534E-06
DHA	3.1261E-07	3.31444E-07	3.62448E-07	3.69105E-07	2.01189E-07	0.118434	5.07718E-11	1.74873E-10	2.24174E-10	-0.244325	3.50461	-3.37872	1.68066E-07
Breakdown	3.1261E-07	3.31444E-07	3.62448E-07	3.69105E-07	2.01189E-07	0.118434	5.07717E-11	1.74873E-10	2.24174E-10	0.755675	3.50461	-3.37872	-1



Phosphomannomutase

	100.237	0.0575	0.0028	0.0075	0.0015	0.0011	0.0110	0.0001	0.3929	0.0005	130.3850	0.3987	0.3987
	Relative activity	D-Glc 6-P	D-Fru 6-P	D-Man 6-P	D-Man 1-P	GDP-D-Man	GDP-L-Gal	L-Gal 1-P	L-Gal	L-Gall	L-Asc	DHA	Breakdown
K (GGP)													
0.2	0.399052	108.415	9.12005	9.05398	0.0378789	0.0372489	0.370859	0.000108305	0.0109676	0.000433221	3.8909	0.398719	0.398719
0.2	0.399052	107.902	9.07679	9.01092	0.0838663	0.0829053	0.825619	0.000108451	0.0111237	0.000433805	3.94289	0.360202	0.360202
0.2	0.796214	106.96	8.99753	8.9322	0.174464	0.172851	1.72152	0.000108513	0.0111913	0.000434054	3.96542	0.360408	0.360408
0.2	1.58866	105.158	8.84587	8.78161	0.350685	0.347806	3.46416	0.000108542	0.011223	0.000434169	3.97596	0.360503	0.360503
0.2	3.16979	101.75	8.5591	8.49688	0.665204	0.679921	6.77218	0.000108556	0.0112383	0.000434252	3.98107	0.360549	0.360549
0.2	6.32456	95.5744	8.03953	7.98105	1.29185	1.28221	12.7712	0.000108563	0.0112459	0.000434252	3.98358	0.360572	0.360572
0.2	12.6191	85.2537	7.17118	7.11893	2.30601	2.28908	22.8001	0.000108566	0.0112496	0.000434266	3.98483	0.360583	0.360583
0.2	25.1785	70.1432	5.89982	5.85671	3.79093	3.76333	37.4844	0.000108568	0.0112515	0.000434273	3.98546	0.360589	0.360589
0.2	50.2377	51.8213	4.35828	4.32624	5.59148	5.55094	55.2839	0.000108569	0.0112525	0.000434276	3.98577	0.360592	0.360592
0.2	100.237	34.0719	2.8649	2.8436	7.33578	7.28271	72.5391	0.000108569	0.0112529	0.000434278	3.98593	0.360593	0.360593
0.2	200	20.2473	1.70175	1.6888	8.69437	8.63154	85.9741	0.00010857	0.0112532	0.000434279	3.98601	0.360594	0.360594
0.0416277													
0.2	0.399052	102.744	8.63859	8.57072	0.035266	0.0346134	0.344505	0.000115689	0.0308466	0.000462754	10.4891	0.384147	0.384147
0.2	0.796214	102.164	8.58973	8.52216	0.0787243	0.0777395	0.773939	0.000115759	0.0313323	0.000463034	10.6501	0.384379	0.384379
0.2	1.58866	101.234	8.5115	8.44451	0.164332	0.16269	1.61987	0.000115788	0.0315405	0.000463151	10.7191	0.384476	0.384476
0.2	3.16979	99.5127	8.36675	8.30086	0.33085	0.327933	3.26534	0.000115801	0.0316374	0.000463206	10.7512	0.38452	0.38452
0.2	6.32456	96.2843	8.09526	8.03144	0.646975	0.641635	6.38914	0.000115808	0.0316842	0.000463232	10.7667	0.384542	0.384542
0.2	12.6191	90.4466	7.60432	7.54426	1.22035	1.21061	12.055	0.000115811	0.0317073	0.000463244	10.7744	0.384552	0.384552
0.2	25.1785	80.6926	6.78405	6.73026	2.17913	2.16205	21.5292	0.000115813	0.0317187	0.000463251	10.7782	0.384558	0.384558
0.2	50.2377	66.4083	5.58278	5.53821	3.58353	3.55569	35.4069	0.000115813	0.0317245	0.000463254	10.7801	0.38456	0.38456
0.2	100.237	49.0799	4.12553	4.09212	5.28733	5.24643	52.2431	0.000115814	0.0317273	0.000463256	10.781	0.384562	0.384562
0.2	200	32.2838	2.71304	2.69045	6.93883	6.88528	68.5625	0.000115814	0.0317288	0.000463256	10.7815	0.384562	0.384562
0.2	0.399052	86.6128	7.28047	7.21853	0.029442	0.0288182	0.28676	0.000118727	0.0877002	0.000474908	29.3233	0.394197	0.394197
0.2	0.796214	85.7675	7.20938	7.1479	0.0657686	0.0648593	0.645614	0.000118759	0.0893726	0.000475037	29.8772	0.394303	0.394303
0.2	1.58866	84.8358	7.13103	7.07012	0.137321	0.135849	1.35244	0.000118773	0.090901	0.000475109	30.1149	0.394347	0.394347
0.2	3.16979	83.3256	7.00405	6.94411	0.273499	0.273934	2.72732	0.000118779	0.0904244	0.000475115	30.2256	0.394368	0.394368
0.2	6.32456	80.593	6.77429	6.71615	0.540726	0.536085	5.33751	0.000118782	0.0905861	0.000475127	30.2791	0.394378	0.394378
0.2	12.6191	75.6973	6.36266	6.30775	1.02	1.01159	10.072	0.000118783	0.0906657	0.000475133	30.3055	0.394382	0.394382
0.2	25.1785	67.5365	5.6765	5.62698	1.82151	1.80681	17.9898	0.000118784	0.0907053	0.000475136	30.3186	0.394385	0.394385
0.2	50.2377	55.5917	4.67218	4.63055	2.99575	2.97182	29.5896	0.000118784	0.090725	0.000475137	30.3252	0.394386	0.394386
0.2	100.237	41.1014	3.45384	3.42178	4.42061	4.38549	43.6652	0.000118784	0.0907349	0.000475138	30.3284	0.394387	0.394387
0.2	200	27.0539	2.27273	2.24995	5.80206	5.75608	57.3119	0.000118785	0.0907398	0.000475138	30.3301	0.394387	0.394387
0.2	0.399052	16.1055	1.35218	1.33663	6.87879	6.82435	67.9484	0.000118785	0.0907423	0.000475138	30.3309	0.394387	0.394387
0.120112													
0.2	0.399052	5.55867	0.465348	0.44418	0.00142386	0.00101552	0.00993217	0.000120063	0.373599	0.000480251	124.007	0.398614	0.398614
0.2	0.796214	2.701	0.225095	0.202925	0.00147887	0.00107006	0.0104751	0.000120074	0.383643	0.000480295	127.333	0.39865	0.39865
0.2	1.58866	1.44176	0.119227	0.0976639	0.00150407	0.00109504	0.0107239	0.000120078	0.388068	0.000480313	128.799	0.398665	0.398665
0.2	3.16979	0.847599	0.0692745	0.0479978	0.00151617	0.00110704	0.0108434	0.00012008	0.390156	0.000480322	129.847	0.398672	0.398672
0.2	6.32456	0.558415	0.044962	0.0238247	0.00152212	0.00111293	0.010902	0.000120082	0.391173	0.000480326	129.829	0.398676	0.398676
0.2	12.6191	0.415561	0.0329519	0.0118835	0.00152506	0.00111586	0.0109311	0.000120082	0.391675	0.000480328	129.993	0.398678	0.398678
0.2	200	0.344478	0.0289757	0.00594161	0.00152653	0.00111731	0.0109456	0.000120082	0.391925	0.000480329	130.076	0.398678	0.398678



GDP-p-Mannose pyrophosphorylase

	25.1785	0.30898	0.0239913	0.0029743	0.00152727	0.00111804	0.0109529	0.000120082	0.392049	0.00048033	130.117	0.398679	0.398679
	50.2377	0.29122	0.0224982	0.00148979	0.00152764	0.00111841	0.0109565	0.000120082	0.392112	0.00048033	130.138	0.398679	0.398679
	100.237	0.282328	0.0217506	0.000746438	0.00152782	0.00111859	0.0109583	0.000120082	0.392143	0.00048033	130.148	0.398679	0.398679
K (GGP)	Relative activity	D-Glc 6-P	D-Fru 6-P	D-Man 6-P	D-Man 1-P	GDP-D-Man	GDP-L-Gal	L-Gal 1-P	L-Gal	L-GalL	L-Asc	DHA	Breakdown
	0.2	106.497	8.95872	8.8938	2.28131	0.0369275	0.367657	0.000108303	0.0109652	0.000433212	3.89009	0.359712	0.359712
	0.399052	106.039	8.92007	8.85533	2.27142	0.081805	0.814659	0.00010845	0.011122	0.000433799	3.94231	0.360197	0.360197
	0.796214	105.204	8.84974	8.78547	2.25348	0.17033	1.69641	0.000108513	0.0111904	0.00043405	3.96511	0.360405	0.360405
	1.58866	103.603	8.71508	8.65176	2.21918	0.342954	3.41583	0.000108542	0.0112225	0.000434168	3.97581	0.360502	0.360502
	3.16979	100.564	8.45934	8.39784	2.15403	0.672232	6.69559	0.000108556	0.0112381	0.000434224	3.981	0.360549	0.360549
	6.32456	95.0082	7.99189	7.93375	2.03497	1.27474	12.6968	0.000108563	0.0112458	0.000434252	3.98357	0.360572	0.360572
	12.6191	85.578	7.19846	7.14602	1.83289	2.29769	22.886	0.000108567	0.0112497	0.000434266	3.98484	0.360583	0.360583
	25.1785	71.4342	6.00844	5.96455	1.52979	3.8321	38.1694	0.000108568	0.0112516	0.000434273	3.98548	0.360589	0.360589
	50.2377	53.7239	4.51836	4.48517	1.15027	5.73345	57.3069	0.000108569	0.0112525	0.000434276	3.98579	0.360592	0.360592
	100.237	35.9513	3.02303	3.00059	0.769414	7.68158	76.512	0.00010857	0.011253	0.000434278	3.98595	0.360593	0.360593
	200	21.6677	1.82125	1.80745	0.463326	9.23119	91.9469	0.00010857	0.0112532	0.000434279	3.98603	0.360594	0.360594
	0.2	100.93	8.48601	8.4193	2.1585	0.0343621	0.342002	0.000115688	0.0308403	0.000462751	10.487	0.384144	0.384144
	0.399052	100.403	8.44164	8.37521	2.14718	0.0767512	0.764107	0.000115758	0.0313272	0.000463031	10.6484	0.384376	0.384376
	0.796214	99.5734	8.37187	8.30594	2.12942	0.160359	1.59666	0.000115787	0.0315377	0.00046315	10.7181	0.384474	0.384474
	1.58866	98.0432	8.24318	8.17823	2.09666	0.323398	3.22018	0.000115801	0.031636	0.000463205	10.7507	0.38452	0.38452
	3.16979	95.1634	8.00099	7.93789	2.03504	0.634414	6.31723	0.000115808	0.0316837	0.000463231	10.7665	0.384542	0.384542
	6.32456	89.9111	7.55929	7.49957	1.92264	1.20358	11.9849	0.000115811	0.0317071	0.000463244	10.7743	0.384552	0.384552
	12.6191	80.9993	6.80984	6.75586	1.73194	2.17017	21.6101	0.000115813	0.0317188	0.000463251	10.7782	0.384558	0.384558
	25.1785	67.63	5.68553	5.64017	1.44586	3.62059	36.0531	0.000115814	0.0317246	0.000463256	10.7801	0.384562	0.384562
	50.2377	50.8818	4.27706	4.24249	1.08747	5.43771	54.1478	0.000115814	0.0317275	0.000463256	10.7811	0.384562	0.384562
	100.237	34.0651	2.86284	2.8391	0.727614	7.26231	72.3169	0.000115814	0.031729	0.000463256	10.7816	0.384562	0.384562
	200	20.5429	1.72567	1.71064	0.438256	8.72947	86.9267	0.000115814	0.0317297	0.000463257	10.7818	0.384563	0.384563
	0.2	85.0866	7.15214	7.09121	1.81757	0.0286794	0.285379	0.000118727	0.0876859	0.000474907	29.3186	0.394196	0.394196
	0.399052	84.2932	7.08542	7.02491	1.80057	0.0641055	0.638109	0.000118759	0.0893566	0.000475035	29.8719	0.394302	0.394302
	0.796214	83.447	7.01426	6.95427	1.78246	0.13397	1.33374	0.000118772	0.0900808	0.00047509	30.1118	0.394347	0.394347
	1.58866	82.0967	6.90072	6.8416	1.75357	0.270207	2.69022	0.000118779	0.0904198	0.000475115	30.2241	0.394367	0.394367
	3.16979	79.6556	6.69547	6.63795	1.70136	0.530102	5.27793	0.000118782	0.0905842	0.000475127	30.2785	0.394377	0.394377
	6.32456	75.2494	6.325	6.27039	1.60713	1.00574	10.0138	0.000118783	0.0906552	0.000475133	30.3053	0.394382	0.394382
	12.6191	67.7931	5.69808	5.64839	1.44767	1.81358	18.0573	0.000118784	0.0907055	0.000475136	30.3187	0.394385	0.394385
	25.1785	56.6141	4.75814	4.71584	1.2086	3.02597	30.1288	0.000118784	0.0907256	0.000475137	30.3253	0.394386	0.394386
	50.2377	42.6099	3.58067	3.54762	0.909102	4.54522	45.2556	0.000118785	0.0907356	0.000475138	30.3287	0.394387	0.394387
	100.237	28.5462	2.3982	2.37444	0.608336	6.07107	60.4481	0.000118785	0.0907406	0.000475138	30.3303	0.394387	0.394387
	200	17.2355	1.4472	1.4309	0.366445	7.29828	72.6672	0.000118785	0.0907432	0.000475138	30.3312	0.394387	0.394387
	0.2	4.47974	0.374639	0.351625	0.0897407	0.00103433	0.0101195	0.000120067	0.377126	0.000480267	125.175	0.398627	0.398627
	0.399052	2.21718	0.184419	0.162488	0.0412562	0.00107891	0.0105633	0.000120075	0.385223	0.000480301	127.857	0.398656	0.398656
	0.796214	1.21881	0.100483	0.0790305	0.0198661	0.00109921	0.0107654	0.000120079	0.388797	0.000480316	129.04	0.398668	0.398668
	1.58866	0.747514	0.0608601	0.039633	0.00976265	0.00110893	0.0108622	0.000120081	0.390483	0.000480323	129.599	0.398674	0.398674
	3.16979	0.518083	0.0415712	0.0204539	0.00484619	0.0011137	0.0109097	0.000120082	0.391304	0.000480327	129.871	0.398676	0.398676

Appendices

GDP-D-Mannose 3, 5'-epimerase													
K (GGP)													
	Relative activity	D-Glc 6-P	D-Fru 6-P	D-Man 6-P	D-Man 1-P	GDP-D-Man	GDP-L-Gal	L-Gal 1-P	L-Gal	L-GalL	L-Asc	DHA	Breakdown
	6.32456	0.404737	0.0320419	0.0109789	0.00241729	0.00111606	0.0109332	0.000120082	0.39171	0.000480328	130.005	0.398678	0.398678
	12.6191	0.348334	0.0272999	0.00626392	0.00120863	0.00111724	0.0109449	0.000120082	0.391912	0.000480329	130.072	0.398678	0.398678
	25.1785	0.320167	0.0249318	0.00390928	0.000605031	0.00111783	0.0109508	0.000120082	0.392203	0.000480329	130.105	0.398679	0.398679
	50.2377	0.306075	0.023747	0.00273127	0.000303053	0.00111812	0.0109537	0.000120082	0.392063	0.00048033	130.122	0.398679	0.398679
	100.237	0.299018	0.0231538	0.00214139	0.000151841	0.00111827	0.0109552	0.000120082	0.392088	0.00048033	130.13	0.398679	0.398679
	0.02	108.008	9.11797	9.08372	2.33824	2.3293	0.00020477	5.63764E-05	0.000781329	0.000225506	0.403691	0.187569	0.187569
	0.0502377	105.765	8.8992	8.83692	2.26725	2.25118	0.00330559	0.000104786	0.0080864	0.000419143	2.92594	0.34807	0.34807
	0.126191	102.2	8.59408	8.52825	2.18674	2.16993	0.0189559	0.000113506	0.0208748	0.000454384	7.18255	0.377225	0.377225
	0.316979	100.43	8.44434	8.37849	2.14812	2.13138	0.0590176	0.000115085	0.0217782	0.000460342	9.27303	0.382152	0.382152
	0.796214	99.6045	8.37463	8.30891	2.13021	2.11354	0.15939	0.000115543	0.0298774	0.000462171	10.1678	0.383665	0.383665
	2	99.0919	8.33142	8.26588	2.11915	2.10255	0.410681	0.000115709	0.0309861	0.000462836	10.5353	0.384214	0.384214
	5.02377	98.4511	8.2775	8.21231	2.10541	2.0889	1.03723	0.000115773	0.0314331	0.000463091	10.6835	0.384426	0.384426
	12.6191	97.1251	8.16597	8.10161	2.07702	2.06072	2.58243	0.000115798	0.0316121	0.000463191	10.7428	0.384509	0.384509
	31.6979	94.0399	7.90651	7.84413	2.01099	1.9952	6.29233	0.000115808	0.0316835	0.000463231	10.7665	0.384542	0.384542
	79.6214	87.1234	7.32485	7.26693	1.86299	1.84833	14.6531	0.000115812	0.0317119	0.000463247	10.7759	0.384555	0.384555
	200	73.5495	6.18333	6.13415	1.57253	1.56009	31.0762	0.000115813	0.0317232	0.000463253	10.7796	0.38456	0.38456
	0.02	107.987	9.11529	9.08015	2.33708	2.32791	8.78975E-05	5.78601E-05	0.000830669	0.000231441	0.423526	0.192496	0.192496
	0.0502377	102.785	8.64366	8.57796	2.19959	2.18279	0.0026029	0.000112909	0.0188805	0.000451638	6.49586	0.374953	0.374953
	0.126191	92.291	7.75838	7.69478	1.97243	1.95667	0.016796	0.00011781	0.0569166	0.00047124	19.1269	0.391164	0.391164
	0.316979	87.0624	7.3184	7.25692	1.86009	1.84512	0.0508523	0.00011846	0.0758549	0.00047384	25.4	0.393314	0.393314
	0.796214	84.6188	7.11284	7.05242	1.80764	1.79306	0.134992	0.000118662	0.0845019	0.000474649	28.264	0.393982	0.393982
	2	83.4295	7.01281	6.95294	1.78212	1.76773	0.34504	0.000118737	0.0882017	0.000474947	29.4894	0.394229	0.394229
	5.02377	82.5792	6.9413	6.8819	1.76391	1.74966	0.868487	0.000118766	0.0897235	0.000475063	29.9934	0.394325	0.394325
	12.6191	81.3438	6.83742	6.77881	1.73748	1.72343	2.15934	0.000118777	0.0903377	0.000475109	30.1969	0.394362	0.394362
	31.6979	78.7152	6.6164	6.55951	1.68125	1.66765	5.25861	0.000118782	0.0905835	0.000475127	30.2783	0.394377	0.394377
	79.6214	72.9159	6.1288	6.07573	1.55723	1.5446	12.2438	0.000118783	0.0906816	0.000475134	30.3108	0.394383	0.394383
	200	61.5645	5.17437	5.1288	1.31447	1.30374	25.9672	0.000118784	0.0907207	0.000475137	30.3237	0.394386	0.394386
	0.02	107.976	9.11389	9.0783	2.33649	2.3272	0.000028052	5.86207E-05	0.000857057	0.000234483	0.43405	0.195021	0.195021
	0.0502377	79.6347	6.69362	6.63537	1.70068	1.6869	0.00162639	0.000118984	0.103059	0.000475934	34.4102	0.395045	0.395045
	0.126191	32.8224	2.75752	2.72107	0.697147	0.691222	0.00576688	0.000119911	0.273604	0.000479643	90.8913	0.398111	0.398111

0.316979	14.7344	1.23678	1.20891	0.309503	0.306649	0.00828588	0.000120021	0.339503	0.000480084	112.715	0.398476	0.398476
0.796214	6.49133	0.54376	0.519804	0.132853	0.131401	0.00972044	0.000120058	0.369533	0.000480233	122.661	0.398599	0.398599
2	2.86539	0.238916	0.216683	0.0551488	0.0543138	0.0104253	0.000120073	0.382743	0.000480291	127.035	0.398647	0.398647
5.02377	1.34484	0.111079	0.0895693	0.0225566	0.0219874	0.0107361	0.000120079	0.388283	0.000480314	128.87	0.398666	0.398666
12.6191	0.725232	0.0589868	0.0377715	0.00928549	0.00881465	0.0108655	0.000120081	0.39054	0.000480323	129.617	0.398674	0.398674
31.6979	0.476145	0.0396453	0.0169485	0.00394758	0.00351913	0.0109179	0.000120082	0.391447	0.000480327	129.918	0.398677	0.398677
79.6214	0.376588	0.0296753	0.00862579	0.00181409	0.00140259	0.010939	0.000120082	0.39181	0.000480329	130.038	0.398678	0.398678

GDP-L-Galactose phosphorylase

K _i (GGP)	Relative activity	D-Glc 6-P	D-Fru 6-P	D-Man 6-P	D-Man 1-P	GDP-D-Man	GDP-L-Gal	L-Gal 1-P	L-Gal	L-GalL	L-Asc	DHA	Breakdown
0.2	91.8261	7.76164	7.74204	1.99536	1.99021	19.8745	3.78734E-05	0.000345022	0.000151493	0.214303	0.126085	0.126085	
0.399052	91.7621	7.74967	7.72373	1.98897	1.98217	19.7852	5.02102E-05	0.000603039	0.000200841	0.329956	0.167088	0.167088	
0.796214	91.6464	7.73241	7.69925	1.98076	1.97209	19.6744	6.43397E-05	0.00108264	0.000257359	0.522058	0.214007	0.214007	
1.58866	91.4303	7.7064	7.66581	1.97018	1.95959	19.5393	7.90511E-05	0.00199439	0.000316205	0.857218	0.262811	0.262811	
3.16979	91.0155	7.66434	7.61702	1.95584	1.94354	19.3697	9.25684E-05	0.00376059	0.000370274	1.47143	0.307612	0.307612	
6.32456	90.2036	7.59037	7.53796	1.93413	1.92056	19.1332	0.000103307	0.0072304	0.000413228	2.64302	0.343175	0.343175	
12.6191	88.5966	7.45136	7.3959	1.89672	1.88246	18.7486	0.000110691	0.0141067	0.000442766	4.9353	0.367615	0.367615	
25.1785	85.3996	7.18019	7.12388	1.82638	1.81208	18.0447	0.000115197	0.0277921	0.000460787	9.47655	0.38252	0.38252	
50.2377	79.0269	6.6431	6.58833	1.68876	1.67522	16.6803	0.000117724	0.0550747	0.000470895	18.5168	0.390879	0.390879	
100.237	66.3173	5.57388	5.52407	1.41577	1.40423	13.9813	0.00011907	0.109488	0.00047628	36.5396	0.396331	0.396331	
200	40.9796	3.44336	3.40445	0.872338	0.865032	8.61245	0.000119766	0.217967	0.000479065	72.4657	0.397633	0.397633	

0.2	91.7194	7.74283	7.71378	1.98558	1.97797	19.739	5.62962E-05	0.00077874	0.000225185	0.402644	0.187302	0.187302
0.399052	91.5604	7.72142	7.6847	1.97607	1.96647	19.6134	7.13806E-05	0.00144409	0.000285522	0.657834	0.23737	0.23737
0.796214	91.2571	7.68811	7.644	1.96364	1.95215	19.4601	8.60691E-05	0.00273055	0.000344276	1.11637	0.286076	0.286076
1.58866	90.6662	7.63181	7.58163	1.94597	1.93295	19.26	9.85046E-05	0.00525248	0.000394018	1.97802	0.327274	0.327274
3.16979	89.4995	7.52891	7.47484	1.91732	1.90331	18.9684	0.000107578	0.0102425	0.000430312	3.6493	0.357312	0.357312
6.32456	87.181	7.33092	7.27474	1.8653	1.85093	18.4328	0.000113375	0.0201661	0.000453501	6.94741	0.376495	0.376495
12.6191	82.5612	6.94076	6.88492	1.76493	1.75091	17.4346	0.000116729	0.0399436	0.000466915	13.5038	0.387588	0.387588
25.1785	73.3481	6.16524	6.11257	1.5667	1.55402	15.473	0.000118548	0.0793875	0.000474191	26.57	0.393604	0.393604
50.2377	54.9739	4.62001	4.57502	1.17244	1.16278	11.577	0.000119498	0.158053	0.000477993	52.6235	0.396747	0.396747
100.237	18.4335	1.54778	1.51876	0.388934	0.385451	3.83751	0.000119985	0.314494	0.000479938	104.433	0.398355	0.398355
200	0.389453	0.0307569	0.00970216	0.00209001	0.00167632	0.0165113	0.000120082	0.391746	0.000480328	130.017	0.398678	0.398678

0.2	91.4604	7.70975	7.66993	1.97145	1.96106	19.555	7.75117E-05	0.00186687	0.000310047	0.811576	0.257706	0.257706
0.399052	91.0342	7.66612	7.61901	1.95641	1.94416	19.3762	9.21573E-05	0.00368093	0.000368629	1.44418	0.30625	0.30625
0.796214	90.1901	7.58918	7.53672	1.9338	1.92021	19.1297	0.000103415	0.00728797	0.000413661	2.66231	0.34533	0.34533
1.58866	88.5107	7.44401	7.38849	1.89479	1.88052	18.7291	0.000110911	0.01444745	0.000443644	5.05757	0.366342	0.366342
3.16979	85.1628	7.16019	7.10339	1.82124	1.80666	17.9935	0.000115371	0.0288059	0.000461483	9.81262	0.383096	0.383096
6.32456	78.4852	6.5975	6.54291	1.67711	1.66365	16.565	0.000117832	0.0573941	0.000471326	19.2851	0.391235	0.391235
12.6191	65.1651	5.47698	5.42765	1.39105	1.3797	13.737	0.00011913	0.114421	0.000476519	38.1733	0.396529	0.396529
25.1785	38.6121	3.2443	3.20642	0.821572	0.814667	8.11099	0.000119798	0.228103	0.000479191	75.8226	0.397738	0.397738
50.2377	0.596518	0.0481654	0.0270192	0.00652917	0.00608023	0.060358	0.000120081	0.39086	0.000480325	129.723	0.398675	0.398675
100.237	0.347269	0.0272104	0.00617426	0.00118565	0.000779139	0.00757867	0.000120082	0.391927	0.000480329	130.077	0.398678	0.398678
200	0.3245	0.0252961	0.00427005	0.000697515	0.000294879	0.00275722	0.000120082	0.392024	0.000480329	130.109	0.398679	0.398679

1

0.2

88.9148

7.47859

7.42346

1.90391

1.88971

18.8214

0.000109782

0.0127448

0.000439129

4.48245

0.364607

0.364607



0.399052	85.4333	7.18304	7.12672	1.82712	1.81281	18.052	0.000115171	0.0276479	0.000460684	9.42874	0.382435	0.382435
0.796214	78.448	6.59437	6.5398	1.67631	1.66285	16.5571	0.000117839	0.0575532	0.000471355	19.3378	0.391259	0.391259
1.58866	64.4939	5.42054	5.37149	1.37665	1.36541	13.5947	0.000119162	0.117295	0.000476649	39.125	0.396636	0.396636
3.16979	36.67	3.08102	3.04399	0.779931	0.773354	7.69965	0.000119822	0.236418	0.000479286	78.5763	0.397816	0.397816
6.32456	0.533486	0.02426678	0.0217478	0.00517787	0.00473965	0.0470108	0.000120081	0.39113	0.000480329	129.813	0.398678	0.398678
12.6191	0.34486	0.0270072	0.00597278	0.001134	0.000727899	0.0070685	0.000120082	0.3921937	0.000480329	130.08	0.398678	0.398678
25.1785	0.323851	0.0252416	0.00421583	0.000683614	0.000281089	0.00261992	0.000120082	0.392027	0.000480329	130.11	0.398679	0.398679
50.2377	0.316963	0.0246625	0.00363979	0.00053595	0.000134598	0.0011614	0.000120082	0.392057	0.00048033	130.12	0.398679	0.398679
100.237	0.314077	0.0244198	0.00339841	0.000474072	7.32116E-05	0.000550225	0.000120082	0.392069	0.00048033	130.124	0.398679	0.398679

L-Galactose 1-phosphate phosphatase

K (GGP)	Relative activity	D-Glc 6-P	D-Fru 6-P	D-Man 6-P	D-Man 1-P	GDP-D-Man	GDP-L-Gal	L-Gal 1-P	L-Gal	L-Gall	L-Asc	DHA	Breakdown
0.2	0.399052	84.4782	7.1024	7.04618	1.80639	1.79216	17.8459	0.0071415	0.0317157	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556
0.399052	84.481	84.481	7.10263	7.04641	1.80644	1.79222	17.8465	0.00319933	0.0317157	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556
0.796214	84.4821	84.4821	7.10273	7.04651	1.80647	1.79225	17.8468	0.00152248	0.0317157	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556
1.58866	84.4827	84.4827	7.10278	7.04656	1.80648	1.79226	17.8469	0.000744206	0.0317157	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556
3.16979	84.4829	84.4829	7.1028	7.04658	1.80649	1.79226	17.8469	0.000368428	0.0317157	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556
6.32456	84.4831	84.4831	7.10281	7.04659	1.80649	1.79227	17.847	0.000183627	0.0317157	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556
12.6191	84.4832	84.4832	7.10282	7.0466	1.80649	1.79227	17.847	9.17016E-05	0.0317157	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556
25.1785	84.4832	84.4832	7.10282	7.0466	1.80649	1.79227	17.847	4.58897E-05	0.0317157	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556
50.2377	84.4832	84.4832	7.10282	7.0466	1.80649	1.79227	17.847	2.29818E-05	0.0317157	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556
100.237	84.4832	84.4832	7.10282	7.0466	1.80649	1.79227	17.847	1.15138E-05	0.0317157	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556
200	84.4832	84.4832	7.10282	7.0466	1.80649	1.79227	17.847	5.76945E-06	0.0317157	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556
0.2	0.399052	70.7018	5.94264	5.89103	1.50988	1.49762	14.9113	0.00736884	0.0906948	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
0.399052	70.7047	70.7047	5.94288	5.89127	1.50994	1.49768	14.9119	0.00329006	0.0906949	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
0.796214	70.7059	70.7059	5.94299	5.89137	1.50997	1.49771	14.9122	0.00156341	0.0906949	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
1.58866	70.7065	70.7065	5.94303	5.89142	1.50998	1.49772	14.9123	0.000763709	0.0906949	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
3.16979	70.7068	70.7068	5.94306	5.89144	1.50998	1.49773	14.9124	0.000377962	0.0906949	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
6.32456	70.7069	70.7069	5.94307	5.89145	1.50999	1.49773	14.9124	0.000188247	0.0906949	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
12.6191	70.707	70.707	5.94307	5.89146	1.50999	1.49773	14.9124	9.40524E-05	0.0906949	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
25.1785	70.707	70.707	5.94308	5.89146	1.50999	1.49773	14.9124	4.70643E-05	0.0906949	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
50.2377	70.707	70.707	5.94308	5.89146	1.50999	1.49773	14.9124	2.35696E-05	0.0906949	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
100.237	70.707	70.707	5.94308	5.89146	1.50999	1.49773	14.9124	1.18081E-05	0.0906949	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
200	70.707	70.707	5.94308	5.89146	1.50999	1.49773	14.9124	5.91693E-06	0.0906949	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384



0.2	0.363158	0.0285462	0.00750428	0.00152659	0.00111738	0.0109463	0.00746904	0.391837	0.000480329	130.047	0.398678	0.398678
0.399052	0.363154	0.0285459	0.00750329	0.00152634	0.00111713	0.0109438	0.00332986	0.391849	0.000480329	130.051	0.398678	0.398678
0.796214	0.363153	0.0285457	0.00750288	0.00152624	0.00111702	0.0109427	0.00158133	0.391855	0.000480329	130.053	0.398678	0.398678
1.58866	0.363152	0.0285457	0.00750289	0.00152619	0.00111697	0.0109422	0.000772239	0.391857	0.000480329	130.054	0.398678	0.398678
3.16979	0.363151	0.0285457	0.00750259	0.00152616	0.00111695	0.0109422	0.000388213	0.391858	0.000480329	130.054	0.398678	0.398678
6.32456	0.363151	0.0285456	0.00750255	0.00152615	0.00111694	0.0109419	0.000190309	0.391859	0.000480329	130.054	0.398678	0.398678
12.6191	0.363151	0.0285456	0.00750252	0.00152615	0.00111693	0.0109418	9.50797E-05	0.391859	0.000480329	130.054	0.398678	0.398678
25.1785	0.363151	0.0285456	0.00750251	0.00152614	0.00111693	0.0109418	4.75775E-05	0.391859	0.000480329	130.054	0.398678	0.398678
50.2377	0.363151	0.0285456	0.00750251	0.00152614	0.00111693	0.0109418	2.38264E-05	0.391859	0.000480329	130.054	0.398678	0.398678
100.237	0.363151	0.0285456	0.00750251	0.00152614	0.00111692	0.0109418	1.19368E-05	0.391859	0.000480329	130.054	0.398678	0.398678

L-Galactose dehydrogenase

K (GGP)	Relative activity	D-Glc 6-P	D-Fru 6-P	D-Man 6-P	D-Man 1-P	GDP-D-Man	GDP-L-Gal	L-Gal 1-P	L-Gal	L-Gall	L-Asc	DHA	Breakdown
0.2	88.7916	7.46885	7.41446	1.90176	1.88773	18.8025	0.000108566	0.68366	0.000434262	3.9845	0.36058	0.36058	
0.399052	89.0552	7.49103	7.43648	1.90774	1.89334	18.8584	0.000108566	0.308767	0.000434262	3.9845	0.36058	0.36058	
0.796214	89.1686	7.50057	7.44595	1.90983	1.89575	18.8824	0.000108566	0.147444	0.000434262	3.9845	0.36058	0.36058	
1.58866	89.2216	7.50502	7.45037	1.91097	1.89688	18.8936	0.000108566	0.0721892	0.000434262	3.98451	0.36058	0.36058	
3.16979	89.2272	7.50717	7.45251	1.91152	1.89742	18.8991	0.000108566	0.035766	0.000434262	3.98451	0.36058	0.36058	
6.32456	89.2598	7.50824	7.45357	1.91179	1.89769	18.9017	0.000108566	0.0178232	0.000434262	3.98451	0.36058	0.36058	
12.6191	89.266	7.50876	7.45409	1.91192	1.89782	18.9031	0.000108566	0.00890727	0.000434262	3.98451	0.36058	0.36058	
25.1785	89.2692	7.50903	7.45435	1.91199	1.89789	18.9037	0.000108566	0.0045784	0.000434262	3.98451	0.36058	0.36058	
50.2377	89.2707	7.50916	7.45448	1.91202	1.89792	18.9041	0.000108566	0.00223261	0.000434262	3.98451	0.36058	0.36058	
100.237	89.2715	7.50922	7.45455	1.91204	1.89794	18.9042	0.000108566	0.00111856	0.000434262	3.98451	0.36058	0.36058	
200	89.2719	7.50926	7.45458	1.91205	1.89795	18.9043	0.000108566	0.000560506	0.000434262	3.98451	0.36058	0.36058	
0.2	83.1298	6.98901	6.93366	1.77753	1.76353	17.5608	0.000115812	1.95572	0.000463249	10.7771	0.384556	0.384556	
0.399052	83.8892	7.05287	6.99703	1.79378	1.77966	17.7214	0.000115812	0.876149	0.000463249	10.7771	0.384556	0.384556	
0.796214	84.2122	7.08003	7.02398	1.80069	1.78651	17.7897	0.000115812	0.416936	0.000463249	10.7771	0.384556	0.384556	
1.58866	84.3621	7.09264	7.03649	1.80339	1.7897	17.8214	0.000115812	0.203804	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556	
3.16979	84.4345	7.09872	7.04253	1.80545	1.79123	17.8367	0.000115812	0.100896	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556	
6.32456	84.4701	7.10172	7.0455	1.80621	1.79199	17.8442	0.000115812	0.0502597	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556	
12.6191	84.4878	7.10321	7.04698	1.80659	1.79237	17.848	0.000115812	0.0251129	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556	
25.1785	84.4966	7.10395	7.04772	1.80678	1.79255	17.8498	0.000115812	0.0125671	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556	
50.2377	84.501	7.10432	7.04808	1.80687	1.79265	17.8508	0.000115812	0.00629367	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556	
100.237	84.5032	7.10451	7.04827	1.80692	1.79269	17.8512	0.000115812	0.0031531	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556	
200	84.5043	7.1046	7.04836	1.80694	1.79272	17.8515	0.000115812	0.00157999	0.000463249	10.7772	0.384556	0.384556	
0.2	66.8133	5.6157	5.56666	1.42672	1.41512	14.0898	0.000118784	5.62611	0.000475135	30.314	0.394384	0.394384	
0.399052	69.0038	5.79987	5.74938	1.47356	1.46159	14.5526	0.000118784	2.51202	0.000475135	30.3147	0.394384	0.394384	
0.796214	69.9311	5.87674	5.82674	1.49339	1.48127	14.7485	0.000118784	1.1937	0.000475135	30.315	0.394384	0.394384	
1.58866	70.3606	5.91395	5.86256	1.50258	1.49038	14.8392	0.000118784	0.583113	0.000475135	30.3151	0.394384	0.394384	
3.16979	70.5677	5.93137	5.87985	1.50701	1.49478	14.883	0.000118784	0.288585	0.000475135	30.3151	0.394384	0.394384	
6.32456	70.6696	5.93993	5.88835	1.50919	1.49694	14.9045	0.000118784	0.143732	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384	
12.6191	70.7202	5.94419	5.89257	1.51027	1.49801	14.9152	0.000118784	0.0718118	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384	
25.1785	70.7455	5.94631	5.89467	1.51081	1.49855	14.9205	0.000118784	0.035935	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384	
50.2377	70.7581	5.94737	5.89572	1.51108	1.49882	14.9232	0.000118784	0.0179961	0.000475135	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384	

	100,237	70,7644	5,9479	5,89625	1,51122	1,49895	14,9245	0,000118784	0,00901587	0,000475135	30,3152	0,394384	0,394384
	200	70,7676	5,94817	5,89651	1,51128	1,49902	14,9252	0,000118784	0,00451775	0,000475135	30,3152	0,394384	0,394384
	0,2	0,310327	0,0241059	0,00630688	0,00121989	0,000813357	0,00791948	0,000120009	20,5888	0,000480037	109,92	0,398437	0,398437
	0,399052	0,337313	0,026374	0,00688388	0,00136767	0,000959817	0,00937761	0,00012005	10,059	0,000480201	120,418	0,398573	0,398573
	0,796214	0,35075	0,0275033	0,00719706	0,00144789	0,00103935	0,0101694	0,000120068	4,97847	0,000480271	125,482	0,39863	0,39863
	1,58866	0,357472	0,0280683	0,00736065	0,0014898	0,00108089	0,010583	0,000120076	2,4796	0,000480303	127,973	0,398657	0,398657
	3,16979	0,36084	0,0283514	0,00744438	0,00151125	0,00110216	0,0107948	0,00012008	1,23887	0,000480318	129,21	0,39867	0,39867
	6,32456	0,362528	0,0284932	0,00750819	0,00152211	0,00111293	0,010902	0,000120082	0,61994	0,000480326	129,827	0,398676	0,398676
	12,6191	0,363374	0,0285643	0,00750819	0,00152259	0,00111836	0,0109561	0,000120082	0,310463	0,00048033	130,135	0,398679	0,398679
	25,1785	0,363798	0,0286	0,0075189	0,00153034	0,00112109	0,0109832	0,000120083	0,155539	0,000480332	130,29	0,398681	0,398681
	50,2377	0,36401	0,0286178	0,00752429	0,00153172	0,00112246	0,0109969	0,000120083	0,0779391	0,000480333	130,367	0,398681	0,398681
	100,237	0,364117	0,0286268	0,00752699	0,00153241	0,00112315	0,0110037	0,000120083	0,0390583	0,000480333	130,406	0,398682	0,398682

L-Galactono-1,4-lactone dehydrogenase

K (GGP)	Relative activity	D-Glc 6-P	D-Fru 6-P	D-Man 6-P	D-Man 1-P	GDP-D-Man	GDP-L-Gal	L-Gal 1-P	L-Gal	L-Gall	L-Asc	DHA	Breakdown
	0,2	89,2442	7,50693	7,45227	1,91145	1,89736	18,8985	0,000108566	0,0139479	0,0263933	3,98451	0,36058	0,36058
	0,399052	89,2555	7,50787	7,45321	1,9117	1,8976	18,9008	0,000108566	0,012443	0,0119202	3,98451	0,36058	0,36058
	0,796214	89,2603	7,50828	7,45361	1,9118	1,8977	18,9019	0,000108566	0,0117954	0,0056922	3,98451	0,36058	0,36058
	1,58866	89,2626	7,50847	7,4538	1,91185	1,89775	18,9023	0,000108566	0,0114933	0,00278692	3,98451	0,36058	0,36058
	3,16979	89,2637	7,50856	7,45389	1,91188	1,89777	18,9026	0,000108566	0,0113471	0,00138077	3,98451	0,36058	0,36058
	6,32456	89,2642	7,50862	7,45394	1,91188	1,89778	18,9027	0,000108566	0,011275	0,000688076	3,98451	0,36058	0,36058
	12,6191	89,2645	7,50863	7,45396	1,91189	1,89779	18,9028	0,000108566	0,0112393	0,000343871	3,98451	0,36058	0,36058
	25,1785	89,2646	7,50864	7,45397	1,91189	1,89779	18,9028	0,000108566	0,0112214	0,000172098	3,98451	0,36058	0,36058
	50,2377	89,2647	7,50865	7,45398	1,91189	1,89779	18,9028	0,000108566	0,0112125	8,61917E-05	3,98451	0,36058	0,36058
	100,237	89,2647	7,50865	7,45398	1,91189	1,8978	18,9028	0,000108566	0,011208	4,31827E-05	3,98451	0,36058	0,36058
	200	89,2647	7,50865	7,45398	1,91189	1,8978	18,9028	0,000108566	0,0112057	2,16387E-05	3,98451	0,36058	0,36058
	0,2	84,4613	7,10098	7,04477	1,80602	1,7918	17,8424	0,000115812	0,0346453	0,028566	10,7772	0,384556	0,384556
	0,399052	84,4735	7,10201	7,04579	1,80629	1,79206	17,845	0,000115812	0,0330015	0,0127973	10,7772	0,384556	0,384556
	0,796214	84,4787	7,10245	7,04623	1,8064	1,79217	17,8461	0,000115812	0,0323203	0,0060899	10,7772	0,384556	0,384556
	1,58866	84,4812	7,10265	7,04643	1,80645	1,79223	17,8466	0,000115812	0,0319778	0,00297682	10,7772	0,384556	0,384556
	3,16979	84,4823	7,10275	7,04653	1,80647	1,79225	17,8468	0,000115812	0,0318211	0,00147371	10,7772	0,384556	0,384556
	6,32456	84,4829	7,1028	7,04658	1,80649	1,79226	17,8469	0,000115812	0,031744	0,000734108	10,7772	0,384556	0,384556
	12,6191	84,4832	7,10283	7,0466	1,80649	1,79227	17,847	0,000115812	0,0317057	0,000366806	10,7772	0,384556	0,384556
	25,1785	84,4833	7,10283	7,04661	1,8065	1,79227	17,847	0,000115812	0,0316886	0,000183559	10,7772	0,384556	0,384556
	50,2377	84,4834	7,10284	7,04662	1,8065	1,79227	17,847	0,000115812	0,0316777	9,19272E-05	10,7772	0,384556	0,384556
	100,237	84,4834	7,10284	7,04662	1,8065	1,79227	17,847	0,000115812	0,0316722	4,60551E-05	10,7772	0,384556	0,384556
	200	84,4835	7,10285	7,04662	1,8065	1,79227	17,8471	0,000115812	0,0316698	2,30778E-05	10,7772	0,384556	0,384556
	0,2	70,6844	5,94118	5,88958	1,50951	1,49725	14,9077	0,000118784	0,0937212	0,0294754	30,3152	0,394384	0,394384
	0,399052	70,6971	5,94224	5,89064	1,50978	1,49752	14,9103	0,000118784	0,0920186	0,0131602	30,3152	0,394384	0,394384
	0,796214	70,7025	5,94269	5,89108	1,50989	1,49764	14,9115	0,000118784	0,0912979	0,00625365	30,3152	0,394384	0,394384
	1,58866	70,7049	5,9429	5,89129	1,50994	1,49769	14,912	0,000118784	0,0905641	0,003054884	30,3152	0,394384	0,394384
	3,16979	70,7061	5,943	5,89139	1,50997	1,49771	14,9122	0,000118784	0,0908031	0,00151185	30,3152	0,394384	0,394384
	6,32456	70,7067	5,94305	5,89144	1,50998	1,49773	14,9124	0,000118784	0,0907239	0,000752987	30,3152	0,394384	0,394384
	12,6191	70,707	5,94308	5,89146	1,50999	1,49773	14,9124	0,000118784	0,0906846	0,00037621	30,3152	0,394384	0,394384



Appendices

25.1785	70.7072	5.94309	5.89148	1.50999	1.49774	14.9125	0.000118784	0.0906649	0.000188257	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
50.2377	70.7072	5.9431	5.89148	1.50999	1.49774	14.9125	0.000118784	0.0906551	9.42783E-05	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
100.237	70.7073	5.9431	5.89149	1.50999	1.49774	14.9125	0.000118784	0.0906502	4.72326E-05	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
200	70.7073	5.9431	5.89149	1.50999	1.49774	14.9125	0.000118784	0.0906478	2.36677E-05	30.3152	0.394384	0.394384
0.2	0.363063	0.0285382	0.00750029	0.00152557	0.00111636	0.0109362	0.000120082	0.394831	0.0298762	130.022	0.398678	0.398678
0.399052	0.363113	0.0285424	0.00750155	0.0015259	0.00111668	0.0109394	0.000120082	0.393157	0.0133194	130.04	0.398678	0.398678
0.796214	0.363134	0.0285442	0.00750209	0.00152603	0.00111682	0.0109407	0.000120082	0.39245	0.00632533	130.048	0.398678	0.398678
1.58866	0.363143	0.028545	0.00750233	0.0015261	0.00111688	0.0109413	0.000120082	0.392123	0.00308895	130.051	0.398678	0.398678
3.16979	0.363148	0.0285454	0.00750245	0.00152613	0.00111691	0.0109416	0.000120082	0.391965	0.00152852	130.053	0.398678	0.398678
6.32456	0.36315	0.0285456	0.00750251	0.00152614	0.00111693	0.0109418	0.000120082	0.391887	0.000761237	130.054	0.398678	0.398678
12.6191	0.363151	0.0285457	0.00750254	0.00152615	0.00111693	0.0109418	0.000120082	0.391849	0.000380319	130.054	0.398678	0.398678
25.1785	0.363152	0.0285457	0.00750255	0.00152615	0.00111694	0.0109419	0.000120082	0.39183	0.00019031	130.055	0.398678	0.398678
50.2377	0.363152	0.0285457	0.00750256	0.00152615	0.00111694	0.0109419	0.000120082	0.39182	9.53056E-05	130.055	0.398678	0.398678
100.237	0.363153	0.0285457	0.00750256	0.00152616	0.00111694	0.0109419	0.000120082	0.391815	0.000047747	130.055	0.398678	0.398678



Appendix 8. Species used in the phylogenetic study of VTC2 and the conservation of its N-terminus (Figure 23). Taxonomic information was consulted in The Plant List (www.theplantlist.org) for vascular plants and in Algaebase (<https://www.algaebase.org>) for algae.

Abbr.	Species	Phylum	Class	Order	Family
Acchi	<i>Actinidia chinensis</i> Planch.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Ericales	Actinidiaceae
Amlyp	<i>Amaranthus hypochondriacus</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Caryophyllales	Amaranthaceae
Amtri	<i>Amborella trichopoda</i> Baill.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Amborellales	Amborellaceae
Agcoe	<i>Aquilegia caerulea</i> E.James	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Ranunculales	Ranunculaceae
Artha	<i>Arabisopsis thaliana</i> (L.) Heynh.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Brassicales	Brassicaceae
Brdis	<i>Brachypodium distachyon</i> (L.) P.Beauv.	Tracheophyta	Liliopsida	Poales	Poaceae
Caann	<i>Capsicum annuum</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Solanales	Solanaceae
Capap	<i>Carica papaya</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Violales	Caricaceae
Chnei	<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i> P. A.Dangeard	Chlorophyta	Chlorophyceae	Chlamydomonadales	Chlamydomonadaceae
Cocan	<i>Coffea canephora</i> Pierre ex A.Froehner	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Gentianales	Rubiaceae
Cosub	<i>Coccomyxa subellipsoidea</i> E.Action	Chlorophyta	Trebouxiophyceae	Trebouxiophyceae ordo incertae sedis	Coccomyxaaceae
Cusut	<i>Cucumis sativus</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Violales	Cucurbitaceae
Fves	<i>Fragaria vesca</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Rosales	Rosaceae
Gimax	<i>Glycine max</i> (L.) Merr.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Fabales	Fabaceae
Goral	<i>Gossypium raimondii</i> Ulbr.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Malvales	Malvaceae
Kamar	<i>Kalanchoe marmorata</i> H. Jacobsen	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Saxifragales	Crassulaceae
Llusi	<i>Linum usitatissimum</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Linales	Linaceae
Maesc	<i>Manihot esculenta</i> Crantz	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Malpighiales	Euphorbiaceae
Magla	<i>Malpighia glabra</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Malpighiales	Malpighiaceae
Milgut	<i>Milvina guttatus</i> DC.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Lamiales	Phrymaceae
Mipus	<i>Micromonas pusilla</i> (Butcher) I.Manton & M.Parke	Chlorophyta	Mamiellophyceae	Mamiellales	Mamiellaceae
Murnus	<i>Mus musculus</i> L.	Chordata	Mammalia	Rodentia	Muridae
Orsat	<i>Oryza sativa</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Liliopsida	Cyperales	Poaceae
Pphat	<i>Physcomitrella patens</i> (Hedw.) Bruch & Schimp.	Bryophyta	Liliopsida	Funariales	Funariaceae
Seita	<i>Setaria italica</i> (L.) P.Beauv.	Tracheophyta	Liliopsida	Cyperales	Poaceae
Semo	<i>Selaginella moellendorffii</i> Hieron.	Lycopodiophyta (pteridophyta)	Lycopodiopsida	Selaginellales	Selaginellaceae
Solyc	<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Solanales	Solanaceae
Spfal	<i>Sphagnum fallax</i> H. Klinggr.	Bryophyta	Sphagnopsida	Sphagnales	Sphagnaceae
Sppol	<i>Spirodela polyrrhiza</i> (L.) Schleid.	Tracheophyta	Liliopsida	Alismatales	Lemnaceae
Thcac	<i>Theobroma cacao</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Malvales	Malvaceae
Vvvin	<i>Vitis vinifera</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Magnoliopsida	Rhamnales	Vitaceae
Vocar	<i>Volvox carterii</i> F.Stein	Chlorophyta	Chlorophyceae	Chlamydomonadales	Volvocaceae
Zemay	<i>Zea mays</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Liliopsida	Poales	Poaceae
Zomar	<i>Zostera marina</i> L.	Tracheophyta	Liliopsida	Alismatales	Zosteraceae







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Footnotes:

¹<http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data>;

²<https://ndb.nal.usda.gov/ndb/search/list>

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PUBLICATION





Vitamin C Content in Fruits: Biosynthesis and Regulation

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Throughout evolution, a number of animals including humans have lost the ability to synthesize ascorbic acid (ascorbate, vitamin C), an essential molecule in the physiology of animals and plants. In addition to its main role as an antioxidant and cofactor in redox reactions, recent reports have shown an important role of ascorbate in the activation of epigenetic mechanisms controlling cell differentiation, dysregulation of which can lead to the development of certain types of cancer. Although fruits and vegetables constitute the main source of ascorbate in the human diet, rising its content has not been a major breeding goal, despite the large inter- and intraspecific variation in ascorbate content in fruit crops. Nowadays, there is an increasing interest to boost ascorbate content, not only to improve fruit quality but also to generate crops with elevated stress tolerance. Several attempts to increase ascorbate in fruits have achieved fairly good results but, in some cases, detrimental effects in fruit development also occur, likely due to the interaction between the biosynthesis of ascorbate and components of the cell wall. Plants synthesize ascorbate *de novo* mainly through the Smirnoff-Wheeler pathway, the dominant pathway in photosynthetic tissues. Two intermediates of the Smirnoff-Wheeler pathway, GDP-D-mannose and GDP-L-galactose, are also precursors of the non-cellulosic components of the plant cell wall. Therefore, a better understanding of ascorbate biosynthesis and regulation is essential for generation of improved fruits without developmental side effects. This is likely to involve a yet unknown tight regulation enabling plant growth and development, without impairing the cell redox state modulated by ascorbate pool. In certain fruits and developmental conditions, an alternative pathway from D-galacturonate might be also relevant. We here review the regulation of ascorbate synthesis, its close connection with the cell wall, as well as different strategies to increase its content in plants, with a special focus on fruits.

Keywords: ascorbic acid, vitamin C, cell wall, biosynthesis, fruit, regulation

MULTIPLE ROLES OF VITAMIN C IN HUMANS

L-Ascorbic Acid (L-threo-hex-2-enono-1,4-lactone, ascorbate), also called vitamin C, is an essential antioxidant molecule in plant and animal metabolism and also functioning as a cofactor in many enzymes. While many animals are able to synthesize ascorbate in the liver or in the kidney, others, such as humans, non-human primates, guinea pigs, and certain groups of bats and birds have lost this ability due to the accumulation of mutations in the coding sequence of the last committed

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