

Susanne Römer · Paul D. Fraser

Recent advances in carotenoid biosynthesis, regulation and manipulation

Received: 21 February 2005 / Accepted: 22 February 2005 / Published online: 15 April 2005
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Keywords Carotenoids · Carotenoid biosynthesis · β -carotene · Lycopene · Manipulation · Regulation · Transgenic plants · Xanthophylls

Carotenoids are the most widespread group of pigments found in nature. In plants, carotenoids have functional roles in development, photosynthesis and membrane stability. They act as phytohormone precursors (Schwartz et al. 2003) and are involved in environmental adaptation (Demmig-Adams and Adams 2002). Carotenoids exert protective functions due to their high antioxidative potential and are also important components of the human diet. Strong evidence suggests that diets rich in carotenoids can prevent the onset of some chronic disease states (Mares-Perlman et al. 2002) and certain cancers (Giovannucci 2002).

The elucidation of the carotenoid biosynthetic pathway and the enormous progress in gene cloning provided the tools necessary to embark upon the metabolic engineering (also termed genetic manipulation or engineering) of the pathway (for recent reviews, see Tucker 2003; Fraser and Bramley 2004). This has resulted in stable transgenic plants with improved nutritional quality, increased ability to synthesise high value carotenoids and enhanced tolerance to abiotic stress. The majority of manipulations have targeted single steps in

the pathway with the objective to elevate the lycopene and β -carotene content. Several constitutive over-expression approaches (Fray et al. 1995; Busch et al. 2002) focused on phytoene synthase (PSY), and led to various unintended pleiotropic and/or co-suppression effects. These experiments also revealed the delicate precursor balance and intricate interaction between different isoprenoid forming pathways (compare Laule et al. 2003). The use of promoters showing high organ or developmental specificity in combination with low homology transgenes successfully elevated the carotenoid content, avoided co-suppression effects and reduced metabolic perturbances in the transformed plants (Fraser et al. 2002; Shewmaker et al. 1999) in most cases. Due to its pro-vitamin A activity, increasing β -carotene level in crops and vegetables has also been a primary goal of genetic engineering. Over-expression of different lycopene cyclases gave rise to tomato fruits with significantly higher β -carotene content (reviewed in Fraser and Bramley 2004).

Recently, multiple carotenoid genes were transformed into plants in an attempt to further increase the amount of total carotenoids. In canola seeds, Ravanallo et al. (2003) have generated a triple construct containing genes encoding PSY and phytoene desaturase from a bacterial source as well as lycopene cyclases of either plant or bacterial origin. Unfortunately, these constructs have made little improvement to that obtained previously with a bacterial PSY solely. The production of the so-called “golden rice” referring to the engineering of β -carotene (pro-vitamin A) synthesis in normally carotenoid-devoid rice endosperm also required the transfer of several genes from different origins to obtain the desired property (Ye et al. 2000). To provide a staple food source high in provitamin A thereby alleviating vitamin A deficiency in developing countries, the pro-vitamin A phenotype was recently transferred into two Indica rice varieties which are widely grown in the target countries (Hoa et al. 2003) taking first steps to commercial exploitation. The authors also modified their construct by replacing the controversially discussed

S. Römer (✉)
School of Biological Sciences,
University of Bristol, Woodland Road,
Bristol, BS8 1UG, UK
E-mail: roemer.susanne@web.de

P. D. Fraser
School of Biological Sciences,
Royal Holloway University London,
Egham, Surrey, TW20 OEX, UK
E-mail: p.fraser@rhul.ac.uk

Present address: S. Römer
Fachbereich Biologie,
Universität Konstanz,
Universitätsstr. 10, 78457 Konstanz,
Germany

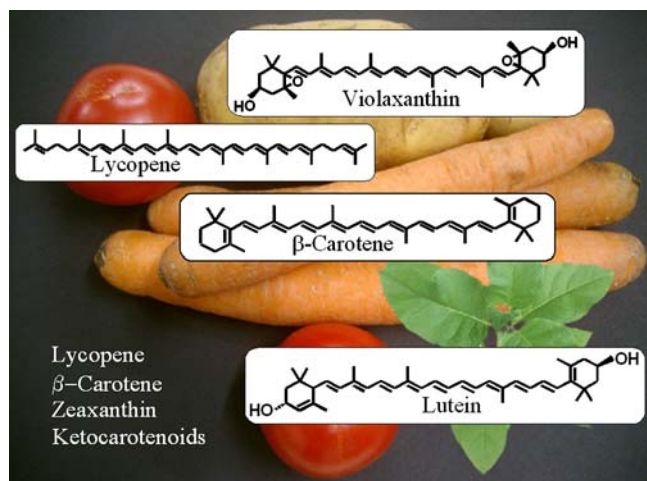


Fig. 1 Carotenoids in green leaves, fruits and vegetables. Boxed are the chemical structures of some carotenoids being widely distributed in higher plants; listed are some examples of carotenoids that are targets for genetic engineering and conventional breeding

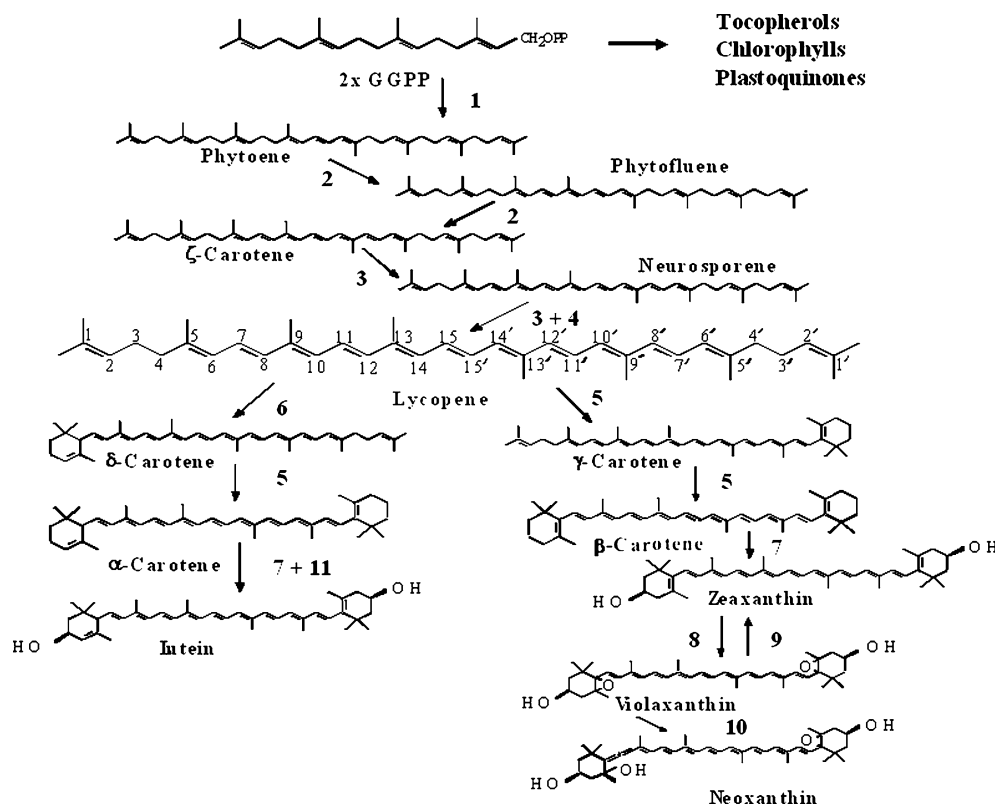
antibiotic resistance marker with the phosphomannose isomerase selection system.

The emerging health benefits of xanthophylls have attracted increasing attention. The xanthophylls lutein and zeaxanthin are located in the yellow spot of the retina and the decrease of these pigments with age is thought to result in macular degeneration (AMD) (Mares-Perlman et al. 2002), a major cause of blindness in the elderly. Evidence is accumulating that the dietary

intake of these xanthophylls can ameliorate or prevent the onset of such chronic degenerative diseases. Since very few vegetables and fruits contain significant amounts of zeaxanthin, genetic engineering was applied to alter xanthophyll composition. In tomato fruits, higher amounts of zeaxanthin and β-cryptoxanthin, as well as enhanced levels of β-carotene were achieved (Dharmapuri et al. 2002). In potato tubers, zeaxanthin concentration could be increased up to 130-fold using antisense inhibition of zeaxanthin epoxidase and co-suppression by the corresponding sense construct (Römer et al. 2002). Manipulation of xanthophyll biosynthesis by overexpression of various β-carotene hydroxylase genes also improved abiotic stress resistance of *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Nicotiana tabacum* (Davison et al. 2002; Götz et al. 2002). Moreover, the cloning and characterisation of various carotene hydroxylases revealed the complexity of carotenoid biosynthesis and indicated overlapping functions within the pathway (reviewed in Tian and DellaPenna 2004). Following the identification of several β-carotene hydroxylases, the ε-hydroxylase gene was finally isolated by positional cloning. The use of *Arabidopsis* T-DNA knockout mutants for both β-hydroxylases and ε-hydroxylase in single, double and triple combinations has elegantly shown that the two β-hydroxylases can compensate for each other and the β-hydroxylase also possesses ε-hydroxylation activity.

The carotenoid pathway in higher plants can be used as a source of precursors for the synthesis of high-value

Fig. 2 Schematic representation of carotenoid synthesis in higher plants. GGPP geranylgeranyl diphosphate. Enzymes: 1 PSY phytoene synthase, 2 PDS phytoene desaturase, 3 ZDS ζ-carotene desaturase, 4 CRTISO carotene isomerase, 5 LCY-b /CYC-B lycopene β-cyclase, 6 LCY-e lycopene ε-cyclase, 7 CRTL-b β-ring hydroxylase, 11 CRTL-e ε-ring hydroxylase, 8 ZEP zeaxanthin epoxidase, 9 VDE violaxanthin de-epoxidase, 10 NXS neoxanthin synthase



ketocarotenoids (e.g. canthaxanthin, 4-ketozeaxanthin and astaxanthin), too. A variety of ketolated carotenoids were formed by the expression of the *Haemato-coccus* carotene oxygenase (*crtO*) in either tobacco (Hirschberg 2001) or *Arabidopsis* (Stalberg et al. 2003). In addition, the utility of the astaxanthin biosynthetic genes from marine bacteria to synthesise ketocarotenoids in higher plants was demonstrated (Ralley et al. 2004). Naturally produced astaxanthin is expected to become more important due to its evolving health benefits (Guerin et al. 2003). The isolation of carotenoid cleavage enzymes (reviewed in Giuliano et al. 2003) is also likely to facilitate the production of high-value apocarotenoids in higher plants and unravel their physiological roles.

Although the carotenoid biosynthetic pathway was already successfully targeted by genetic engineering, the complex regulation of carotenogenesis still remains poorly understood. Regulatory studies have primarily concentrated on three model systems: (1) fruit ripening, (2) flower colour development, and (3) light-dependent etioplast to chloroplast transition (de-etiolation). Induction of (coordinated) gene expression seems to be an important feature of carotenoid accumulation during flower (Zhu et al. 2003) and plastid development (von Lintig et al. 1997; Woitsch and Römer 2003). PSY, the first committed step of carotenoid biosynthesis, was transcriptionally up-regulated during tomato fruit ripening (Bramley 2002) and de-etiolation of mustard and tobacco seedlings (von Lintig et al. 1997). Its gene expression was shown to be under phytochrome control and the location of the PSY protein influenced prolamellar body formation (Welsch et al. 2000). Recently, the analysis of the PSY promoter of *A. thaliana* allowed the identification of promoter regions responsible for the modulation to different light qualities (Welsch et al. 2003). In accordance, phytochrome is also thought to be involved in the regulation of the expression of various xanthophyll biosynthetic genes in tobacco (Woitsch and Römer 2003). The transcript level of β -carotene hydroxylase was affected by different light qualities, whereas post-transcriptional or translational control might be a more decisive factor in the regulation of violaxanthin de-epoxidase (Rossel et al. 2002). Evidence for a redox control of some of the xanthophyll biosynthetic genes by the plastoquinone pool was derived from studies using site-specific photosynthetic electron transport inhibitors (Woitsch and Römer 2003). In tomato, components of the light signal transduction pathways were shown to have positive and negative regulatory effects on carotenoid formation, principally by increasing plastid numbers in the cell (Cookson et al. 2003; Liu et al. 2004). Light and developmental programs are not the only clues to induce expression of carotenoid biosynthetic genes, since also intermediates of the mevalonic acid (MVA)-independent pathway were capable to up-regulate expression of downstream carotenoid biosynthetic genes during tomato fruit ripening (Lois et al. 2000). Furthermore, genetic manipulation has sometimes

led to alterations of endogenous gene expression in the transgenic plants (Römer et al. 2000; Römer et al. 2002).

As yet, no regulatory genes involved in carotenoid formation have been isolated. However, the *Or* gene defines a mutation resulting in an unusual accumulation of β -carotene in cauliflower (Li et al. 2003). Crosses of different carrot varieties and the creation of recombinant inbred lines of tomato enabled the identification of quantitative trait loci (QTLs) involved in the production of lycopene and β -carotene (Santos and Simon 2002). These findings will facilitate the breeding for these quality traits in the future by more consumer acceptable non-GM approaches.

Future prospects

Over the last decade, carotenoid research was predominantly focused on the biosynthetic pathway. The successful isolation of biosynthetic genes, identification of pathway products/intermediates and the manipulation of key steps in the pathway are major achievements. However, the generation of transgenic plants and mutants has frequently resulted in unexplainable physiological, molecular and biochemical effects, which presumably reflect our poor understanding of the regulatory aspects associated with carotenoid synthesis. The exploitation of the genetic resources generated and application of modern genomic and post-genomic techniques could considerably improve our knowledge about gene products and physiological processes that indirectly regulate and affect carotenoid formation enabling both non-GM and GM approaches to enhance food crops and improve the environmental adaptation of plants.

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