



3-Deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate synthase as the gatekeeper of plant aromatic natural product biosynthesis

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Abstract

The shikimate pathway connects the central carbon metabolism with the biosynthesis of aromatic amino acids—L-tyrosine, L-phenylalanine, and L-tryptophan—which play indispensable roles as precursors of numerous aromatic phytochemicals. Despite the importance of the shikimate pathway-derived products for both plant physiology and human society, the regulatory mechanism of the shikimate pathway remains elusive. This review summarizes the recent progress and current understanding on the plant 3-deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate synthase (DAHP synthase or DHS) enzymes that catalyze the committed reaction of the shikimate pathway. We particularly focus on how the DHS activity is regulated in plants in comparison to those of microbes and discuss potential roles of DHS as the critical gatekeeper for the production of plant aromatic compounds.

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Primary metabolism, The shikimate pathway, Aromatic amino acids, 3-Deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate synthase, Plant aromatic natural products, Allosteric regulation.

Abbreviations

AAA, aromatic amino acid; ADT, arogenate dehydratase; CCA1, circadian clock associated 1; CM, chorismate mutase; CS, chorismate synthase; DAHP, 3-deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate; DHS, 3-deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate synthase; DTT, 1,4-dithiothreitol; E4P, erythrose-4-phosphate; EPSPS, 5-enolpyruvyl-shikimate-3-phosphate synthase; ODO1, ODORANT1; PAL, phenylalanine ammonia-lyase; PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate; Phe, L-

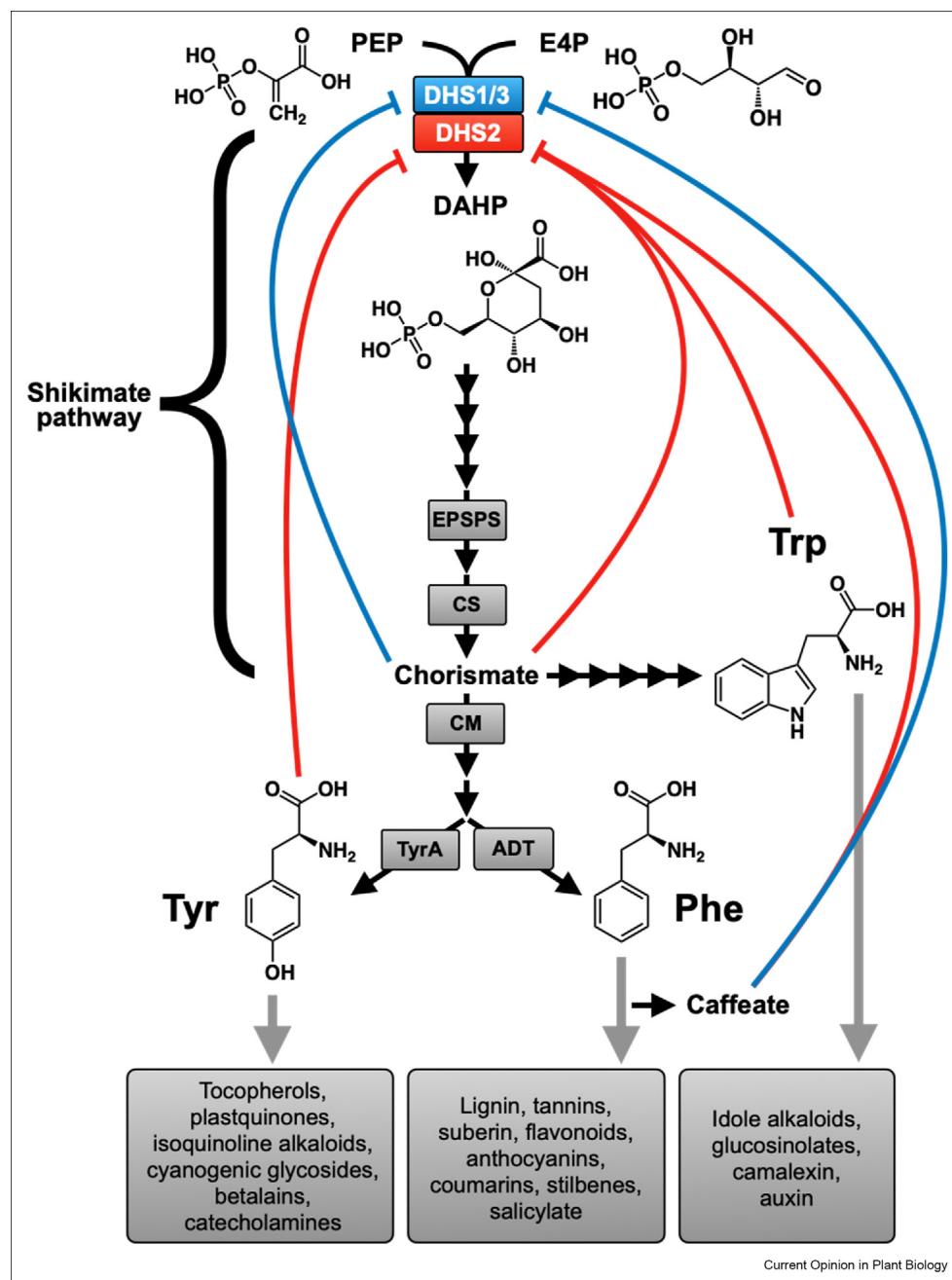
phenylalanine; PIF4/5, phytochrome-interacting factor 4/5; TF, transcriptional factor; Trp, L-tryptophan; Tyr, L-tyrosine; TyrA, tyrosine arogenate dehydrogenase.

Introduction

The shikimate pathway is a primary metabolic pathway found in microbes and plants and connects the central carbon metabolism to the biosynthesis of aromatic amino acids (AAAs)—L-tyrosine (Tyr), L-phenylalanine (Phe), and L-tryptophan (Trp, [Figure 1](#)) [1–4]. AAAs are proteinogenic amino acids essential for protein synthesis in all organisms and are critical precursors in plants to synthesize numerous aromatic natural products, which is a hallmark of land plants, especially in angiosperms [4–6]. These aromatic phytochemicals play essential roles in plant development and adaptation and include phytohormones, defense compounds, and phenolic polymers, such as lignin, the second major biopolymer after cellulose ([Figure 1](#)) [7–9]. Therefore, plants must fine-tune the activity of the shikimate pathway to control the production of abundant and diverse aromatic chemicals and to orchestrate complex developmental and physiological processes. However, we still have limited knowledge about how plants regulate the shikimate pathway. Addressing this question is also a prerequisite for plant and microbial metabolic engineering of aromatic compounds, which are critical in our society as industrial materials, nutraceuticals, and pharmaceuticals [10].

The 3-deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate synthase (DHS, also known as DAHP synthase) catalyzes the first step of the seven enzymatic reactions in the shikimate pathway ([Figure 1](#)). Unlike well-characterized microbial DHSs, the regulation of plant DHS enzymes had been poorly understood until recently. This review summarizes emerging findings uncovering highly-complex regulatory mechanisms of plant DHS enzymes, which is likely important to meet the constantly-changing metabolic demand for the production of diverse AAA-derived metabolites in plants. The fundamental understanding of this key regulatory enzyme will be crucial for plant metabolic engineering and synthetic biology to efficiently produce various aromatic compounds in plants.

Figure 1



Schematic diagram of the shikimate pathway and AAA biosynthesis. Red and blue lines denote feedback regulation of *Arabidopsis* DHS2 and DHS1/3 isoforms, respectively. PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate; E4P, erythrose-4-phosphate; Tyr, L-tyrosine; Phe, L-phenylalanine; Trp, L-tryptophan; DAHP, 3-deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate; DHS, 3-deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate synthase; EPSPS, 5-enolpyruvylshikimate-3-phosphate synthase; CS, chorismate synthase; CM, chorismate mutase; ADT, arogenate dehydratase; TyrA, tyrosine arogenate dehydrogenase.

Multiple type II DHS isoforms present in angiosperms

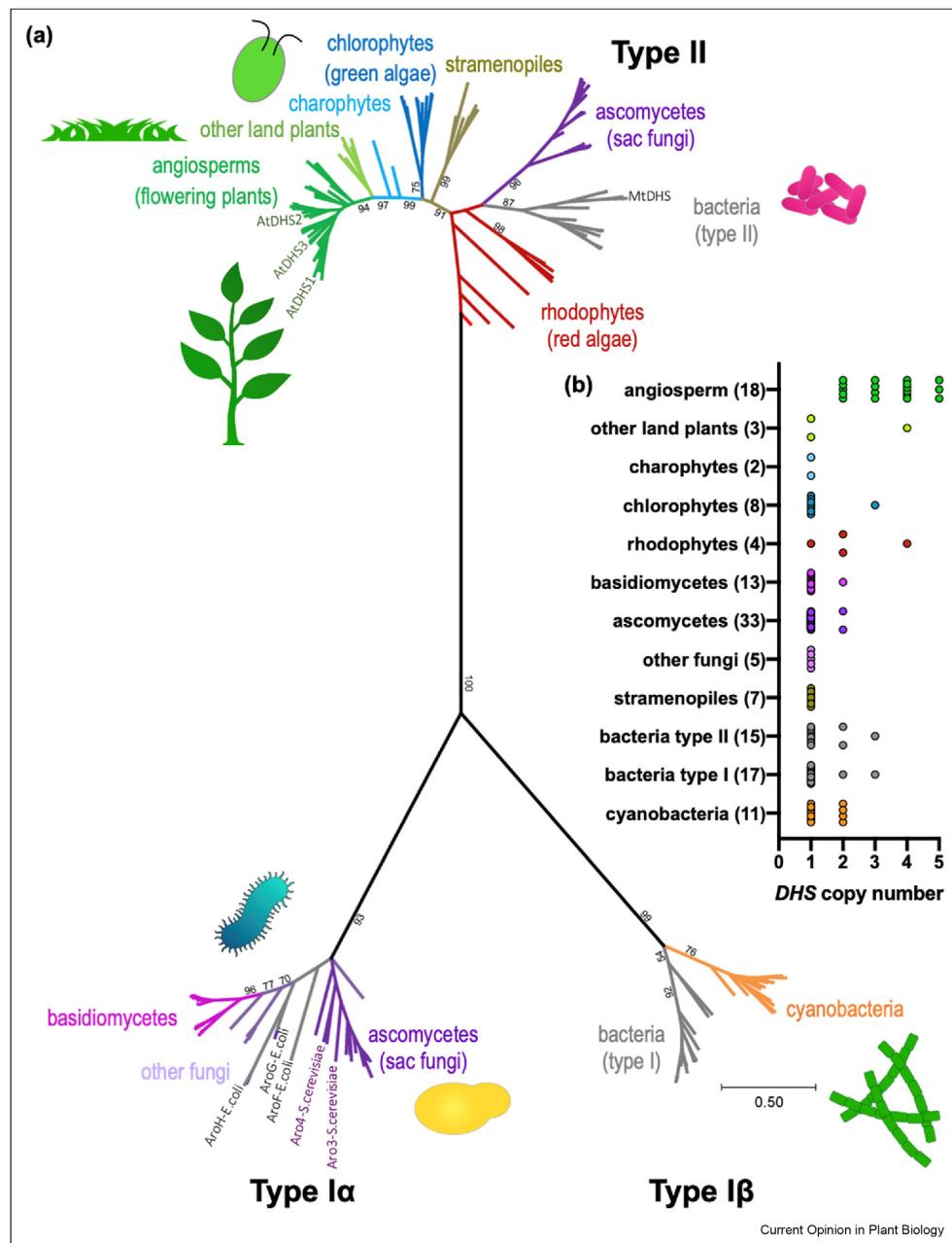
DHS enzymes catalyze the aldol-type condensation of phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) and erythrose-4-phosphate (E4P), derived from glycolysis and the pentose phosphate pathways (e.g., the Calvin–Benson cycle in photosynthetic organisms), respectively, into the

product 3-deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate (DAHP, Figure 1). DHSs utilize a divalent cation, such as manganese, cobalt, or iron, and typically form homotetramers [1–4,11]. DHSs can be categorized into type I and type II, and most microbes have type I enzymes, which can be further divided into type I α and I β

subfamilies, such as in *Escherichia coli* and cyanobacteria, respectively (Figure 2a) [11,12]. Type II DHSs are found in photosynthetic organisms and a limited number of fungi and bacteria (Figure 2a) [12–15]. Type I and II DHSs have low sequence identity (< 10%) but

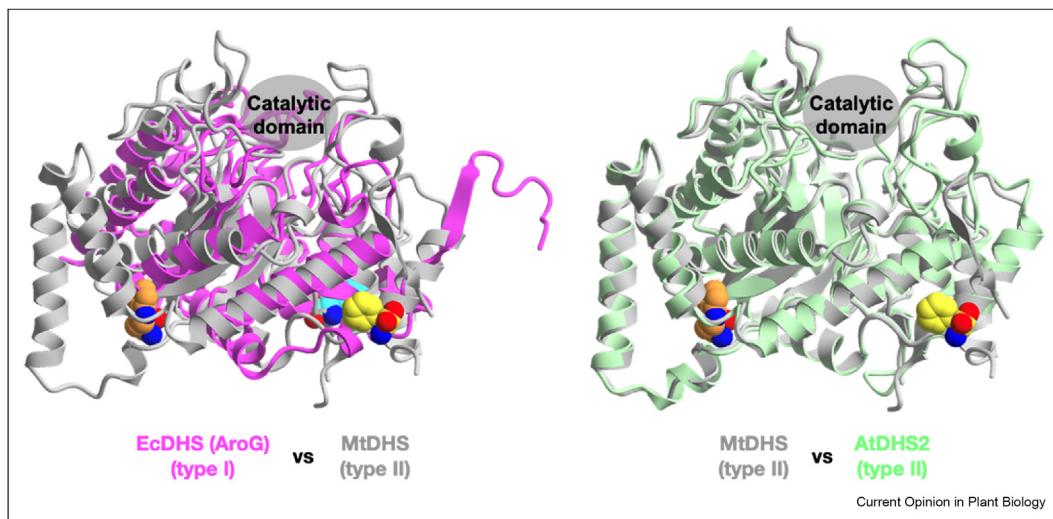
share a common structural fold (Figure 3), suggesting that all DHSs diverged from a common ancestor [11,12,15,16]. Plant DHSs form a condensed phylogenetic clade of type II DHSs (Figure 2a) and hence likely evolved from type II microbial DHSs, rather than

Figure 2



Evolution of type I and type II DHS genes from microbes and plants. (a) A phylogenetic tree of type I and type II DHS genes. DHS orthologs were first identified by BlastP searches with the amino acid sequence of AtDHS2, MtDHS (for type II DHSs), and *E. coli* AroF (for type I DHSs) as queries against NCBI RefSeq and Phytozome protein databases. All of the sequences obtained were then used to construct a tree of DHS genes using MEGA10.1.8 and are available as a FASTA file in Supplemental Data Set 1. The sequences were aligned by the ClustalW algorithm (Supplemental Data Set 2) and then constructed into a maximum-likelihood tree with 1000 bootstraps (Supplemental Data Set 3). Selected frequency values for important branches are shown. (b) The copy numbers of DHS genes in each organism that were counted from the phylogenetic tree data in this article and the previous study (Supplemental Data Set 4). The parenthesized number next to each taxonomic annotation indicates the number of species investigated in the taxon.

Figure 3



Structural comparisons of type I versus type II DHSs (left) and bacterial versus plant type II DHSs (right). EcDHS (AroG) and MtDHS monomer structures were obtained from Protein Data Bank (1KFL and 3KGF, respectively). The AtDHS2 structural model was predicted with the MtDHS structure as a template in SWISS-MODEL, and is available in Supplemental Data Set 5. The structures were visualized with Cuemol2. The Trp molecule bound to MtDHS and the Phe molecules bound to MtDHS and EcDHS are colored by orange, yellow and light blue, respectively.

acquisition of cyanobacterial type I DHSs through endosymbiosis [12]. While most microbes and algae have a single *DHS* gene, land plants, particularly angiosperms, have multiple DHS isoforms (Figure 2b) [13,14], coinciding with the evolution of diverse aromatic compounds, especially phenylpropanoids, produced in angiosperms [5,6]. Although plant DHS structures have not been solved, a predicted plant DHS model is structurally similar to microbial type II DHSs (Figure 3). Plant DHSs exhibit similar kinetic parameters to both type I and II microbial DHSs, with an exception of higher K_m toward E4P (Table 1) [14,16–21], suggesting that the overall DHS activity in plants likely depends on E4P availability from the pentose phosphate pathways, such as the Calvin–Benson cycle.

Highly-complex feedback regulation of plant DHS enzymes

Microbial DHSs from both type I and II groups are typically inhibited by AAAs [1,11]. For example, *E. coli* AroF, AroG, and AroH are inhibited by Tyr, Phe, and Trp, respectively [22]. These negative feedback inhibitions in type I DHSs are mediated through a single effector binding site, which is located away from the catalytic site and operates in an allosteric manner (Figure 3) [11,22]. The allosteric regulation of the type II *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* DHS (MtDHS) is more complex as its activity is synergistically inhibited by a combination of AAAs, which bind to more than one effector binding sites (Figure 3) [16]. According to structural and computational analyses of type I and II DHSs, effector binding likely leads to conformational changes that

weaken the binding of E4P, but not PEP [11,23]. These AAA-mediated feedback inhibitions of microbial DHSs are critical in controlling the carbon flux into the shikimate pathway, as AAAs are the pathway “end products” to be used mainly for protein synthesis in most microbes [1,11].

Unlike in microbial studies, DHS activities detected from plant tissue extracts were found to be generally insensitive to AAAs [2,4,24–26], raising a decade-long question about the regulation of the plant DHSs [2–4]. Recently, biochemical characterization of the recombinant proteins of three *Arabidopsis thaliana* DHS isoforms (AtDHSs) revealed that the activity of AtDHS2, but not AtDHS1 or AtDHS3, is indeed inhibited by Tyr and Trp with IC_{50} of ~ 200 μ M (Figure 1 and Table 1) [14], which is within the range of that of microbial DHSs [16,22]. Their lower concentrations did not inhibit AtDHS2 or other isoforms [27], consistent with reported physiological Tyr and Trp concentrations in plants [28]. The isoform-specific feedback regulation appear to operate also *in planta*, because i) DHS activity is also inhibited by Trp and Tyr, but not Phe, specifically in young seedlings where AtDHS2 is actively expressed and ii) the *dhs1* and *dhs3*, but not *dhs2*, knockout mutants of *Arabidopsis* are hypersensitive to exogenous Trp and Tyr treatments [14,27]. Notably, the Trp and Tyr-sensitivity of AtDHS2 is abolished when mixed with AtDHS1 or 3 [14], likely due to their heterocomplex formation. All AtDHSs and DHS activity from *Arabidopsis* and spinach leaf tissues are also strongly inhibited by chorismate and caffeoate (IC_{50} of 50–100 μ M), intermediates of the shikimate

Table 1

Representative kinetic parameters and inhibitors of microbial and plant DHS enzymes.

Type	Organism	Enzyme	K_m for PEP (mM)	K_m for E4P (mM)	Inhibitors	Reference
Type II	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Recombinant protein (AtDHS1)	0.25	2.842	chorismate, caffeate	14
		Recombinant protein (AtDHS2)	0.36	1.755	Tyr, Trp, chorismate, caffeate	14
	<i>Spinacia oleracea</i> (spinach)	Recombinant protein (AtDHS3)	0.706	1.55	chorismate, caffeate	14
	<i>Daucus carota</i> (carrots)	Extract from leaf tissues	approx. 0.5–0.7	1.95		17
	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Extract from cultured carrot cells	approx. 0.25–0.5	3.3		18
	<i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i>	Recombinant protein	0.018	0.028	Trp	19
	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	Recombinant protein (AroG)	0.029	0.037	Phe + Trp	16
	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	Recombinant protein (Aro4)	0.035	0.25	Phe	20
			0.125	0.5	Tyr	21

and phenylpropanoid pathways, respectively (Figure 1 and Table 1) [14]. These findings revealed that plant DHSs are subjected to much more complex feedback regulation than their microbial counterparts. These isoform-specific, highly-complex DHS feedback regulations may reflect high and diverse metabolic demands of AAAs, since plants direct up to 30% of photosynthetically fixed carbons through the shikimate pathway toward high production of AAA-derived compounds, such as lignin and tannins [7,29].

Multiple-layers of plant DHS regulation

Besides the metabolite-mediated feedback inhibition, plant DHSs are subjected to additional layers of regulations that are associated with the functionality of the chloroplasts, where the shikimate pathway operates [4]. Unlike microbial DHSs, plant DHS enzymes require reducing agents, such as 1,4-dithiothreitol (DTT), for the detection of their *in vitro* activity [1,11,14,30]. The recombinant AtDHS1 protein can also be activated by co-incubation with thioredoxin f [30], one of the major thioredoxin isoforms in the chloroplasts [31]. Thus, the activity of the shikimate pathway is coordinated with the redox status of the plastids, likely to effectively utilize photosynthetically fixed carbon and energy for the production of AAAs and their derived products. Interestingly, unlike AtDHS1 or 3, AtDHS2 exhibits a minor but significant activity even in the absence of the reducing reagent [14]. Since AtDHS2 is particularly upregulated in young seedlings and coexpressed with genes involved in plastid development rather than AAA metabolic genes [14], this redox-independent AtDHS2 activity may be critical in maintaining the shikimate pathway activity in rapidly-growing non-photosynthetic tissues, where a basal level of AAAs must be produced to support protein synthesis needed for growth even in the absence of photosynthesis.

Two distinct DHS activities that require manganese and cobalt (DHS-Mn and DHS-Co, respectively) have been

isolated from many eudicot [17,18,26,32,33] and some monocot [33,34] species. The Mn- and Co-dependent DHS activities share similar kinetic parameters but are mainly detected from plastid and cytosolic fractions, respectively [33]. While the shikimate and AAA biosynthetic pathways are dominantly located in the plastids [4], recent studies have proposed cytosolic Tyr and Phe production that is mediated by a complete set of cytosolic Tyr/Phe biosynthetic enzymes from chorismate, such as cytosolic chorismate mutase 2 (CM2) [35–37]. Although it is still under debate if chorismate is produced in cytosol or exported from plastids by unknown transporters [36,37], DHS-Co might participate in a cytosolic production of chorismate. However, the physiological roles and the identities of cytosolic DHS-Co activity and shikimate pathway remain undescribed.

The Clp protease system mediates ATP-dependent proteolysis that selectively targets certain stromal proteins (e.g. chlorophyll biosynthetic enzymes) to maintain protein homeostasis in the plastids [38]. A recent biochemical study reported that *Arabidopsis* ClpS, a subunit of the Clp complex, interacts with all three AtDHSs as well as chorismate synthase (CS), the last enzyme in the shikimate pathway (Figure 1), suggesting that DHSs and CS are likely targeted for proteolysis by the Clp protease machinery [39]. However, it remains to be tested genetically if the DHS and CS degradation by Clp specifically affects AAA production *in planta*.

Earlier studies found that plant DHS activity is induced in response to environmental stimuli, such as wounding and elicitor treatments [40–42]. This is likely due to transcriptional regulation of certain DHS genes, as summarized in Table 2 [43–53]. For instance, *AtDHS1* is highly expressed after wounding and *Pseudomonas syringae* infection, and *DHS2* from *Solanum lycopersicum* is induced by elicitor treatments, whereas other DHS isoforms are generally constitutively expressed (Table 2) [43,46]. The stress-induced DHS upregulation

Table 2

A summary of studies that reported DHS transcriptional upregulation.

Organism	Tissue	Stress/treatment	Correlated transcriptional factors	Upregulated DHS isoform(s)	Other upregulated gene(s)	Reference
<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>	Tuber and leaf	Wounding	Not tested	<i>StDAHPSs</i>	PAL	41
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	Fruit pericarp, root, and stem	Wounding	Not tested	<i>SIDAHPSSs</i>	Not tested	41
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Rosette leaf	Wounding	Not tested	<i>AtDHS1</i>	<i>AtPAL</i>	43
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Rosette leaf	Wounding	Not tested	<i>AtDHS2</i>	Not tested	44
<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>	Tuber	Wounding	Not tested	<i>StshkA</i>	Not tested	45
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Rosette leaf	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i>	Not tested	<i>AtDHS1</i>	Not tested	43
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	Cell suspension culture	Fungal elicitors	Not tested	<i>DHS2</i>	<i>PALs, SK, EPSPS, and CS1</i>	46
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	Leaf	<i>Phytophthora infestans</i>	Not tested	<i>DHS2</i>	<i>EPSPS and CS1</i>	46
<i>Catharanthus roseus</i>	Cell suspension culture	UV-B irradiation	Not tested	<i>CrDHS1</i>	Not tested	47
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Whole seedling	Diurnal cycle	<i>AtCCA1</i>	<i>AtDHS1</i>	<i>SK1 and CS</i>	48
<i>Picea glauca</i>	Xylem and bark/phloem	Diurnal cycle	<i>PtMYB1 and Pt/PgMYB8</i>	<i>PgDHS2</i>	<i>PgSHM4, PgMEE58, PgCM1, PgCOMT1, PgHCT, Pg4CL2, PgPRR2, and Lipase/thio. DHQS, SK, EPSPSs, CS1, CM, ADTs/PDTs, 4CLs, PALs, CCR, CCoAOMTs, C4Hs, THTs, HQT, CHS, putative AspAT, PAT, and UDP-xylose phenolic glycosyltransferase</i>	49
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	Fruit	Heterologous expression of <i>PhODO1</i>	<i>PhODO1</i>	<i>DAHPS</i>	<i>SIG6PD, SIPGLS, S16PGD1, S16PGD2, SIRpi, SIRpe, SITKT, SITALD01, SISUS1, SIPFK1, SIGADPH, SIGADPHL, SIPGM, SIENO, SIDHQs, SIDHQD, SISHD, SISK, SIEPSPS1, SIEPSPS2, SICS, SICM1, SIPAT, SIADT, SIPAL5A, SIPAL5B, SIPAL5C, SIPAL5D, SIPAL, SI4CL, SI4CL-like, SICHS-1, SICHS-2, SICHS, SICHIL, SIF3H, SIFLS, SIDFRL1, SIDFRL2, SIANs, SI3GT, SIHCT, and SIC3H</i>	50
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	Fruit	Heterologous expression of <i>AtMYB12</i>	<i>AtMYB12</i>	<i>SIDAHPs</i>	<i>SISUS1, SIHK, SIGPI, SIPFP, SITPI, SIPFK1, SIENO, SIPGLS1, SIPGLS3, SIPGD1, SIRpe, SIDHQs, SIDHQD, SISHD, SISK, SIEPSPS, SICS, SICM, SIC4H, SIPSY, SIPDS, SIZDS, SLYCB, SIPAL5A, SIPAL5B, SIPAL5C, and 4CL</i>	51
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	Fruit pericarp	Overexpression of <i>SIMIXTA-like</i>	<i>SIMIXTA-like</i>	<i>SIDAHPs</i>	<i>Of 66 co-expressed genes common to PtMYB1, PtMYB8, and PtMYB14 transgenics, 20% linked to flavonoid and phenylpropanoid biosynthesis. PhEPSPS and PhCM</i>	52
<i>Picea glauca</i>	Plantlet	Heterologous expression of <i>Pinus taeda MYB1 and MYB8</i>	<i>PtMYB1 and PtMYB8</i>	<i>PgDHS2</i>	<i>PhEPSPS and PhCM</i>	49
<i>Petunia hybrida</i>	Flower petal	RNAi suppression of <i>PhADT1</i>	Not tested	<i>PhDAHPS</i>		53

Table 3

A summary of studies that reported direct/indirect DHS manipulation for altered accumulation of plant specialized metabolites.

Organism	Tissue	Genetic manipulation	Regulated endogenous DHS isoform(s)	Metabolite phenotype	Reference
<i>Petunia hybrida</i>	Flower petal	RNAi suppression of <i>PhODO1</i>	<i>PhDAHPS</i>	Reduced emissions of volatile benzenoids	56
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	Fruit	Heterologous expression of <i>PhODO1</i>	<i>DAHPS</i>	Reduced Phe and methionine levels and benzaldehyde and 2-phenylacetonitrile emission. Increased phenylpropanoids, such as ferulic acid and coniferaldehyde.	50
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	Fruit	Heterologous expression of <i>AtMYB12</i>	<i>SIDAHPS</i>	Reduced sucrose, glucose, fructose, myo-inositol, Phe, and shikimic acid. Increased glycine, valine, leucine, citric acid, succinic acid, quinic acid, Trp, Tyr, chlorogenic acid, and flavonols.	51
<i>Populus tremula</i> x <i>Populus tremuloides</i> and <i>Populus tremula</i> x <i>Populus alba</i>	Leaf	Overexpression of <i>MYB182</i>	<i>PtDAHPS</i> , <i>PtDAHPS1</i> , and <i>PtDAHPS2</i>	Reduced anthocyanins and proanthocyanidins.	63
<i>Populus tremula</i> x <i>Populus tremuloides</i>	Leaf	Overexpression of <i>MYB165</i>	<i>PtDAHPSs</i>	Reduced anthocyanins, proanthocyanidins, salicortin, tremulacin, cis-3-coumaroyl-quinate, trans-3-coumaryl-quinate, caffeoyl-quinate. Increased Phe, Trp, Tyr, valine, isoleucine, leucine, histidine, and glutamine.	64
<i>Nicotiana tabacum</i>	Whole seedling	Heterologous expression of <i>Camellia sinensis MYB4a</i>	<i>NtAROF</i>	Reduced total lignin, rutin, chlorogenic acid, and Phe.	65
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Stem	Quadruple T-DNA insertional mutant of <i>AtMYB20/AtMYB42/AtMYB43/AtMYB85</i>	<i>AtDHS3</i>	Reduced G- and S-lignin subunits and total lignin content. Increased Phe, anthocyanin, kaempferol 3-O-[6''-O-(rhamnosyl)glucoside] 7-O-rhamnoside, kaempferol 3-O-glucoside 7-O-rhamnoside, and kaempferol 3-O-rhamnoside 7-O-rhamnoside.	66
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	Fruit pericarp	Overexpression of <i>SIMIXTA-like</i>	<i>SIDAHPS</i>	Reduced rutin. Increased anthranilic acid, tryptamine, p-coumaric acid, p-coumaraldehyde, dihydroquercetin, coniferaldehyde, chlorogenic acid, caffeic acid, ferulic acid, vanillin, scopoletin, feruloyl quinic acid, ferulic acid hexoside, vanillic acid, lycopene, and β-carotene.	52
<i>Petunia hybrida</i>	Flower petal	RNAi suppression of <i>PhADT1</i>	<i>PhDAHPS</i>	Reduced shikimate, Phe, and Trp levels, and decreased emissions of all phenylpropanoids/benzenoids.	53
<i>Petunia hybrida</i>	Flower petal	Heterologous expression of <i>Escherichia coli</i> feedback-insensitive <i>AroG₁₇₅</i> and/or overexpression of <i>PhADT1^{R353A}</i>	Not tested	Increased Phe level and Phe-derived volatile emission.	55
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Flower and aerial tissue of seedling	Heterologous expression of <i>Escherichia coli</i> feedback-insensitive <i>AroG₁₇₅</i>	Not tested	Increased shikimate, prephenate, Phe, phenylacetonitrile, homogentisate, alanine, 4-hydroxybenzoate, Trp, coumarate hexose (I), coumarate hexose (II), ferulate hexose (I), ferulate hexose (II), ferulate derivative (I), ferulate derivative (II), sinapoyl hexose, sinapic acid, sinapyl alcohol, coniferin, kaempferol deoxyhexose, kaempferol deoxyhexose-deoxyhexose, hydroxybenzoate hexose, 2-phenylethyl glucosinolate, 4-O-methoxyindole glucosinolate, and 12-hydroxyjasmonate-hexose. In floral organs, increased total lignin content and H and G monomer content.	60
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	Fruit	Heterologous expression of <i>Escherichia coli</i> feedback-insensitive <i>AroG₁₇₅</i>	Not tested	Increased Phe and Trp.	61
			Not tested		61

(continued on next page)

Table 3. (continued)

Organism	Tissue	Genetic manipulation	Regulated endogenous DHS isoform(s)	Metabolite phenotype	Reference
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	Aerial tissue of fruit peel or flesh	Heterologous expression of <i>Escherichia coli</i> feedback-insensitive <i>AroG</i> ₂₀₉		In fruit peel, increased raffinose, trehalose, cellobiose, guanosine, fumaric acid, shikimic acid, prephenic acid, Trp, Phe, Tyr, coumaric acid hexose (II), <i>p</i> -coumaric acid, ferulic acid hexose, tricaffeoylquinic acid, 3-caffeoylequinic acid, 4-caffeoylequinic acid, naringenin chalcone hexose, quercetin-hexose-deoxyhexose-pentose- <i>p</i> -coumarate, and decreased lycopene, phytofluene, phytoene, and putrescine. In fruit flesh, increased maltose, raffinose, trehalose, cellobiose, dehydrolycoperoside G, F, A, shikimic acid, prephenic acid, Phe, Trp, Tyr, <i>p</i> -coumaric acid, coumaric acid derivative I, kaempferol glucose rhamnose, and decreased lycopene, phytofluene, phytoene, asparagine, putrescine, caffeic acid hexose (I), and caffeic acid hexose (II). In whole fruit, increased benzaldehyde, phenylacetaldehyde, 2-phenylacetaldehyde, phenyl acetic acid and decreased limonene, β -ionone, geranylacetone, and eugenol.	
<i>Nicotiana tabacum</i>	Leaf	Heterologous expression of <i>Escherichia coli</i> feedback-insensitive <i>AroG</i> ₁₇₅	Not tested	Increased total polyphenol content, quinate, shikimate, phenylpyruvate, Tyr, Phe, Trp, phenylethylamine, phenyllactate, benzylglucopyranoside, 4-hydroxybenzoate, and phenylethylamine.	62
<i>Nicotiana tabacum</i>	Leaf	<i>Phelipanche egyptiaca</i> infection of <i>N. tabacum</i> with heterologous expression of <i>Escherichia coli</i> feedback-insensitive <i>AroG</i> ₁₇₅	Not tested	In tobacco roots, increased Trp, Phe, Tyr, quinic acid, caffeic acid, ferulic acid, and chlorogenic acid. In <i>P. egyptiaca</i> attached to the roots of these plants, increased Trp, caffeic acid, and coumaric acid, and decreased Tyr and sinapic acid.	62
<i>Vitis vinifera</i>	Cell suspension culture	Heterologous expression of <i>Escherichia coli</i> feedback-insensitive <i>AroG</i> ₁₇₅	Not tested	Increased shikimate, phenylpyruvate, Tyr, Phe, 3-hydroxy phenylacetate, <i>p</i> -coumarate, dihydroquercetin, hydroquinone, resveratrol (trans), 4-hydroxyphenyl- β glucopyranoside, and 4-hydroxy benzoate. Reduced delphinidin, malvidin, and petunidin.	67
<i>Petunia hybrida</i>	Leaf and flower	Heterologous expression of <i>Escherichia coli</i> feedback-insensitive <i>AroG</i> ₁₇₅ or <i>AroG</i> ₂₀₉	Not tested	Increased Phe, Trp, Tyr, phenylpyruvate, 3-hydroxy cinnamate, trans coumarate, caffeoate, ferulate, sinapate, vanillate, salicylate, salicin, 4-hydroxybenzoate, 4-hydroxyphenyl- β -glucopyranosid, tyrosol, <i>p</i> -cresol, 4-hydroxy-3-methoxy-mandelate, phenylacetaldehyde, 2-phenylethanol, benzaldehyde, benzyl alcohol, benzoate, benzyl acetate, methyl benzoate, benzyl benzoate, and total benzenoid-phenylpropanoid volatile content.	68
<i>Petunia hybrida</i>	Leaf	Heterologous expression of <i>Escherichia coli</i> feedback-insensitive <i>AroG</i> ₁₇₅	Not tested	Increased shikimate, prephenate, phenylpyruvate, Phe, Trp, Tyr, caffeoate, ferulate, <i>p</i> -coumarate, sinapic acid, benzyl alcohol, 1-benzylglucopyranoside, 4-hydroxybenzoate, benzene 1,2,3-triol, 3,4-hydroxyphenyllactate, indole 3-pyruvate, indole 3-lactate, α -tocopherol, phyllodihydroquinone, pABA, salicylate glucopyranoside, hydroquinone, hydroquinone β -D-glucopyranose, rosmarinate, and 3-phenyllactate.	69
<i>Petunia hybrida</i>	Leaf	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i> infection of <i>P. hybrida</i> with heterologous expression of <i>Escherichia coli</i> feedback-insensitive <i>AroG</i> ₁₇₅	Not tested	Reduced reactive oxygen species (ROS) accumulation.	69

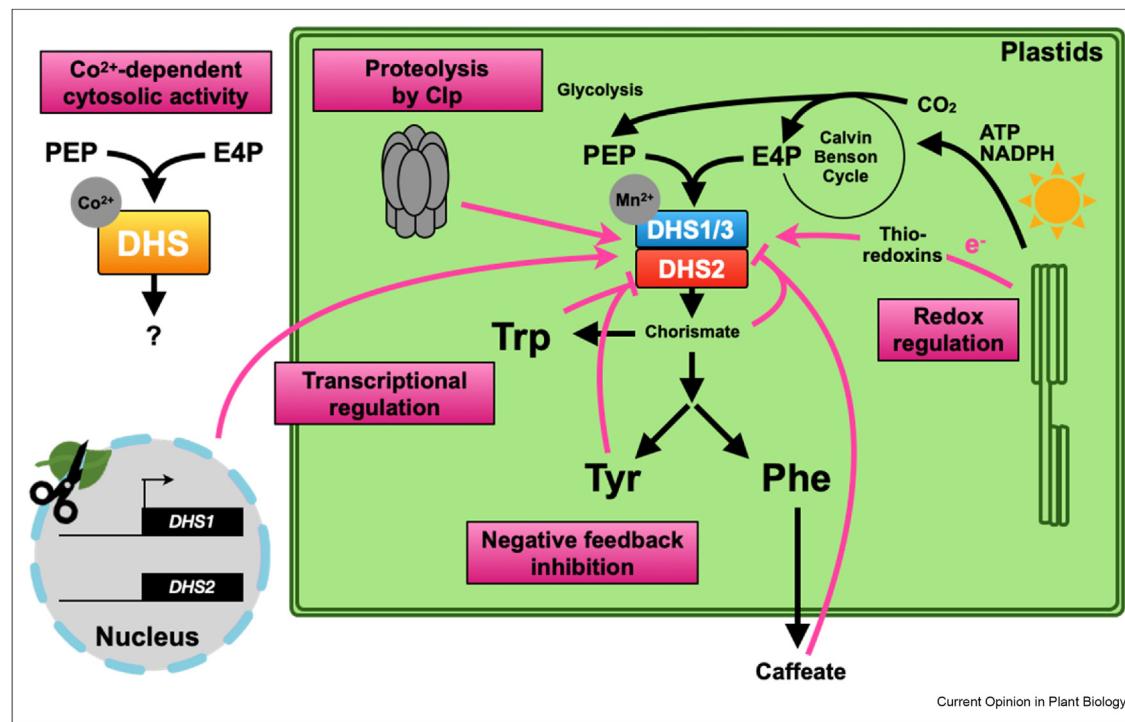
potentially promotes the production of AAA-derived metabolites likely in a jasmonic acid-dependent manner [54], to cope with various stresses. Suppression of an arogenate dehydratase (ADT) that synthesizes Phe (Figure 1) also upregulates *DHS* (an ortholog of *AtDHS3*), as well as *5-enolpyruvylshikimate-3-phosphate synthase (EPSPS)* and *CM*, genes in *Petunia hybrida* flowers [53], suggesting that a shortage of AAAs can induce expression of *DHS* genes. More recently, overexpression of a deregulated ADT in petunia flowers led to an unexpected reduction in Phe and Phe-derived volatiles, which can be partially recovered by additional expression of the plastid AAA transporter, deregulated bacterial DHS, or D-ribulose-5-phosphate 3-epimerase in the pentose phosphate pathway (Table 3) [55]. Conversely, the hyper-accumulation of Phe, along with Tyr and Trp, caused by reduced Phe ammonia-lyase (PAL) activity did not alter *DHS* and other shikimate pathway gene expression, although the shikimate pathway flux was reduced [55]. These results together suggest that elevated AAAs, especially in the plastids, leads to post-transcriptional down-regulation of the shikimate pathway, which potentially includes DHS inhibition by the accumulated Tyr and Trp and/or pathway intermediates (e.g. chorismate) [14].

Transcription of the shikimate pathway genes, including *AtDHS1*, is subjected to phytochrome B-mediated

circadian oscillation involving multiple transcriptional factors (TFs), such as circadian clock associated 1 (CCA1) (Table 2) [48]. The expression of *DHS*, *EPSPS*, and *CM*, *PAL1*, and *PAL2* genes is also regulated by *ODORANT1* (*ODO1*), a MYB TF that positively regulates benzenoid volatile biosynthesis in petunia [56]. Interestingly, overexpression of petunia *ODO1* in tomato fruits elevated the expression of *DHS*, *EPSPS* and *CM* genes, though without an increase in AAAs and Phe-derived flavor volatiles (Table 3) [50]. In contrast, *AtMYB12* expression in tomato fruits directly activated the promoters of *DHS* and other upstream and downstream genes (e.g., *PAL*) and enhanced total flavonol production (Table 3) [51]. MYB TFs are likely involved in regulating *DHS* expression by binding to its AC promoter *cis*-elements, as demonstrated for PgMYB8 and PgMYB15 in white spruce (*Picea glauca*) (Table 2) [49]. The next challenge is to understand how different TFs coordinate the expression of *DHS* and other pathway genes through direct and indirect binding to their promoters.

Taken together, the entry reaction of the shikimate pathway, catalyzed by DHSs, is controlled by at least five different mechanisms (Figure 4). Such complex post-translational regulatory systems, seen in plant DHSs, have not been discovered in the other shikimate pathway enzymes so far, with an exception of the

Figure 4



Multiple regulations of plant DHS activity, as indicated by pink boxes and lines. The identity of cytosolic Co²⁺-dependent DHS activity (orange box) is currently unknown. PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate; E4P, erythrose-4-phosphate; Tyr, tyrosine; Phe, phenylalanine; Trp, tryptophan.

potential CS degradation by the Clp complex. These multi-layer regulatory mechanisms suggest that plant DHSs act as the “gatekeeper” of the shikimate pathway, which integrates multiple signals, especially in the plastids, to control carbon allocation toward biosynthesis of various aromatic natural products under different conditions.

Modulating DHS for aromatic compound production through plant synthetic biology

In microbes, many feedback-resistant DHSs have been generated based on enzyme structural analyses followed by site directed mutagenesis [11,16,57,58] and widely utilized to eliminate the DHS allosteric regulations and to overproduce targeted aromatic compounds [59]. Heterologous expression of deregulated microbial DHSs, such as a feedback-resistant *E. coli* *AroG* but not wild-type *AroG*, enhanced accumulation of shikimate, Phe, Trp, and broad classes of AAA-derived specialized metabolites in *Arabidopsis* [60] and crops, such as *S. lycopersicum* fruit and *Nicotiana tabacum* (Table 3) [61,62]. The mutated *AroG*-expressing tobacco showed enhanced tolerances to salt stress and a parasitic plant *Phelipanche egyptiaca* [62], although additional characterization is needed to establish the underlying mechanisms. In general, studies that directly or indirectly manipulated *DHS* expression reported altered accumulation of phenylpropanoid compounds in plants, as summarized in Table 3 [50–53,55,56,60–69]. These studies suggest that the DHS-catalyzed reaction is a major limiting step of the shikimate pathway in plants, which can be bypassed by introducing a deregulated, exogenous DHS. A better understanding of plant DHS enzyme structure and regulatory mechanisms will enable the deregulation of endogenous plant DHSs by base editing [70]. To further enhance the overall shikimate pathway activity, we have to consider other factors, such as increasing the availability of DHS substrates, especially E4P, given that plant DHSs have a higher K_m toward E4P and that the activity of the pentose phosphate pathway enzymes, such as transketolase and d-ribulose-5-phosphate 3-epimerase, impacts AAA production in plants [14,55,71]. Metabolic control analyses

[60–62] in plants that are deregulated at the DHS step will also highlight additional bottlenecks in the pathway. Coordinated upregulation of the shikimate pathway genes, together with the upstream and downstream genes, is also important for enhanced carbon flux through the shikimate and downstream natural product pathways, as demonstrated by AtMYB12 expression in tomato fruits [51].

Conclusion and future perspective

Plant DHS activity is controlled by multiple regulatory networks of complex metabolite-mediated feedback inhibition, redox regulation within the plastids, cofactor/substrate availability, and transcriptional regulation (Figure 4). These intricate regulatory systems of plant DHSs are likely important for optimizing carbon allocation from the central carbon metabolism through the shikimate pathway to produce a variety of aromatic phytochemicals under different conditions. Considering the plant’s natural ability to synthesize abundant and diverse aromatic compounds from CO_2 using sunlight energy, plants provide a promising sustainable platform to produce numerous aromatic chemicals, which are in high demand but are currently extracted primarily from fossil fuels [72]. Although further biochemical, genetic, and metabolomic studies are needed to address a number of remaining questions, as listed in **BOX1**, answering these questions will enable rational engineering of the shikimate pathway to construct plant chemical platforms for efficient and sustainable production of various aromatic compounds.

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BOX1. Outstanding questions regarding the function and regulation of plant DHS enzymes.

- What are the roles of different DHS isoforms having distinct transcriptional and post-transcriptional regulations?
- Which metabolites that inhibit the plant DHS activity play critical roles in controlling the overall flux through the shikimate pathway in plants?
- Which amino acid residue(s) of DHS determines its sensitivity to the various effector molecules?
- What are the roles and identities of Co^{2+} -dependent DHS activity detected in plant tissues?
- What is the significance of redox, cofactor, and Clp-mediated DHS regulation *in planta*?
- How do plants differentially regulate *DHS* gene expression in the response to metabolic demands from the downstream aromatic natural product biosynthesis in each tissue?
- What are the upstream signals and TF networks that regulate the expression of *DHS* genes?
- How are these multi-layered DHS regulations coordinated under different conditions and with other shikimate pathway genes and enzymes?

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pbi.2022.102219>.

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- * of special interest
- ** of outstanding interest

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