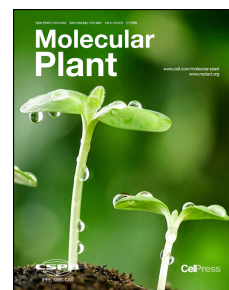


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A Genome-wide Scenario of Terpene Pathways in Self-pollinated *Artemisia annua* L

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Running title: Terpene Biosynthesis in Self-pollinated *Artemisia annua*

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**Manuscript Title: A Genome-wide Scenario of Terpene Pathways in Self-pollinated
Artemisia annua L**

Summary:

A genome-wide gene-to-terpene landscape is characterized to show the network of
terpene biosynthetic pathways differentially expressed in tissues of self-pollinated
Artemisia annua plants.

Abstract

Scenarios of genes to metabolites in *Artemisia annua* remain uninvestigated. Here, we report the use of an integrated approach combining metabolomics, transcriptomics and gene function analyses to characterize gene-to-terpene and terpene pathway scenarios in a self-pollinating variety of this species. Eighty-eight metabolites including twenty-two sesquiterpenes (e.g., artemisinin), twenty-six monoterpenes, three triterpenes and thirty-eight other non-polar metabolites were identified from fourteen tissues. These metabolites were differentially produced by leaves and flowers at lower to higher positions. Sequences from cDNA libraries of six tissues were assembled into 18,871 contigs, and genome-wide gene expression profiles in tissues were strongly associated with developmental stages and spatial specificities. Sequence mining identified forty-seven genes that mapped to the artemisinin, non-amorphadiene sesquiterpene, monoterpene, triterpene, 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) and mevalonate pathways. Pearson correlation analysis resulted in network integration that characterized significant correlations of gene-to-gene expression patterns and gene expression-to-metabolite levels in six tissues simultaneously. More importantly, manipulations of amorpha-4,11-diene synthase (ADS) gene expression not only controlled the activity of this pathway toward artemisinin, artemisinic acid and arteannuin b but also altered non-amorphadiene sesquiterpene and genome-wide volatile profiles. Such gene-to-terpene landscapes associated with different tissues are fundamental to the metabolic engineering of artemisinin.

Keywords: *Artemisia annua*, artemisinin, terpene, metabolic profiling, pyrosequencing

Introduction

Artemisinin is an unusual endoperoxide sesquiterpene lactone (Liu et al., 1979) with a unique oxygen bridge structure (Fig. 1) and is the active antimalarial metabolite in *Artemisia annua* (Klayman, 1985; Liu et al., 1979; Milhous and Weina, 2010; Tu et al., 1982). Artemisinin-based combination therapy (ACT) is currently the first-line treatment of malarial diseases (Banek et al., 2014; Gogtay et al., 2013; Jelinek, 2013; Shunmay et al., 2008; Taylor, 2013), and numerous efforts have been made over many years to understand artemisinin biosynthesis to increase artemisinin production for cost-effective ACT. The biochemical steps from farnesyl diphosphate (FDS or farnesyl pyrophosphate, FPP) to artemisinic acid and dihydroartemisinic acid (Fig. 1) have been characterized by gene cloning and characterization (Brown, 2010). Additionally, genes encoding amorpho-4,11-diene synthase (ADS), a cytochrome P450 monooxygenase (CYP71AV1), a cytochrome P450 reductase (CPR), a Δ -11(13)-double bond reductase (DBR2), an aldehyde dehydrogenase 1 (ALDH1), a cytochrome b5 monooxygenase (CYB5) and an alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH1) have been biochemically and transgenically characterized as being involved in the biosynthesis of artemisinic acid and dihydroartemisinic acid (Fig. 1) (Bouwmeester et al., 1999; Chang et al., 2000; Paddon et al., 2013; Ro et al., 2006; Teoh et al., 2009; Teoh et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2008). Although the steps from dihydroartemisinic acid to artemisinin (Fig. 1) remain unknown, the currently favored hypothesis involves non-enzymatic spontaneous autoxidation reactions in the presence of high levels of singlet oxygen (Brown, 2010; Sy and Brown, 2002).

Increasing artemisinin production is one of the primary research goals in combating malaria. Unfortunately, increasing artemisinin yields in plants has been challenging, given that artemisinin production is controlled by different facts. Indeed, germplasm investigations have demonstrated that the artemisinin content is low, and dramatically variable from 0.003 to 0.2% (g/g, dry weight) in different varieties and from 0 to 0.39% (DW) in individual plants of the same variety (Charles et al., 1990; Paul et al., 2014). Considering that *A. annua* is a cross-pollinating species, the most difficult breeding challenge is an inability of progeny to produce artemisinin due to segregation (Alejos-Gonzalez et al., 2011; Delabays et al., 2001; Graham et al., 2010; Simonnet et al., 2008). Thus, although a few varieties have been bred to produce high levels of artemisinin, e.g., from 1 to 2.4% (DW) (Brisibe et al., 2012; Cockram et al., 2012; Delabays et al., 2001; Graham et al., 2010; Larson et al., 2013; Simonnet et al., 2008), efforts are still necessary to overcome yield instability. In fact, germplasm selection has become particularly important for developing new ACT treatments. In the 1970s, crude extracts of artemisinin from *A. annua* were used to treat malaria in China (Zhong-Yi-Yan-Jiu-Yue-Zhong-Yao-Yan-Jiu-Suo, 1978), and recent experiments have further demonstrated that crude extracts of dry plants could be used as a new pACT product (*A. annua* ACT) (Weathers et al., 2014a; Weathers et al., 2014b) to overcome the resistance of the parasite to artemisinin monotherapy (Elfawal et al., 2015). In addition, numerous studies have shown that artemisinin production is controlled by multiple factors such as glandular trichomes (Duke and Paul, 1993; Lommen et al., 2005; Tellez et al., 1999), NaCl, jasmonic acid and salicylic acid (Kjaer et al., 2012). Hence, optimization of these factors can improve artemisinin production.

Much time and effort have been invested in metabolic engineering and synthetic biology to produce artemisinin or its precursors. *ADS*, *CYP71AV1* and *CPR* (Fig. 1) were

overexpressed in *A. annua* and tobacco plants, and promising levels of artemisinic acids, artemisinin or new compound were produced in transgenic plants (Alam and Abdin, 2011; Chen et al., 2013; Farhi et al., 2011; Jiang et al., 2010; Shen et al., 2012; Tang et al., 2014; van Herpen et al., 2010; Xiang et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2010). Such efforts have demonstrated that metabolic engineering is a promising approach to increasing the production of artemisinin and its precursors in plants (Farhi et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2011). In comparison, artemisinin synthetic biology has made exciting progress. Engineered yeast strains have been developed to produce artemisinic acid by fermentation (Paddon et al., 2013; Ro et al., 2006; Teoh et al., 2006), and the combination of synthetic biology and semi-synthesis recently reached an industrial level to complement the demand of plant-based artemisinin (Paddon et al., 2013; Turconi et al., 2014). In particular, the improvement of semi-synthesis using artemisinic acid as a substrate resulted in an increase in the yield of artemisinin to approximately 60 tons (Turconi et al., 2014). This success will help ameliorate the limitation of the insufficient artemisinin supply from plants.

Regardless, relatively fewer investigations have been performed to understand the effects of the *in planta* activities of the terpene biosynthetic network on artemisinin biosynthesis. Numerous monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes have been isolated from heterozygous *A. annua* plants grown in different environments (Bhakuni et al., 2001; Goel et al., 2007; Holm et al., 1997; Pu et al., 2013; Tellez et al., 1999; Wei et al., 1992). All data thus far reveal that the *A. annua* terpene network is complicated, though it remains unclear whether the terpenes isolated are produced by all tissues or only specific tissues. We hypothesize that the complexities of the genome-wide terpene pathways toward different terpene molecules are spatially and developmentally dependent and that the activities of those pathways can essentially affect artemisinin production in both specific tissues and

the entire plant. To overcome progeny segregation, promote the metabolic engineering of artemisinin and understand the metabolic networks of terpenes, we recently developed a self-pollinating population of *A. annua* (Alejos-Gonzalez et al., 2011). When the plants were grown in a growth chamber, the artemisinin contents in the leaves and inflorescences of F2 plants at lower to higher positions ranged from 0.01%-0.1% (g/g, DW), and these levels were reproducible among progeny and individual plants. Additionally, these self-pollinating plants displayed an approximately 100% regeneration capacity through tissue culture (Alejos-Gonzalez et al., 2013). In the present study, we used an integrated approach of pyrosequencing and metabolomics to characterize genome-wide terpene biosynthesis in leaves at nine positions and in flowers at five stages. Terpene and gene expression profiles were integrated to characterize the scenarios of genome-wide gene-to-terpene pathways. ADS was selected to assess the effects of its down-regulation and overexpression on profiles of artemisinin, other amorphadiene and non-amorphadiene sesquiterpenes and volatiles. The resulting data provide new fundamental gene-to-terpene landscapes for enhancing the metabolic engineering of artemisinin.

Results

GC-MS-based Non-polar Metabolite Profiles

Eighty-eight metabolites (Tables 1 and 2, S-Table 3) were identified from 14 tissues using GC-MS analysis via two temperature programs (TP-1 and TP-2) of the column oven. These metabolites included 26 monoterpenes (monoterpenoids) (Table 1 and

S-Fig. 2), 21 sesquiterpenes (sesquiterpenoids) (Table 2 and S-Fig. 3), two triterpenes, one diterpene and another 38 metabolites (including acids, an alcohol, an aldehyde and alkenes) (S-Table 3). Most of metabolites could be detected by GC-MS using both TP1 and TP2. In comparison, TP-1 provided a better profile for sesquiterpenes than TP-2. TP-1 (but not TP-2) could detect artemisinic acid and β -pinene, whereas TP-2 (but not TP-1) could detect α -pinene (Table 1 and S-Fig. 2). Therefore, the metabolites separated by TP-1 were primarily used for principle component analysis (PCA), clustering analysis, gene-to-metabolite mapping and integration.

The profiles of metabolites were different among tissues (S-Fig. 1 and S-Table 4). The resulting 3-dimensional PCA plot, which was created using 87 metabolites (separated using TP-1) from 14 tissues, indicated that the patterns of non-polar metabolite profiles are affected by the tissue and position in the plant. The accumulation patterns of metabolites from nine groups of leaf tissues were clearly grouped together but separate from those patterns of metabolites from flower tissues (Fig. 2). By comparing leaves from the 7th (L7) through 17th (L17) nodes, the metabolite profiles in neighboring leaves, e.g., L11 and L12, were found to be ordinally close together. In addition, the accumulation patterns of the 87 metabolites in head inflorescences, including head inflorescence bud (HB) tissue and fully open head (FOH) inflorescences, were ordinally distant from the patterns of the nine groups of leaves. The accumulation patterns of these metabolites in 50% opening head (50%OH) inflorescences and inflorescence branch 15 and 16 (IB15 and IB16) tissues were ordinally grouped together and localized between the leaf and FOH and HB samples.

A heatmap coupled with clustering analysis was generated to further understand metabolic differentiation in the 14 tissues (Fig. 3). The nine groups of leaves appeared in one clade, which was separated from the FOH, 50%OH, IB15 and IB16 samples. The L7 and L10, L11 and L12, and L16 and L17 samples were clustered together. The heatmap and clustering data supported the PCA results.

Monoterpene Profiles

Twenty-six monoterpenes (Table 1; S-Fig. 2) were identified from 14 tissues (separated by both TP-1 and TP-2). Based on the recent classification of 134 *A. annua* monoterpenes (Brown, 2010), these 26 molecules comprise three acyclic, ten monocyclic, twelve bicyclic and one tricyclic monoterpenes (Table 1). The detection of these metabolites was also associated with various tissues (Table 1; S-Table 3), and only 1,8-cineole was detected in all 14 tissues. The levels of 1,8-cineole exhibited an increasing trend from L7 through L17 (Fig. 4 A) and were higher in the five flower tissues than in the nine leaf tissues, with a maximum value in FOH tissue. The 25 other metabolites were detected only in certain tissues at specific positions (Table 1). For example, β -pinene was only detected in L13 through L17 and the five flower tissues but not in L7-L12. The levels of β -pinene were higher in the five flower tissues than in L14-L17 leaf tissues, with a maximum value in IB15 tissue. β -Terpinene was only detected in IB15 and IB16, terpinen-4-ol only in HB and FOH tissues, and 1, 2-dimethyl-3-(1-methylethenyl)-cyclopentane only in L10 and L11.

Sesquiterpene Profiles

213

214 GC-MS analysis identified twenty-one sesquiterpenes (Table 2; S-Fig. 3) from 14 tissues,
215 comprising one acyclic, six monocyclic, eleven bicyclic and four tricyclic structures.
216 These metabolites could be categorized into two amorphadiene-derived (artemisinic acid
217 and arteannuin b) and 19 non-amorphadiene-derived sesquiterpenes (Table 2). Based on
218 their presence or absence and abundance, the accumulation patterns of the 21 metabolites
219 were characterized by tissue specificity (Table 2; S-Table 4). Arteannuin b,
220 caryophyllene, α -copaene and germacrene D were detected in all 14 tissues, with variable
221 accumulation patterns (Fig. 4B and C, S-Fig. 4 A, Table 2), and β -farnesene was detected
222 in 13 tissues. By contrast, the 16 other sesquiterpenes were only detected in certain
223 tissues, e.g., only in certain positional leaves, at certain flower stages, or at certain leaf
224 and flower positions (Table 2).

225

226 The peak area values of the 21 sesquiterpenes (S-Table 3) were recorded to reflect their
227 relative abundance in tissues and to characterize their tissue specificity. Five
228 sesquiterpenes were selected for a comparison of levels in 14 tissues. The content of
229 artemisinic acid was significantly higher in the five flower tissues than in the nine leaf
230 tissues. Of the former, artemisinic acid levels were higher in HB, FOH and 50%OH
231 than in IB15 and IB16 (Fig. 4 B and S-Table 3). Artemisinic acid was detected in
232 L11-L17 but not in L7 and L10, and the content increased from L11 to L17. The levels
233 of arteannuin b in IB15 and HB were higher than the levels in the other 12 tissues (Fig. 4
234 B and Table 2). In the nine different leaf tissues, the arteannuin b level gradually
235 increased from L7 to L13, was similar in L13 L14 and L15, and then increased in L16
236 and L17. The levels of caryophyllene were higher in the five flower tissues than in the
237 nine leaf tissues, with the lowest value in L7 (Fig. 4 C); of the former, its content was

higher in FOH and 50%OH than in IB15 and IB16 (Fig. 4 C). The contents of α -copaene gradually increased from L7 to L17, were similar among L17, IB15, IB16 and HB and then increased in FOH and 50%OH (Fig. 4 C). β -Farnesene was detected in 13 tissues but not in L7, and the content was significantly higher in the five flower tissues than in the nine leaf samples; for the latter, its content was the highest in L10, followed by a slight decreasing trend from L12 through L17. In addition, the levels of germacrene D were higher in HB, FOH and 50%OH than in the other tissues (S-Fig. 4). Of the nine leaf tissues, the germacrene D level gradually increased from L7 to L17.

Triterpenes

β -Amyrin and squalene were detected from 12 tissues (Fig. 4D). The levels of squalene were notably higher in L7, L10 and L11 than in the other six leaf tissues. In the five flower tissues, the squalene levels were higher in HB than in IB15 and IB16, and the levels of β -amyrin were higher in L15 and L17 than in the other tissues.

Artemisinin Accumulation Profile

The artemisinin content in 13 tissues was estimated using LC-ESI-MS analysis. The highest artemisinin level was observed in HB (Fig. 4 E). As reported previously in F2 progeny (Alejos-Gonzalez et al., 2011), the artemisinin content increased from L10 to L13 and was similar in L13, L14 and L15. In addition, the artemisinin contents in IB16 and FOH were close to those in L14 and L15. The highest artemisinin level was

approximately 0.03% (g/g, fresh weight, which is equivalent to 0.3% in dry weight) in HB of F3 plants.

Transcriptome Sequencing

Pyrosequencing of six different tissues generated 1,133,865 high-quality reads, including 277,706 from L7, 230,260 from L15, 270,435 from IB15, 132,229 from HB, 98,985 from FOH and 123,519 from 50%OH. All sequences were assembled to obtain 18,871 contigs. Approximately 95% of the contigs could be functionally annotated using sequence similarity analysis ($E\text{-value} \leq 1 \times 10^{-5}$) with the UniProt database (Magrane and UniProt-Consortium, 2011). For each contig, the reads per kilobase per million (RPKM) (Magrane and UniProt-Consortium, 2011) were calculated to indicate the levels of gene expression in six tissues. In addition, all contigs from the six tissues were used to develop an HCL Euclidean heatmap. The resulting heatmap (Fig. 5) showed that L7 and L15 were clustered together but differentially separated from FOH, HB and 50%OH. In addition, the 50%OH transcriptome was between those of HB and FOH, indicating a global transcriptomic shifting during reproductive tissue development.

Genes Involved in Artemisinin Biosynthesis

Five known pathway genes, namely, *ADS*, *AV1*, *CPR*, *DBR2* and *ALDH1* (Fig. 1), which were cloned from trichomes and other tissues (Bouwmeester et al., 1999; Chang et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2013; Covello et al., 2007; Mercke et al., 2000; Paddon et al., 2013; Ro et al., 2006; Teoh et al., 2009; Teoh et al., 2006; Xiang et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2010),

were identified in the 18,871 contigs. In addition, two new cDNAs reported to encode an alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH1) and a cytochrome b5 (CYB5) were recently cloned from *A. annua* (Paddon et al., 2013). Twenty-nine *ADH1* and 15 *CYB5* homolog contigs were identified from the sequences from the six tissues.

One contig was obtained for each of the *ADS*, *ALDH1* and *DBR2* sequences. The *ADS* cDNA sequence was obtained from four tissues, and its RPKM value was the highest in HB, followed by FOH, 50%OH and then IB15 (Fig. 6 A). Although the *ADS* cDNA could not be sequenced using the L7 and L15 samples, the RT-PCR results showed that it was expressed in these two and the seven other leaf tissues (L10-L14 and L16-17) (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). RT-PCR also demonstrated that the expression levels of *ADS* were higher in the five flower tissues than in the nine leaf tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). The *DBR2* cDNA sequence was obtained from the six tissues, and its RPKM value was the highest in L7, followed by L15 and HB, IB15, 50%OH and then FOH (Fig. 6 A). In contrast with the order of the RPKM values, RT-PCR analysis showed that the expression levels of *DBR2* were higher in the five flower tissues than in the nine leaf tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). The *ALDH1* cDNA sequence was obtained from four tissues; its RPKM value was the highest in HB, followed by 50%OH, FOH and then IB15 (Fig. 6 A). The RT-PCR results showed that *ALDH1* was expressed in all 14 tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6); its expression levels were relatively similar in the five flower tissues, L14, L15, L16 and L17 but higher in these tissues than in L13, L12 L11, L10 and L7.

Two contigs each were obtained for *CYP71AV1* and *CPR*. The *CYP71AV1* cDNA sequence was obtained from five tissues but not from L7. Sequence alignment showed that the two *CYP71AV1* contigs are identical to the reported sequence of *CYP71AV1* (Ro

et al., 2006; Teoh et al., 2006). Its RPKM value was the highest in 50%OH, followed by HB, IB15, FOH and then L15. The RT-PCR results showed that the expression levels of *CYP71AV1* in the five flower tissues were much higher than in the leaf tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6), which supported the order of RPKM values. Two *CPR* contigs, namely, *CPR1* and *CPR2*, were identified as two homologs by sequence alignment (Supplementary Results). The *CPR1* sequence was obtained from the six tissues, and its RPKM value was the highest in L7, followed by L15, 50%OH, FOH, IB15 and HB (Fig 6 A). RT-PCR analysis showed that all 14 tissues expressed *CPR1* at a relatively similar level (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). The *CPR2* sequence was obtained from four flower tissues but not L7 and L15 tissues, with the RPKM value of *CPR2* the highest in 50%OH, followed by FOH, HB and then IB15 (Fig. 6 A). RT-PCR analysis showed that *CPR2* was highly expressed in 50%OH, FOH, IB15 and HB but was barely detectable in leaf tissues (S-Fig. 7), supporting the order of its RPKM values.

In addition, two *FDS* contigs, *AaFDS1* and *AaFDS2*, were assembled from the sequences of the six tissues, and sequence alignment showed that these two contigs are two homologs (Supplementary Results). The RPKM value of *AaFDS1* was the highest in 50%OH, followed by HB, FOH, IB15, L15 and then L7, whereas the RPKM value of *AaFDS2* was the highest in 50%OH, followed by FOH, HB, L15, IB15 and then L7. RT-PCR analysis showed that *AaFDS2* was highly expressed in all 14 tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6).

Genes Involved in Non-amorphadiene Sesquiterpene and Triterpene Biosynthesis

Gene annotation revealed five homologs (Fig. 6 B) associated with non-amorphadiene sesquiterpene biosynthesis. Three contigs, *AaGAS*, *AaCPS* and *AaECS*, are homologs of reported germacrene A synthase, β -caryophyllene synthase and 8-epi-cedrol synthase genes, respectively. *AaGAS* sequences were obtained from 5 tissues; the highest RPKM values were in HB, followed by 50%OH, IB15, L7 and L15 (Fig. 6 B). RT-PCR showed that its expression was higher in the five flower tissues than in the nine leaf tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6), with its expression being variable in the latter. *AaCPS* sequences were obtained from five tissues but not from L15, and were assembled into two contigs. Sequence alignment identified the contigs as two fragments of a reported *AaCPS* (gb|AF472361.1). The RPKM value of *AaCPS* was the highest in HB, followed by 50%OH, FOH, B15 and L7; RT-PCR analysis showed that the expression levels of *AaCPS* were higher in the five flower tissues than in the nine leaf tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6), supporting the order of the RPKM values. An *AaECS* sequence was obtained from the six tissues, with its RPKM value being highest in L15, followed by 50%OH, IB15, FOH, L7 and HB. RT-PCR analysis showed that the expression levels of *AaECS* were higher in the nine leaf tissues than in the five flower tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). Two additional contigs were annotated as unknown sesquiterpene synthase (SQTS) genes: unknown *SQTS1* and 2, the sequences of which were obtained from the six tissues. Sequence alignment identified them as homologous to a reported terpene synthase cDNA (gb|JQ837261.1). Therefore, they belong to one gene, namely, unknown *SQTS*. Further sequence alignments showed that this unknown *SQTS* shares 72% and 74% identity to *AaECS* and *AaGAS* (Supplementary results), respectively. Its RPKM value was the highest in 50%OH, followed by HB, FOH, IB15, L15 and L7 (Fig. 6 B).

One contig for a squalene synthase (AaSQS) gene was assembled from the sequences of the six tissues, and its RPKM value was the highest in L7, followed by L15, 50%OH, HB, IB15 and FOH (Fig. 6 B). RT-PCR analysis showed its expression in all 14 tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6).

In addition, although the beta-farnesene synthase (BFS) sequence was not obtained from the six tissues, the RT-PCR results indicated that this gene was indeed expressed in all 14 tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). β -Amyrin synthase (AaBAS) is the first cyclase leading to triterpenes; although the AaBAS cDNA sequence could not be obtained from the sequences of the six tissues, RT-PCR analysis demonstrated its expression in all 14 tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6).

Genes Involved in Monoterpene Biosynthesis

One contig each for *A. annua* limonene synthase (AaLS), 1,8-cineole synthase (AaCIN) and β -pinene synthase (AaBPS) genes was identified among 18,871 contigs. The sequence of the AaLS cDNA was obtained from two tissues, and its RPKM value was higher in L7 than in L15 (Fig. 6 C). RT-PCR analysis showed that AaLS was expressed not only in L7 and L15 but also in the other 12 tissues (S-Fig. 5, S-Fig. 6). AaBPS was sequenced from three tissues, and its RPKM value was higher in IB15 and 50%OH than in L7 (Fig. 6 C). RT-PCR analysis showed that AaBPS was expressed in all 14 tissues, with higher levels in the five flower tissues than in the nine leaf tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). The sequence of AaCIN was obtained from five tissues, and its RPKM value was the highest in 50%OH, followed by HB, IB15, L7 and FOH (Fig. 6 C).

383

384 Five contigs for linalool synthase (*AaLAS*), namely, *AaLAS1*, *AaLAS2*, *AaLAS3*, *AaLAS4*
 385 and *AaLAS5*, were assembled from the sequences of the six tissues (Fig. 6 C). Sequence
 386 alignment showed that these five contigs constitute five homologs (Supplementary
 387 Results). The sequences of *AaLAS1* and *AaLAS2* were obtained from four tissues. The
 388 RPKM value of *AaLAS1* was the highest in 50%OH, followed by FOH, IB15 and HB,
 389 and that of *AaLAS2* was the highest in HB, followed by 50%OH, IB15 and then FOH.
 390 The sequence of *AaLAS3* was obtained from five tissues, with the highest RPKM value in
 391 L7, followed by L15, IB15, FOH and 50%OH. *AaLAS4* and *AaLAS5* sequences were
 392 obtained from the six tissues. The RPKM value of *AaLAS4* was the highest in L7,
 393 followed by L15, IB15, 50%OH, FOH and HB, and that of *AaLAS5* was the highest in
 394 50%OH, followed by FOH, HB, IB15, L15 and L7.

395

396 **Genes Involved in the MEP Pathway**

397

398 Six *DXS* contigs, *AaDXS1*, *AaDXS2*, *AaDXS3*, *AaDXS4*, *AaDXS5* and *AaDXS6*, were
 399 assembled from the sequences of the six tissues. Sequence alignment showed that the
 400 six contigs represent four homologs (Supplementary Results). The *AaDXS1*, -2 and -3
 401 contigs are three fragments of the same homolog; thus, *AaDXS1* was used to represent
 402 this homolog. The RPKM value of *AaDXS1* was the highest in 50%OH, followed by
 403 FOH, IB15, HB, L7 and L15 (S-Fig. 8 A). RT-PCR analysis showed that *AaDXS1* was
 404 expressed in all 14 tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). The RPKM value of *AaDXS4* was
 405 the highest in 50%OH, followed by IB15, L15 and HB, FOH and L7, and that of *AaDXS5*
 406 was the highest in HB, followed by FOH, L15, 50%OH, IB15 and L7. The cDNA

sequences of *AaDXS6* were obtained from three tissues, with a higher RPKM value in L7 than in IB15 and 50%OH.

Two contigs each for *DXR* (*AaDXR1* and *AaDXR2*) and *HDR* (*AaHDR1* and *AaHDR2*) were assembled based on the sequences from the six tissues. Sequence alignment showed that the two *DXR* contigs are homologs and that the two *HDR* contigs are also homologs (Supplementary Results). The RPKM value of *AaDXR1* was the highest in L7, followed by HB, IB15, L15, 50%OH and FOH (S-Fig. 8 A and B). RT-PCR analysis showed that *AaDXR1* was expressed at a similar level in all 14 tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). The RPKM value of *AaDXR2* was the highest in 50%OH, followed by IB15, L15, L7, HB and FOH. The RPKM value of *AaHDR1* was the highest in FOH, followed by 50%OH, L7, IB15, HB and L15, and RT-PCR analysis showed its expression in all 14 tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). The RPKM value of *AaHDR2* was the highest in 50%OH, followed by IB15, FOH, L15, HB and L7.

One contig each for *MCT*, *CMK*, *MDS* and *HDS* was obtained from the sequences of the six tissues, namely, *AaMCT*, *AaCMK*, *AaMDS* and *AaHDS*, respectively (S-Fig. 8 B). The RPKM value of *AaMCT* was the highest in 50%OH, followed by FOH, L15, L7, HB and IB15, that of *AaCMK* was the highest in FOH, followed by 50%OH, IB15, HB, L7 and L15, that of *AaMDS* was the highest in L7, followed by IB15, FOH, L15 and HB, and that of *AaHDS* was the highest in L7, followed by L15, HB, FOH, 50%OH and IB15.

Two contigs for *IPPI*, *AaIPPI1* and *AaIPPI2*, were assembled from the sequences of the six tissues (S-Fig. 8 B). Sequence alignment showed that the two contigs are two

homologs (Supplementary Results). The RPKM value of *AaIPPI1* was the highest in 50%OH, followed by HB, OF, IB15, L15 and L7, and RT-PCR analysis showed that *AaIPPI1* was expressed at a similar level in all 14 tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). The RPKM value of *AaIPPI2* was the highest in HB, followed by L7, IB15, FOH, L17 and 50%OH.

Genes Involved in the MVA Pathway

Four *AACT* contigs, *AaAACT1*, *AaAACT2*, *AaAACT3* and *AaAACT4*, were assembled from the sequences of the six tissues (S-Fig. 9 A). Sequence alignment showed that these four contigs are four homologs (Supplementary results). The RPKM value of *AaAACT1* was the highest in FOH, followed by L7, L17, HB and IB15, that of *AaAACT2* was the highest in HB, followed by 50%OH, L15, L7, FOH and IB15, and that of *AaAACT3* was the highest in HB, followed by 50%OH, IB15, L15, L7 and FOH, with the values for the last three tissues being similar. The RPKM value of *AaAACT4* was the highest in L7, followed by IB15, L15, 50%OH, FOH and HB.

Four *HMGS* contigs, *AaHMGS1*, *AaHMGS2*, *AaHMGS3* and *AaHMGS4*, were assembled from the sequences of the six tissues, and these four contigs represent two different homologs (Supplementary Results). As *AaHMGS1* and *AaHMGS3* are two fragments of the same homolog, *AaHMGS1* was used to represent this homolog. The RPKM value of *AaHMGS1* was the highest in 50%OH, followed by HB, L7, FOH and IB15 (S-Fig. 9 A). Similarly, as *AaHMGS2* and *AaHMGS4* are two fragments of the same homolog,

AaHMGS2 was used to represent this homolog. The RPKM value of *AaHMGS2* was the highest in IB15, followed by L7, HB, FOH and 50%OH (S-Fig. 9 A).

Three *HMGR* contigs, *AaHMGR1*, *AaHMGR2* and *AaHMGR3*, were assembled from the sequences of the six tissues, and these three contigs constitute three homologs (Supplementary Results). The RPKM value of *AaHMGR1* was the highest in HB, followed by IB15, 50%OH, L15, FOH and L7 (S-Fig. 9 B). RT-PCR analysis showed higher expression levels in the five flower tissues than in the nine leaf tissues (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6), supporting the expression pattern indicated by the RPKM values. The RPKM value of *AaHMGR2* was the highest in HB, 50%OH, FOH, IB15, L7 and L15, and that of *AaHMGR3* was the highest in HB, 50%OH, FOH, IB15, FOH and L7.

Two *PMK* contigs (*AaPMK1* and *AaPMK2*) and one contig each for *AaMVK* and *AaMPDC* were assembled from the sequences of the six tissues (S-Fig. 9 B). Sequence alignment showed that the *AaPMK1* and *AaPMK2* contigs are two fragments of the same *PMK* homolog, which is thus described as *AaPMK*. The RPKM value of *AaPMK* was the highest in HB, followed by 50%OH, FOH, L7, L15 and IB15 (S-Fig. 9 B). The RPKM value of *AaMVK* was the highest in 50%OH, followed by FOH, IB15, HB, L15 and L7 and that of *AaMPDC* was the highest in 50%OH, followed by HB, L7, IB15, L15 and FOH.

Integration of Gene Expression Levels and Terpenoid Profiles

Pearson partial correlation analysis resulted in significant correlation networks ($r > 0.9$ or $r < -0.9$, $p < 0.05$) for 34 (out of 47) genes and 22 (out of 51) terpenoid metabolites (Fig. 7) in L7, L15, IB15, HB, FOH and 50%OH. The correlation networks were characterized by two groups, a big large and a small one, with gene-to-gene RPKM value profiles and RPKM value-to-metabolite accumulation patterns being either positively or negatively correlated in the six tissues. The large network showed positive or negative RPKM value correlations for 33 genes (nine MVA, six MEP, six artemisinin, six monoterpene and two non-amorphadiene pathway genes as well as two *AaFDS*, one *AaIPPI* and one triterpene genes). In addition, the large network was characterized by four patterns, each with one, one, 25 and six genes. For the 25 genes, 23 were positively correlated with each other, whereas two MVA pathway genes, *AaMVK* and *AaAACT4*, were negatively correlated with the others. The expression levels of six other genes were positively correlated each other, and *AaHDR1* and *DBR2* were separated from the other genes by metabolites. It was interesting that *AaHMGR1* formed a single group. The networks also showed positive correlations between the RPKM values of certain genes and the metabolite accumulation patterns. The 22 terpenoids included nine monoterpene, eight non-amorphadiene, three triterpene and two amorphadiene metabolites. *AaFDS2* positively correlated with four sesquiterpenes, β -farnesene, caryophyllene, humulene and cis-muurolo-4(14), 5-diene. The profile of artemisinic acid (arteannuic acid) was closely and positively correlated to *ADS* and *ALDH1*, and *unknown-SQTS* (1 and 2) was positively correlated with spiro[5.5]undec-2-ene ($C_{15}H_{24}$). Of five *AaLAS* homologs, only *AaLAS5* was positively correlated with linalool. In addition, negative correlations between genes and metabolites were found in the large network; for example, *CPR1* was negatively correlated with arteannuin b.

Effects of Overexpression and Down-regulation of *ADS* on Artemisinin, Artemisinic Acid and Arteannuin b Contents

One binary construct (Fig. 8 A) was developed to overexpress *ADS*. Multiple transgenic lines were obtained via *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation of F6 homozygous plants (Fig. 8 B), and five T0 lines (*ADS*-GFP-1, -2, -3, -4 and -8) were selected to examine the effects of *ADS* overexpression on artemisinin synthesis. RT-PCR showed that the expression levels of *ADS* were increased in these five lines (Fig. 8 C), and artemisinin levels were significantly increased in leaf samples from three of the lines (Fig. 8 E and F). In addition, artemisinic acid and arteannuin b productions were significantly increased in two lines (Fig. 9 A).

In addition, one *ADS* RNAi construct (Fig. 8 A) developed to down-regulate gene expression was introduced into F6 progeny plants to obtain multiple transgenic RNAi lines (Fig. 8 B). Three lines (*ADS*-RNAi-2, -7 and -13) were selected for metabolic characterization. The expression levels of *ADS* were significantly reduced in all three lines (Fig. 8 D) as were the contents of artemisinin (Fig. 8 E and F), artemisinic acid and arteannuin b (Fig. 9 A).

Effects of Overexpression and Down-regulation of *ADS* on Non-amorphadiene Sesquiterpene and Metabolite Profiles

Six non-amorphadiene sesquiterpenes in transgenic vs. wild-type plants were detected by GC-MS analysis, and their contents were found to be differentially altered by *ADS*

over-expression and RNAi. β -Farnesene, caryophyllene and copaene were apparently reduced in the three selected overexpressing plants (Fig. 9 B). In the three selected RNAi plants, caryophyllene and copaene were apparently increased, whereas the content of β -farnesene was decreased.

In addition, 76 other volatile metabolites (of the 88 in Supplementary table 2) were also identified in transgenic vs. wild-type plants by GC-MS analysis. A PCA generated using these 76 metabolites and the eight sesquiterpene metabolites described above showed that *ADS* overexpression and RNAi altered genome-wide metabolite profiles (Fig. 9 C). Metabolite profiles from three overexpressing, two wild-type and three RNAi lines were separately grouped together. The metabolite profiles of the wild-type plants were ordinally located in the middle of the overexpressing and RNAi lines. These results indicated that *ADS* overexpression and RNAi altered non-polar metabolite profiles in opposite manners.

Discussion

In our investigation, both genome-wide terpene profiling and analyses of individual metabolites revealed a spatial and tissue-specificity trend of total volatile and terpene scenarios in self-pollinating *A. annua*. PCA and clustering analyses showed a clear ordinate separation between leaf and flower samples (Figs. 2 and 3), and the data indicated that leaf position and flowering stage affect these metabolite profiles. In addition, the number and molecular diversity of terpenes increased from lower to higher leaf positions to flower tissues (S-Table 4). These data support a general theory that

volatile production is associated with tissue and development (Dudareva et al., 2013). In addition, metabolite profiles varied among the five flower tissues. An ordinate separation occurred between 50%OH and FOH or HB, and this phenomenon most likely results from the shift of metabolite biosynthesis during the transition from HB formation to blooming. This type of metabolic shift has been observed in the field, with recommendations for harvesting plants during the flowering stage to obtain a better yield of artemisinin and other essential oil compositions (Chalchat et al., 1994; Ferreira et al., 1995a; Ferreira et al., 1995b). IB15 and IB16 were clustered together (Fig. 3), most likely due to their similarity in tissue compositions, including inflorescence heads and branch parts. Variation was also observed in the same type of tissues. For example, the three biological samples of FOH were slightly separated from each other in the PCA analysis. This separation most likely results from the effects of the uneven opening status of ray and disc flowers in head inflorescences; when the head inflorescences were fully opened, the opening stages of ray and disc flowers on the heads varied per head and among heads.

Pyrosequencing of six cDNA libraries provided new information for enhancing the understanding of artemisinin biosynthesis. The first committed step toward artemisinin was unknown until ADS protein isolation (Bouwmeester et al., 1999) and cloning and functional characterization of its cDNA (Chang et al., 2000; Mercke et al., 2000; Wallaart et al., 2001). Trichomes were then targeted for EST generation and pyrosequencing (Covello et al., 2007; Graham et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2009). These previous sequencing investigations provided an appropriate platform for cloning *CYP71AV1*, *CPR*, *DBR2* and *ALDH1*, which were sequentially demonstrated to catalyze the steps from amorpha-4,11-diene to artemisinic acid and dihydroartemisinic acid *in vitro* (Ro et al., 2006; Teoh et al., 2009; Teoh et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2008).

Recently, two new genes, namely, *ADH1* and *CYB5*, were cloned and integrated into engineered yeasts to significantly scale up artemisinic acid production (Paddon et al., 2013). Although such progress has greatly enhanced the understanding of artemisinin biosynthesis, it has been highly challenging to obtain transgenic *A. annua* plants that can be applied for artemisinin production. One remaining question is whether other genes are involved in this pathway. In the present work, two *CPR* (*CPR1* and *CPR2*) homologs were obtained from sequence assembly. CYP71AV1 and CPR have been demonstrated to form redox partners in the conversion of amorpha-4, 11-diene to artemisinic acid (Paddon et al., 2013; Ro et al., 2006; Teoh et al., 2006). The *CPR1* sequence was obtained from six tissues, whereas the *CPR2* sequence was identified from four flower tissues (Fig. 6A). RT-PCR also demonstrated the strong expression of *CPR2* in flower tissues (S-Fig. 7). It is noteworthy that the contents of artemisinic acid are higher in flower tissues than in leaves (Fig. 4 B), and the results suggest that *CPR2* is likely involved in the formation of potential redox complexes associated with artemisinic acid in flower tissues. In addition, *CYB5* has been recently reported to partner with CYP71AV1 and CPR (Paddon et al., 2013). We identified 15 *CYB5* homolog contigs based on our sequencing (data not shown), which will be pursued in future experiments. Taken together, our sequence data suggest that additional genes are involved in the biosynthesis of artemisinin.

The genome-wide terpene scenario is informative for understanding the competitive pathways that affect artemisinin production in plants. Although numerous sesquiterpenes and monoterpenes have been detected from tissues of heterozygous *A. annua* plants grown under different field conditions (Ahmad and Misra, 1994; Bilia et al., 2014; Goel et al., 2007; Holm et al., 1997; Woerdenbag et al., 1994; Woerdenbag et al., 1993), no genome-wide terpene landscapes for a given growth environment have been

characterized in efforts to understand pathway networks that compete with artemisinin production. In our investigation, artemisinin and 21 other sesquiterpenes (Table 2 and S-Fig. 3) were identified from different tissues. Of them, arteannuin b, artemisinin, caryophyllene, germacrene D and α -copaene were detected in 14 analyzed tissues (Table 2), artemisinic acid and β -farnesene were detected in 13 tissues, and the other 15 sesquiterpenes were differentially accumulated in 14 tissues. All of these sesquiterpenes are synthesized from farnesyl diphosphate FPP (Fig. 1), which is also the substrate of triterpenes; therefore, the availability of FPP is the limiting factor for artemisinin production. ADS cyclizes FPP to amorphaadiene, which is the first step toward artemisinic acid, arteannuin b and artemisinin. The sequence assembly obtained one *ADS* contig, and the *ADS* RPKM values in HB, 50%OH, FOH and IB15 tissues were approximately 324, 160, 176 and 89, respectively. Additionally, *AsGAS*, *AaCPS*, *AaECS* and an unknown *SQTS* were identified as controlling steps toward non-amorphaadiene metabolites. The summed *AsGAS*, *AaCPS*, *AaECS* and unknown *SQTS* RPKM values were approximately 518, 691, 357 and 91 in HB, 50%OH, FOH and IB15, respectively. Moreover, the metabolite profiles indicate the existence of additional sesquiterpene synthase genes involve in the formation of 19 other non-amorphaadiene sesquiterpenes. Accordingly, these data indicate that the transcriptional activity of *ADS* essentially controls the production of artemisinin, a hypothesis that was supported by *ADS* overexpression and RNAi in F6 plants. Indeed, the overexpression of *ADS* increased the contents of artemisinin, artemisinic acid and arteannuin b in transgenic lines (Fig. 8 E and F) but decreased the levels of caryophyllene, germacrene D, copaene and β -farnesene. In contrast, the down-regulation of *ADS* by RNAi decreased the contents of artemisinin, artemisinic acid and arteannuin b but increased the contents of caryophyllene and copaene (Fig. 8 E and F).

628

629 The genome-wide gene-to-terpene scenarios demonstrate the association of terpenoid
630 formation with gene expression during plant development. First, the gene expression
631 profiles are associated with artemisinin production during plant development.
632 Numerous reports have shown that artemisinin accumulation reaches a peak value prior
633 to the blooming stage (Chan et al., 1995; Ferreira, 2008; Liersch et al., 1986).
634 Unfortunately, the mechanism underlying this phenomenon remains unclear. In our
635 investigation, 14 tissues associated with different development stages were collected to
636 analyze artemisinin production and gene expression. The peak value of artemisinin in
637 HB (Fig. 4 E) was associated with the highest RPKM values for *ADS* and *ALDH1* (Fig. 6
638 A), and the RPKM values for *CYP71AV1* and *DBR2* in HB were the second highest
639 among the six sequenced tissues (Fig. 6 A). In addition to HB, other flower tissues
640 produced higher levels of artemisinic acids and artemisinin than did leaves. This
641 phenotype also resulted from the expression of *ADS*, *CYP71AV1*, *DBR2*, *ALDH1* and
642 *CPR*. The RPKM values for *ADS*, *CYP71AV1*, *ALDH1* and two *CPR* contigs were
643 higher in flowering tissues than in leaves (Fig. 6 A). RT-PCR data also supported this
644 result (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). In addition, other individual sesquiterpenes were found to
645 be associated with plant development (Tables 1 and 2, S-Table 4). The diversity of
646 sesquiterpene molecules shows an apparent increasing trend from lower leaf positions to
647 flowers (S-Table 4). The number of detected sesquiterpenes was greater in flowering
648 tissues than in leaves (S-Table 4), and the most diverse sesquiterpene species were
649 detected in HB and FOH tissues. This metabolic phenomenon was closely associated
650 with gene expression. For example, the RPKM values of *AaGAS*, *AaCPS* and the
651 unknown *SQTS* were higher in flower tissues than in leaves (Fig. 6 B), and RT-PCR
652 supported this result (S-Fig. 5 and S-Fig. 6). Second, an integration analysis showed
653 significant correlations of the expression levels of the genes themselves and the

accumulation patterns of metabolites in the six tissues. The large network showed significant expression correlations of 34 genes in the six tissues (Fig. 7). Of these, twenty-three genes were positively correlated each other, and six other genes were positively correlated each other (Fig. 7). These correlations indicate that their expression profiles are simultaneously associated with six tissues. In addition, Pearson partial analysis significantly correlated twenty-two terpenoids from the six tissues in the networks. More importantly, the networks correlated gene expression levels with the formation certain metabolites in the six tissues. For example, *AaFDS2* was significantly correlated with β -farnesene, caryophyllene, humulene and cis-muurola-4(14),5-diene in these tissues. Third, based on this integration, we propose that development-associated terpene biosynthesis scenarios are closely related to glandular trichome formation on leaves and flowers. We previously estimated that the density of trichomes on leaf surfaces increased from L1 through 17 in F2 plants (Alejos-Gonzalez et al., 2011). The density of glandular trichomes was also higher on the surfaces of head inflorescence and flowers than on the surfaces of leaves, and this developmental feature is inherited by the progeny. We observed that glandular trichomes were the main site of the formation of essential oil drops that are released into the environment (S-Fig. 4 B). Essential oil drops are mainly composed of volatile monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes. Glandular trichomes are main site of artemisinin biosynthesis (Covello et al., 2007; Duke and Paul, 1993; Ferreira and Janick, 1995; Lommen et al., 2005). These data suggest the significance of glandular trichomes involved in the formation of terpenes in self-pollinated *A. annua*. In the immediate future, we will take advantage of these self-pollinated plants and gene-to-metabolite scenarios to focus on the manipulation of glandular trichome development and terpene biosynthesis.

Materials and Methods

Plant Growth

We previously reported the self-pollinating *A. annua* plants used in this study, which form an appropriate platform for understanding the biosynthesis of artemisinin and other terpenes (Alejos-Gonzalez et al., 2011). Seeds of F3 self-pollination progeny were used to grow plants in this investigation (Supplementary Materials and Methods).

Collection of Plant Materials

Samples were collected from 65- and 70-day old F3 progeny of self-pollinating plants grown under a short photoperiod (9/15 hrs). Tissue selection was based on our previous characterization of trichomes and artemisinin profiles (Alejos-Gonzalez et al., 2011). In brief, 65-day old plants were starting to develop first and second raceme inflorescences, whereas the 70-day old plants had flowered for approximately 5 days. The leaf samples were collected from the 7th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, 15th, 16th and 17th nodes of the 65-day old plants. The flowering samples were collected from the inflorescence branches (including branch and head inflorescence), fully open head inflorescence and head inflorescence buds of the 70-day old plants. All sampling details are summarized in S-Table 1. After being excised from the plants, the tissues were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and then stored at -80°C for 454 sequencing and metabolic profiling.

Extraction of Non-polar Metabolites

Hexane was used to extract non-polar metabolites from 14 different tissues (S-Table 1). Frozen samples were ground into fine powder in liquid nitrogen. One hundred milligrams of powder from each sample was suspended in 0.5 ml of LS-MS grade hexane (100%) in a 2 ml Eppendorf tube. The samples were vigorously vortexed for 1 min and then sonicated for 10 min. The tubes were centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 5 min, and the resulting supernatants were pipetted into new 2 ml tubes. The remaining pellet in each tube was extracted with a second 0.5 ml aliquot of hexane. The extraction steps were identical to those steps used in the first extraction. The two hexane supernatants were pooled together to obtain 1 ml of extract (in a 1.5 ml tube), followed by an additional centrifugation step at 13,000 rpm for 5 min. The resulting clean supernatant was pipetted into a new 1.5 ml tube. Two hundred microliters of hexane extract was pipetted into a 400 μ l insert contained in 2 ml vials for GC-MS analysis. Three biological replicates were performed for each tissue position, and three technical replicates were carried out for each biological replicate.

GC-MS analysis

Metabolite analysis was performed using a gas chromatograph 6890 coupled with 5975C MSD (Agilent Technologies, USA). An RTX-5 capillary column (30 m $\times$ 0.25 mm $\times$ 0.25 μ m) was used to separate metabolites. The splitless mode was used in the inlet. The injection temperature was set at 250°C. Two gradient temperature programs (TPs) of the column oven were optimized for metabolite analysis. The first (TP-1) was initially set at 80°C for 2 min, then ramped to 260°C at a constant rate of 10°C/min, and held at 260°C for 25 min. The second (TP-2) was initially set at 60°C and then ramped to 260°C at a constant rate of 10°C/min, and held at 260°C for 25 min. Pure helium was

used as the carrier gas, with a flow rate of 1 ml/min. A positive electron impact ion source (70 eV) was used to ionize compounds, and mass fragments were scanned in the range of 40-800 (m/z), with a 4 min of solvent delay. Total ion chromatographs were recorded for all biological and technical replicates of the 14 tissues. All metabolite peaks were recorded and stored in the format of Chemstation data files. A mixture of even-numbered chain n-alkenes (C10–C40) was purchased from Restek (Florida, USA, cat#31266), and these standards were used to estimate the retention index (RI) values, which were used to deconvolute the metabolite peaks.

Metabolite Peak Deconvolution and Statistical Analysis

Most of the peaks detected by GC-MS analysis were deconvoluted using Agilent MassHunter Mass Profiler (MHMP) and Mass Profiler Professional (MPP) software. The MHMP software was developed to operate using compound data from different samples in “.cef” (compound exchange file) format files. All compound data were produced by MassHunter Qualitative Analysis software, and all data underwent both qualitative and quantitative evaluations. Two steps were performed to identify the metabolites. First, the ChemiStation mass data were translated into MassHunter data files using Agilent MassHunter GC/MS Translator software (version B.05.02). Second, unknown peaks were deconvoluted by mass analysis using the Mass Hunter Qualitative Analysis software (Version B.06.00). Compound searches and identification in the NIST 11 library were also completed using the same software. After this devolution, each deconvoluted metabolite peak data was exported as a “.cef” file.

All deconvoluted metabolites were used as the data matrix for PCA, multivariate analysis and other statistical analyses. The “.cef” data files of the metabolites were imported into

MPP software (version B.12.5, Agilent), which was developed by Agilent for PCA, multivariate analysis, heat map and other statistical analyses (included in the software). For each metabolite, the presence or absence as well as its abundance in tissues were used to generate plots and heatmaps using MPP software. This software has been reported to be effective for characterizing metabolic profiles (Bannur et al., 2014; Chan et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2013) and can analyze the absolute abundance and retention time, align data, normalize all data and set up the baseline to the median of all sample data. In brief, the absolute abundance and retention time tolerance (Barnes et al., 2013) across the sample sets were filtered using a minimum of 5000 counts and 0.05 min. Then, all the data were aligned, normalized and baselined to the median level of all samples for each experiment. The fold changes obtained for all metabolites were log 2 values obtained from the transformation of original accounts from the mean value for each group compared with the minimum peak abundance of each identified compound. Hierarchical clustering (condition tree), coupled with the heat map and PCA, were generated to demonstrate the relationships among the samples with regard to metabolite profiles.

HPLC-MS Analysis of Artemisinin

To estimate artemisinin levels using HPLC-MS analysis on a 2010 eV LC/UV/ESI/MS instrument (Shimadzu), the samples (S-Table 1) were analyzed following our previously reported protocol (Alejos-Gonzalez et al., 2013; Alejos-Gonzalez et al., 2011). The steps and methods are included in Supplementary Materials and Methods.

RNA Isolation, cDNA Library Construction and 454 Sequencing

Total RNA was isolated from 14 different tissues (S-Table 1) using an RNeasy Midi Kit (Qiagen) (<http://www.qiagen.com/>). One gram of sample was homogenized into fine powder in liquid nitrogen. The RNA extraction followed the manufacturer's protocol. RNA samples were treated with RNase-free DNase I (Promega, USA) to eliminate any genomic DNA contamination. Each step followed the manufacturer's protocol. Messenger RNA (mRNA) was purified from total RNA samples using an Oligotex mRNA Mini Kit (Qiagen, catalog#: 70022). Each step followed the protocol from Qiagen.

The synthesis, amplification and normalization of cDNA were completed using three different kits. Each step of the experiments followed the manufacturers' protocols. The SMART cDNA synthesis protocol (Clontech, USA) was employed to prepare the construction of the *A. annua* cDNA library. Five micrograms of mRNA purified as described above was used as the template to synthesize the first-strand cDNA using the Advantage-2 PCR kit (Clontech, USA), following the manufacturer's protocol. Based on the instructions, PCR was optimized at 15 cycles to amplify double-stranded cDNA, which was then purified using a Purelink[®] PCR Purification Kit (Invitrogen, USA). The purified double-stranded cDNA samples were normalized using a cDNA normalization kit (catalog #: NK003, Evrogen JSC, 16/10 Miklukho-Maklaya str., Moscow, Russia) (<http://www.evrogen.com/>).

Sequencing was completed using a 454 GS FLX Titanium Sequencer at the Genomic Sciences Laboratory at North Carolina State University (<http://research.ncsu.edu/gsl/>). All cDNA samples were processed by exactly following the Roche's rapid library preparation kit instructions (Roche, IN, USA). Six cDNA libraries were run on one lane on the FLX Titanium platform following the manufacturer's protocol.

Transcript Assembly and Annotation

Raw sequence data were processed by trimming adaptor sequences and removing low-quality or empty reads. The clean reads obtained from all the samples were assembled and clustered using TIGR Gene Indices clustering tools software (Pertea et al., 2003). The resulting contigs were functionally annotated by searching the UniProt database (Magrane and UniProt-Consortium, 2011) using the standalone BLASTX program (Altschul et al., 1997) with an E-value $\leq 1 \times 10^{-5}$.

Estimation of Gene Expression Levels Using Transcriptomes

The level of gene expression in each sample was estimated by the number of reads that were assembled into a contig. The expression value was normalized for the length of the contig and for the total number of reads from a cDNA library by calculating RPKM (reads per kilobase per million). The gene expression data were then used for a hierarchical clustering analysis of the samples and contigs using the TM4 MeV software package (Saeed et al., 2003). The Euclidean metric was used as the distance measure.

823

824 **Integration of Gene Expression and Terpenoid Molecule Profiles**

825

826 Correlation between the expression levels of 47 genes and the profiles of 51 terpenoids in
827 L7, L15, IB15, HB, FOH and 50%OH were carried out using the program R 2.10.1. For
828 the unknown *SQTS*, two contigs (1 and 2) were used to test whether they could be
829 integrated consistently. RPKM values for genes and the peak values of metabolites
830 were used as a matrix for Pearson partial correlation analysis. The resulting correlation
831 networks were obtained and visualized using Cytoscape software (Cytoscape 2.6.3)
832 (Smoot et al., 2011).

833

834 **Semi-quantitative RT-PCR**

835

836 Semi-quantitative RT-PCR was performed to characterize the expression profiles of 19
837 genes. The methods are included in Supplementary Materials and Methods.

838

839 **Cloning of *ADS*, Genetic Transformation and Metabolite Analysis**

840

841 *ADS* cDNA was cloned from the leaves of F6 progeny plants. Binary vectors for *ADS*
842 overexpression and RNAi were constructed to understand *ADS*'s involvement in the
843 biosynthesis of artemisinin *in planta*. The gene cloning, genetic transformation and
844 sample collection methods are included in Supplementary Materials and Methods.

GC-MS based profiling using TP-1, metabolite annotation and PCA analysis was as described above.

The methods and procedures are included in Supplementary Materials and Methods.

Student's T Test

Student's test (P values < 0.05) was used to evaluate the statistical significance of artemisinin and selected terpenes in the samples.

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Supplementary Results (9 figures, 4 tables and sequence alignments)

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Figure legends

Figure 1. The compartmented global MVA and MEP pathways toward terpene biosynthesis in *Artemisia annua*.

The following enzymes are involved in the MVA pathway: AACT, acetoacetyl-CoA thiolase; HMGS, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A synthase; HMGR, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase; MK, mevalonate kinase (MVK); PMK, 5-phosphatemevalonate kinase; MPDC, mevalonate-5-phosphate decarboxylase; IPPI, isopentenyl pyrophosphate isomerase. The following enzymes are involved in the MEP pathway: DXS, 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase; DXR, 1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductase; MCT, 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol-4-phosphate cytidyltransferase; CMK, cytidyl (4-diphospho)-2-C-methyl-D-erythritol kinase; MDS, 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol-2,4-cyclodiphosphate synthase (MCS); HDS, 1-hydroxyl-2-methyl-2-(E)-butenyl-diphosphate synthase; HDR, 4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl diphosphate reductase; IPPI, isopentenyl pyrophosphate isomerase. The following enzymes are involved in the pathways toward monoterpene and diterpene formation: LAS, linalool synthase; LS, limonene synthase; CIN, cineole synthase; BPS, beta-pinene synthase; GGPPS, geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate synthase. The following enzymes are involved in the artemisinin biosynthetic pathway: FDS, farnesyl diphosphate; ADS, amorpha-4,11-diene synthase; CPR, cytochrome P450 reductase; CYP71AV1, cytochrome P450 monooxygenase; DBR2, artemisinic aldehyde Δ -11(13) double bond reductase; ALDH1, aldehyde dehydrogenase 1; CYB5 and ADH1, cytochrome b5 monooxygenase and alcohol dehydrogenase (however, the steps toward artemisinic acid have not been clearly demonstrated). The following enzymes are involved in the biosynthetic pathways toward other sesquiterpenes and triterpenes: BFS,

beta-farnesene synthase; CPS, beta-caryophyllene synthase; GAS, germacrene A synthase; ECS, 8-epi-cedrol synthase; SQS, squalene synthase; BAS, beta-amyrin synthase. Question marks indicate that these steps toward artemisinin production are unclear.

Figure 2. Principle component analysis for metabolites from fourteen tissues. Eighty-seven metabolites (S-Table 2) identified by GC-MS analysis and their abundance were used as the data matrix for PCA. Sample abbreviations: L7-L17, the 7th to 17th leaves; IB15 and IB16, the inflorescence branches at the 15th and 16th nodes; 50%OH: 50% full open and 50% head inflorescence buds; HB: head inflorescence buds; FOH: fully open head inflorescence.

Figure 3. A heat map coupled with clustering analysis for eighty-seven metabolites displaying differential profiles in fourteen tissues. Eighty-seven metabolites identified by GC-MS and their abundance were used as the data matrix for heat map and clustering analysis. Sample abbreviations: L7-L17, the 7th to 17th leaves; IB15 and IB16, the inflorescence branches at the 15th and 16th nodes; 50%OH, 50% full open and 50% head inflorescence buds; HB, head inflorescence buds; FOH, fully open head inflorescence. “*”: monoterpenes; “**”: sesquiterpenes; “***”: triterpenes.

Figure 4. Accumulation patterns of artemisinin and of eight other terpenes in different tissues. The artemisinin contents were estimated using a standard curve established with an authentic artemisinin standard. The levels of eight other terpenes were estimated either using their standard curve or using an equivalent value calculated by an

equivalent terpene standard curve. A, contents of 1,8-cineole and β -pinene; B, contents of artemisinic acid and arteannuin B; C, contents of β -copaene, caryophyllene and β -farnesene; D, contents of squalene and β -amyrin; and E, artemisinin content patterns. Sample abbreviations: L7-L17, the 7th to 17th leaves; IB15 and IB16, the inflorescence branches at the 15th and 16th nodes; 50%OH, 50% full open and 50% head inflorescence buds; HB, head inflorescence buds; FOH, fully open head inflorescence.

Figure 5. An HCL Euclidean heat map showing genome-wide gene expression differentiation among two positional groups of leaves (L7 and L15, the 7th and 15th leaves), one positional group of inflorescence branches (IB15, inflorescence branch at the 15th node), full open head inflorescence (FOH), head inflorescence buds (HB) and 50% full open and 50% head inflorescence buds (50%OH).

Figure 6. Reads per kilobase per millions (RPKM) of 454 sequencing for genes involved in the biosynthesis of artemisinin and other terpenes in six different tissues. The y-axis values are expressed using a logarithmic scale. The numbers labeled on the top of each bar are true RPKM values. A, two farnesyl diphosphate synthase (*FDS*) genes and seven genes involved in artemisinin biosynthesis (abbreviations: *ADS*, amorpho-4, 11-diene synthase; *CPR*, cytochrome P450 reductase; *CYP71AV1*, cytochrome P450 monooxygenase; *DBR2*, artemisinic aldehyde Δ 11(13) reductase; *ALDH1*, aldehyde dehydrogenase 1). B, Four genes involved in other sesquiterpene and triterpene biosynthesis (abbreviations: “Aa” prefix in each gene, *A. annua*; *AaCPS*, beta-caryophyllene synthase; *AaGAS*, germacrene A synthase; *AaECS*, 8-epi-cedrol synthase; Unknown sesquiterpene synthase (SQTS); *AaSQS*, squalene synthase). C, Four genes involved in monoterpene biosynthesis (abbreviations: *AaLAS*, linalool

synthase; *AaLS*, limonene synthase; *AaCIN*, cineole synthase; *AaBPS*, beta-pinene synthase). Sample abbreviations: L7 and L15, the 7th and 15th leaves; IB15, inflorescence branch at the 15th node; FOH, full open head inflorescence; HB, head inflorescence buds; 50%OH, 50% full open and 50% head inflorescence buds.

Figure 7. A large and a small significant correlation networks generated by the integration of expression levels (RKPM values) of 34 genes and the accumulation levels of 22 terpenoids using Pearson partial correlation analysis ($r > 0.9$ or $r < -0.9$, $p < 0.05$).

Abbreviations, Cyclo-H3M6(M): cyclohexene, 3-methyl-6-(1-methylethylidene)-; Cyclo-1M4M(M): cyclohexanol, 1-methyl-4-(1-methylethenyl)-; B[3.1.0]H4M1M(M): bicyclo[3.1.0]hexan-3-ol, 4-methylene-1-(1-methylethyl)-, (1. α ., 3. α ., 5. α .); Spiro[5.5]3TM(S): spiro[5.5]undec-2-ene, 3,7,7-trimethyl-11-methylene-, (-)-; CM-4(14),5-D(S): cis-muurola-4(14),5-diene; TriDol (M): tricyclo[4.2.1.1(2,5)]decan-9-ol.

Figure 8. Effects of the overexpression and down-regulation of *ADS* on artemisinin levels in leaves at positions 7 and 8. A, cassettes for the overexpression and RNAi of *ADS*; B, transgenic vs. WT plants; C, RT-PCR showing the overexpression of *ADS* in 4 transgenic lines; D, RT-PCR showing *ADS* downregulation in 3 transgenic lines; E, selective ion chromatographs of artemisinin (indicated by an arrow) showing a reduction in one *ADS* RNAi transgenic line and an increase in one overexpressing line compared to WT plants; F, significant increase and decrease of artemisinin in overexpressing and RNAi transgenic plants, respectively. Bars labeled with different lowercase letters (a, b, c, d, or e) in C, D and E indicate a significant difference (P values < 0.05), and those labeled

with the same lowercase letters indicate an insignificant difference. AR: artemisinin, WT: wild-type control plants (F6 progeny).

Figure 9. Effects of the overexpression and down-regulation of *ADS* on *A. annua* metabolite profiles. A, contents of artemisinic acid and arteannuin b (the content of arteannuin b is indicated as an artemisinic acid equivalent); B, contents of six other sesquiterpenoids (five, except for farnesene, is indicated as farnesene equivalent); C, a PCA plot generated using 84 volatile metabolites including eight metabolites in A and B.

Table Legend

Table 1. Monoterpenoids detected in tissues of self-pollinated F3 progeny plants by GC-MS-based profiling. Abbreviations: L7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16 and 17, leaf from the 7th node to 17th node, respectively, on the primary stem; HB, head inflorescence buds; FOH, fully open head inflorescences; 50%OH, 50% of open head inflorescences; IB15 and IB16: inflorescence branches 15 and 16, respectively (*:α-pinene was detected when the column oven's temperature was initially set at 60°C instead of 80°C for 2 min).

Table 2. Sesquiterpenoids detected in the tissues of self-pollinated F3 progeny plants by GC-MS-based profiling. Abbreviations: L7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16 and 17, leaf from the 7th node to 17th node, respectively, on the primary stem; HB, head inflorescence buds; FOH, fully open head inflorescences; 50%OH, 50% of open head inflorescences; IB15 and IB16, inflorescence branches 15 and 16, respectively.

Supplementary Materials and Methods

Supplementary Figure Legends:

S-Figure 1. Total ion chromatographs of metabolites from leaves, fully open head inflorescence (FOH) and head inflorescence buds (HB). These profiles were separated by the first column temperature program (TP-1). The twelve identified terpene molecules are labeled with their generic names. The peaks detected at the same retention time as squalene and beta-amyrin in the FOH and HB samples are an unknown metabolite and 1-docosene, respectively.

S-Figure 2. Structures of the 26 monoterpenes detected in *A. annua* tissues.

S-Figure 3. Structures of the 21 sesquiterpenoids detected in *A. annua* tissues.

S-Figure 4. A, accumulation profiles of germacrene D in 14 *A. annua* tissues; B, two glandular trichomes, one with an essential oil drop and the other after the release of an essential oil drop.

S-Figure 5. RT-PCR images showing the expression patterns of nineteen representative genes in seven selected tissues. An “Aa” prefix in each gene denotes *A. annua*. Four MEP pathway genes, *AaDXS1*: 5-deoxy-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase gene contig 1, *AaDXR1*: 5-deoxy-xylulose-5-phosphate reductase contig 1, *AaHDR1*: 4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl diphosphate reductase contig 1, *AaIPPI1*: isopentenyl pyrophosphate isomerase contig 1. Two monoterpene synthase genes, *AaLS*: limonene

1264 synthase, *AaBPS*: beta-pinene synthase. Two triterpene synthase genes, *AaBAS*:
 1265 beta-amyrin synthase, *AaSQS*: squalene synthase. Four sesquiterpene synthase genes,
 1266 *AaCPS*: beta-caryophyllene synthase, *AaGAS1*: germacrene A synthase contig 1,
 1267 *AaECS1*: 8-epi-cedrol synthase contig 1, *AaBFS*: beta-farnesene synthase. One MVA
 1268 pathway gene, *AaHMGR*: 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme reductase. *AaFDS2*:
 1269 farnesyl diphosphate synthase gene contig 2. Five artemisinin pathway genes, *ADS*:
 1270 amorpha-4,11-diene synthase, *CPR1*: cytochrome P450 reductase contig 1, *CYP71AV1*:
 1271 cytochrome P450 monooxygenase, *DBR2*: artemisinic aldehyde $\Delta^{11}(13)$ reductase,
 1272 *ALDH1*: aldehyde dehydrogenase 1. Sample abbreviations, L7, L10 and L15: the 7th,
 1273 10th and 15th leaves, respectively, IB15: inflorescence branch at the 15th node, FOH: full
 1274 open head inflorescence, HB: head inflorescence buds, 50%OH: 50% full open and 50%
 1275 head inflorescence buds.

1276

1277 S-Figure 6. RT-PCR images showing the expression patterns of nineteen representative
 1278 genes in seven selected tissues. An “Aa” prefix in each gene denotes *A. annua*. Four
 1279 MEP pathway genes: *AaDXS1*, 5-deoxy-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase contig 1;
 1280 *AaDXR1*, 5-deoxy-xylulose-5-phosphate reductase contig 1; *AaHDR1*,
 1281 4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl diphosphate reductase contig 1; *AaIPPI1*, isopentenyl
 1282 pyrophosphate isomerase contig 1. Two monoterpene synthase genes: *AaLS*, limonene
 1283 synthase; *AaBPS*, beta-pinene synthase. Two triterpene synthase genes: *AaBAS*,
 1284 beta-amyrin synthase; *AaSQS*, squalene synthase. Four sesquiterpene synthase genes:
 1285 *AaCPS*, beta-caryophyllene synthase; *AaGAS1*, germacrene A synthase contig 1;
 1286 *AaECS1*, 8-epi-cedrol synthase contig 1; *AaBFS*, beta-farnesene synthase. One MVA
 1287 pathway gene: *AaHMGR*, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme reductase. *AaFDS2*,
 1288 farnesyl diphosphate synthase contig 2. Five artemisinin pathway genes: *ADS*,
 1289 amorpha-4,11-diene synthase; *CPR1*, cytochrome P450 reductase contig 1; *CYP71AV1*,

1290 cytochrome P450 monooxygenase; *DBR2*, artemisinic aldehyde Δ 11(13) reductase;
 1291 *ALDH1*, aldehyde dehydrogenase 1. Sample abbreviations: L11-17, the 11th-17th leaves;
 1292 IB16, inflorescence branch at the 16th node.

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1294 S-Figure 7. A RT-PCR image showing the expression patterns of *CPR2* in 14 selected
 1295 tissues.

1296

1297 S-Figure 8. Reads per kilobase per millions (RPKM) of 454 sequencing for nine genes in
 1298 the 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol-4-phosphate (MEP) pathway toward isopentenyl diphosphate
 1299 and dimethylallyl diphosphate in six different tissues. The y-axis values are expressed
 1300 using a logarithmic scale. The numbers labeled on the top of each bar are true RPKM
 1301 values. An “Aa” prefix in each gene denotes *A. annua*. A, six contigs of *AaDXS*
 1302 (5-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase) and two contigs of *AaDXR*
 1303 (5-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate reductase); B, six genes: *AaMCT*,
 1304 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol-4-phosphate cytidyltransferase; *AaCMK*, cytidyl
 1305 (4-diphospho)-2-C-methyl-D-erythritol kinase; *AaMDS*,
 1306 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol-2,4-cyclodiphosphate synthase (*AaMCS*); *AaHDS*,
 1307 1-hydroxyl-2-methyl-2-(E)-butenyl-diphosphate synthase; *AaHDR*,
 1308 4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl diphosphate reductase; *AaIPPI*, isopentenyl
 1309 pyrophosphate isomerase. Sample abbreviations: L7 and L15, the leaves at the 7th and
 1310 15th nodes, respectively; IB15, inflorescence branch at the 15th node; FOH, full open head
 1311 inflorescence; HB, head inflorescence buds; 50%OH 50% full open and 50% head
 1312 inflorescence buds.

1313

1314 S-Figure 9. Reads per kilobase per millions (RPKM) of 454 sequencing for seven genes
1315 in the mevalonic acid pathway (MVP) in six different tissues. The y-axis values are
1316 expressed using a logarithmic scale. The numbers labeled on the top of each bar are
1317 true RPKM values. An “Aa” prefix in each gene denotes *A. annua*. A, four contigs of
1318 *AaAACT* (acetoacetyl coenzyme A thiolase) and four contigs of *AaHMGS*
1319 (3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A synthase); B, five genes: *AaMVK*, mevalonate
1320 kinase (*MK*); *AaPMK*, 5-phosphatemevalonate kinase; *AaMVAPP*, 5-phosphomevalonate
1321 decarboxylase; *AaHMGR*, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase. Sample
1322 abbreviations: L7 and L15, the leaves at the 7th and 15th nodes, respectively; IB15,
1323 inflorescence branch at the 15th node; FOH, full open head inflorescence; HB, head
1324 inflorescence buds; 50%OH 50% full open and 50% head inflorescence buds.

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Table 1. Monoterpenoids detected in tissues of self-pollinated F3 progeny plants by GC-MS-based profiling. Abbreviations: L7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16 and 17, leaf from the 7th node to 17th node, respectively, on the primary stem; HB, head inflorescence buds; FOH, fully open head inflorescences; 50%OH, 50% of open head inflorescences; IB15 and IB16: inflorescence branches 15 and 16, respectively (*: α -pinene was detected when the column oven's temperature was initially set at 60°C instead of 80°C for 2 min).

Compound names	Chemical Formulas	Tissues	Types and #
1,3,6-Heptatriene, 2,5,6-trimethyl-	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	L14, FOH	Acyclic (3)
1,6-Octadien-3-ol,3,7-dimethyl-; Linalool	C ₁₀ H ₁₈ O	HB, FOH, 50%OH	
Citronellol	C ₁₀ H ₂₀ O	L7-16, IB16, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
β -Phellandrene	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	L14, IB15, HB, FOH, 50%OH	Monocyclic (10)
β -Terpinene	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	IB15, IB16	
Terpinen-4-ol	C ₁₀ H ₁₈ O	HB, FOH	
Cyclohexene, 3-methyl-6-(1-methylethylidene)-	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	L12, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
Carveol	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	HB, FOH	
Cyclohexanol, 1-methyl-4-(1-methylethenyl)-	C ₁₀ H ₁₈ O	FOH, 50%OH	
Cyclohexanone, 2-methyl-5-(1-methylethenyl)-	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	L16, FOH	
(1S-(1 α ,2 α ,4 β))-1-isopropenyl-4-methyl-1,2-cyclohexanediol	C ₁₀ H ₁₈ O ₂	IB15, HB	
α -Campholenal	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	L13, L16, L17, IB15, IB16, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
Cyclopentane, 1,2-dimethyl-3-(1-methylethenyl)-	C ₁₀ H ₁₈	L10, L11	

α -pinene*	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	L12-17, IB15, IB16, HB, FOH, 50%OH	Bicyclic (12)
β -pinene	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	L13-17, IB15, IB16, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
1,8-Cineole	C ₁₀ H ₁₈ O	All tissues	
L-camphor	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	L17, IB16	
trans-Pinocarveol	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	L12-17, IB15, IB16, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
Pinocarveol	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	L14, HB, FOH	
Pinocarvone	C ₁₀ H ₁₄ O	L13-17, IB15, IB16, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
(-)-Myrtenol	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	L14, IB15, IB16, HB, 50%OH	
7-Propylidene-bicyclo[4.1.0]heptane	C ₁₀ H ₁₆	HB, FOH, 50%OH	
Bicyclo[3.1.0]hexan-3-ol, 4-methylene-1-(1-methylethyl)-, (1. α .,3. α .,5. α .)-;	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	IB15, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
1,7,7-Trimethylbicyclo[2.2.1]hept-5-en-2-ol	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	L14, HB, FOH	
1(2H)-Naphthalenone,octahydro-,trans-	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	L14, IB16	
Tricyclo[4.2.1.1(2,5)]decan-9-ol, stereoisomer	C ₁₀ H ₁₆ O	HB	Tricyclic (1)

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Table 2. Sesquiterpenoids detected in the tissues of self-pollinated F3 progeny plants by GC-MS-based profiling. Abbreviations: L7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16 and 17, leaf from the 7th node to 17th node, respectively, on the primary stem; HB, head inflorescence buds; FOH, fully open head inflorescences; 50%OH, 50% of open head inflorescences; IB15 and IB16, inflorescence branches 15 and 16, respectively.

Compound names	Chemical Formulas	Tissues	Type s and #
β -Farnesene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	L10-17, IB15, IB16, HB, FOH, 50%OH	(1) Acyclic
Germacrene B	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	HB, 50%OH	Monocyclic (6)
Germacrene D	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	All tissues	
Humulene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	HB, FOH, 50%OH	
Germacra-1(10),4,11(13)-trien-12-oic acid, 6- α -hydroxy-, γ -lactone,(E,E)-	C ₁₅ H ₂₀ O ₂	IB15, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
Cyclohexane, 1-ethenyl-1-methyl-2-(1-methylethenyl)-4-(1-methylethylidene)-	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	L13, L14, L15	
Caryophyllene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	All tissues	Bicyclic (11)
Arteannuic acid	C ₁₅ H ₂₂ O ₂	L11-17, IB15, IB16, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
cis-muurola-3,5-diene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	IB15, HB	
cis-muurola-4(14),5-diene	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	IB15, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
Azulene, 1,2,3,5,6,7,8,8a-octahydro-1,4-dimethyl-7-(1-methylethenyl)-, [1S-(1. α .,7. α ., 8.a. β)]-	C ₁₅ H ₂₄	HB,FOH	

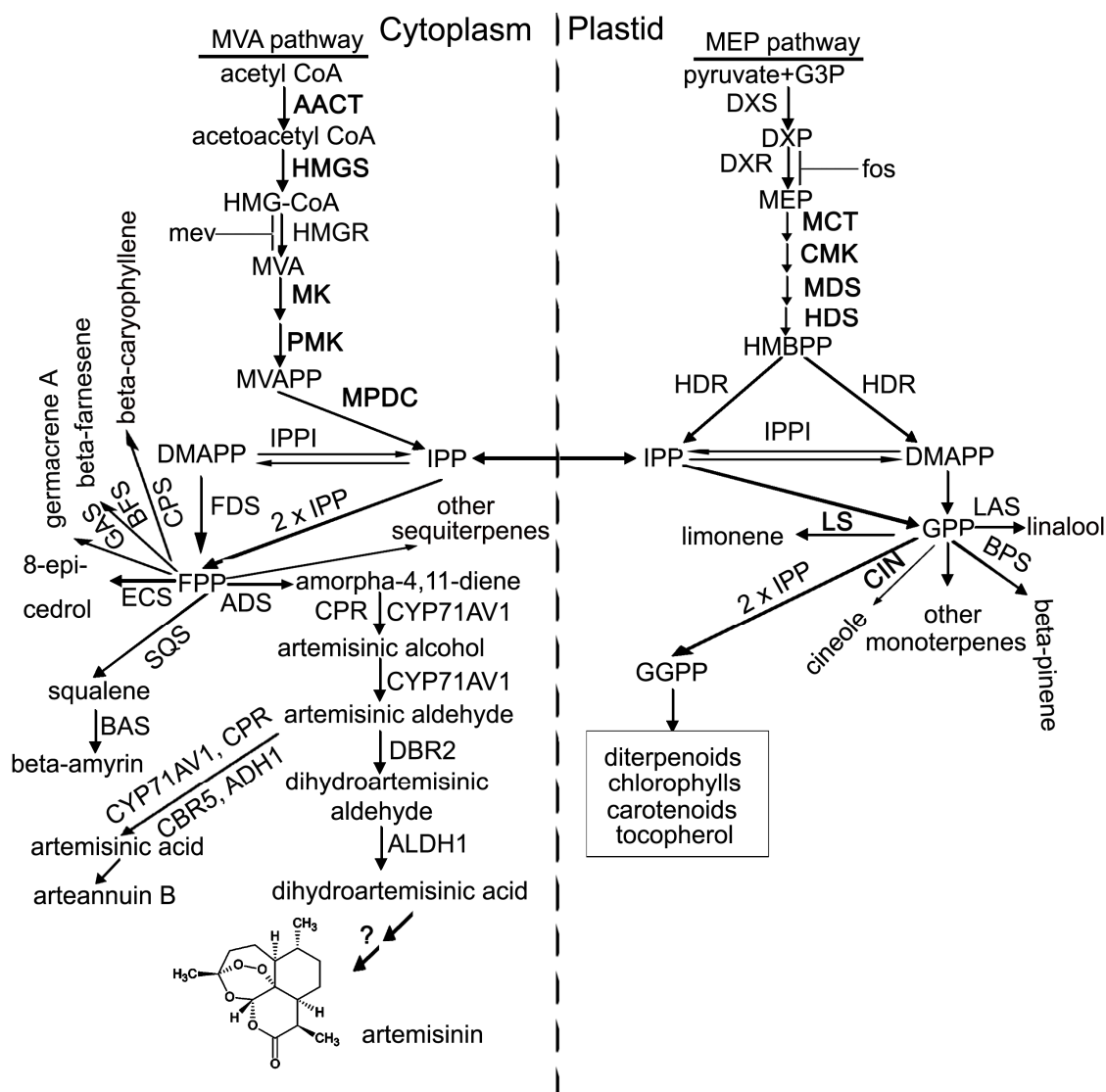
Bicyclo[5.3.0]decane, 2-methylene-5-(1-methylvinyl)-8-methyl-	C15H24	L13, IB16, HB, FOH	
Bicyclo[4.3.0]nonane, 7-methylene-2,4,4-trimethyl-2-vinyl-	C15H24	FOH	
Bicyclo[5.2.0]nonane, 4-methylene-2,8,8-trimethyl-2-vinyl-	C15H24	IB15, IB16, HB	
Bicyclo[7.2.0]undec-4-ene, 4,11,11-trimethyl-8-methylene-	C15H24	L10-17	
Spiro[4.5]dec-7-ene, 1,8-dimethyl-4-(1-methylethenyl)-, [1S-(1.α.,4.β.,5.α.)]-	C15H24	IB15, HB, FOH	
Spiro[5.5]undec-2-ene, 3,7,7-trimethyl-11-methylene-, (-)-	C15H24	IB15, IB16, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
1H-Cyclopenta[1,3]cyclopropa[1,2]benzene, octahydro-7-methyl-3-methylene-4-(1-methylet hyl)-,[3aS-(3a.α.,3b.β.,4.β.,7.α.,7aS*)]-; β-Cubebene	C15H24	L14, IB15, FOH	Tricyclic (4)
Arteannuin b	C15H20O3	All tissues	
1H-3a,7-Methanoazulene, octahydro-1,4,9,9-tetramethyl-	C15H26	L13, IB15, IB16, HB, FOH, 50%OH	
α-copaene	C15H24	All tissues	

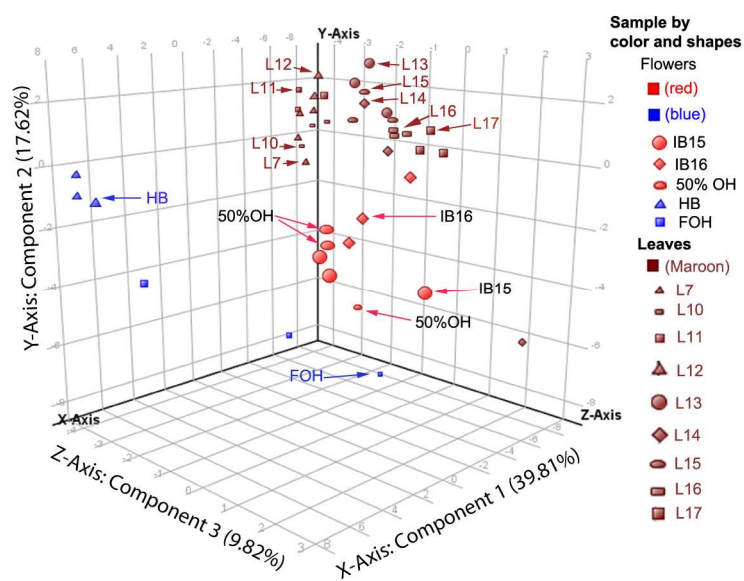
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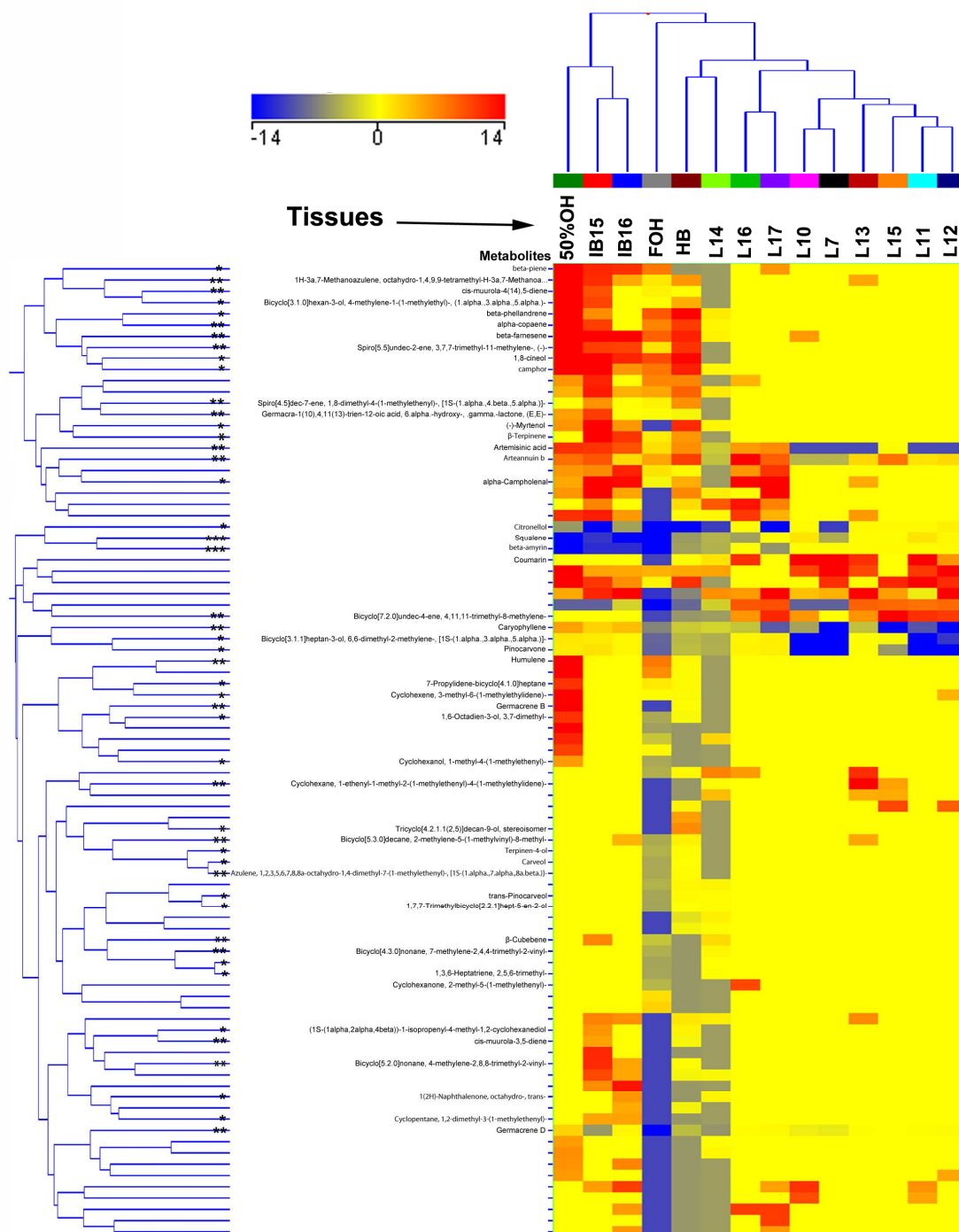
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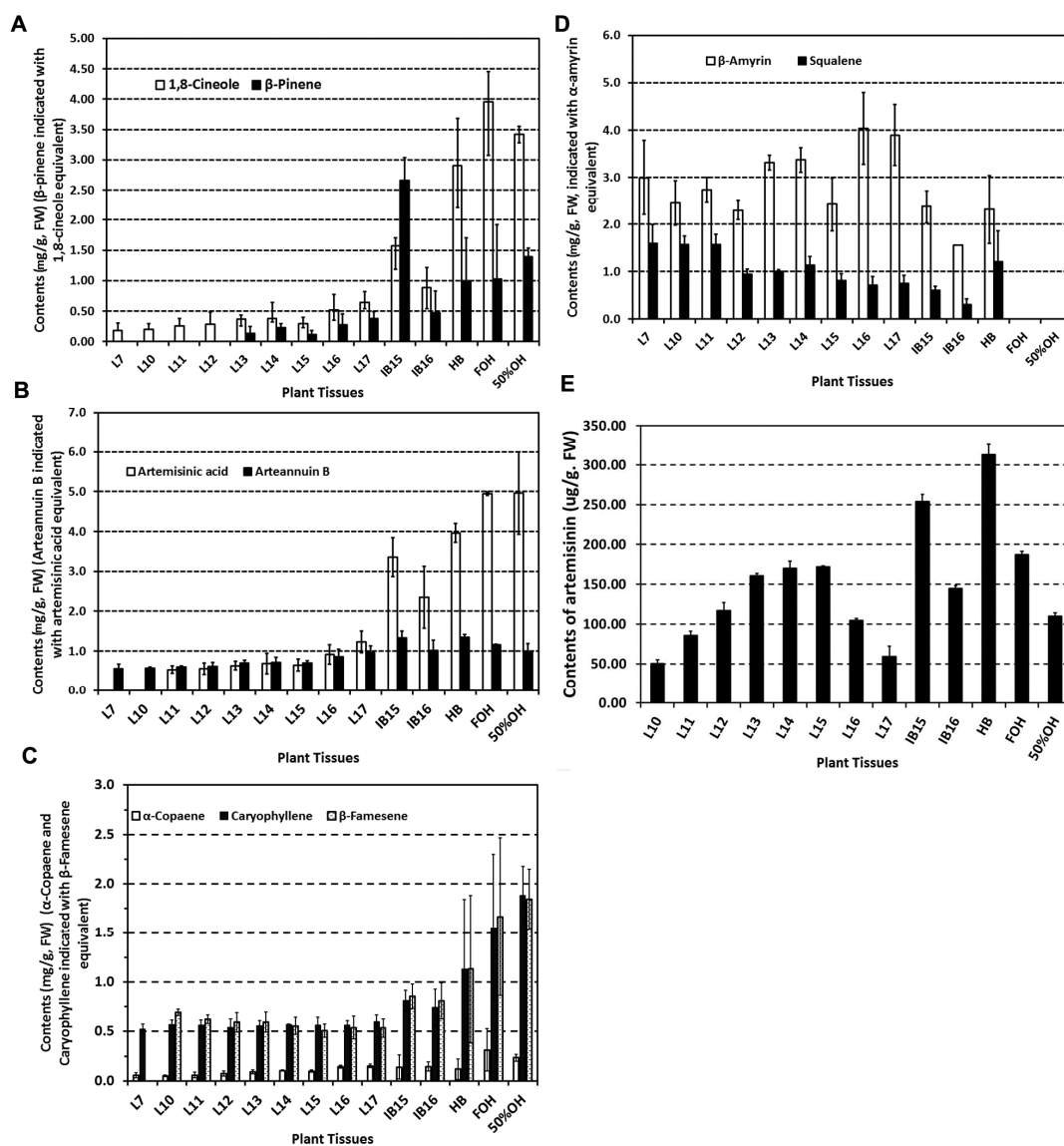
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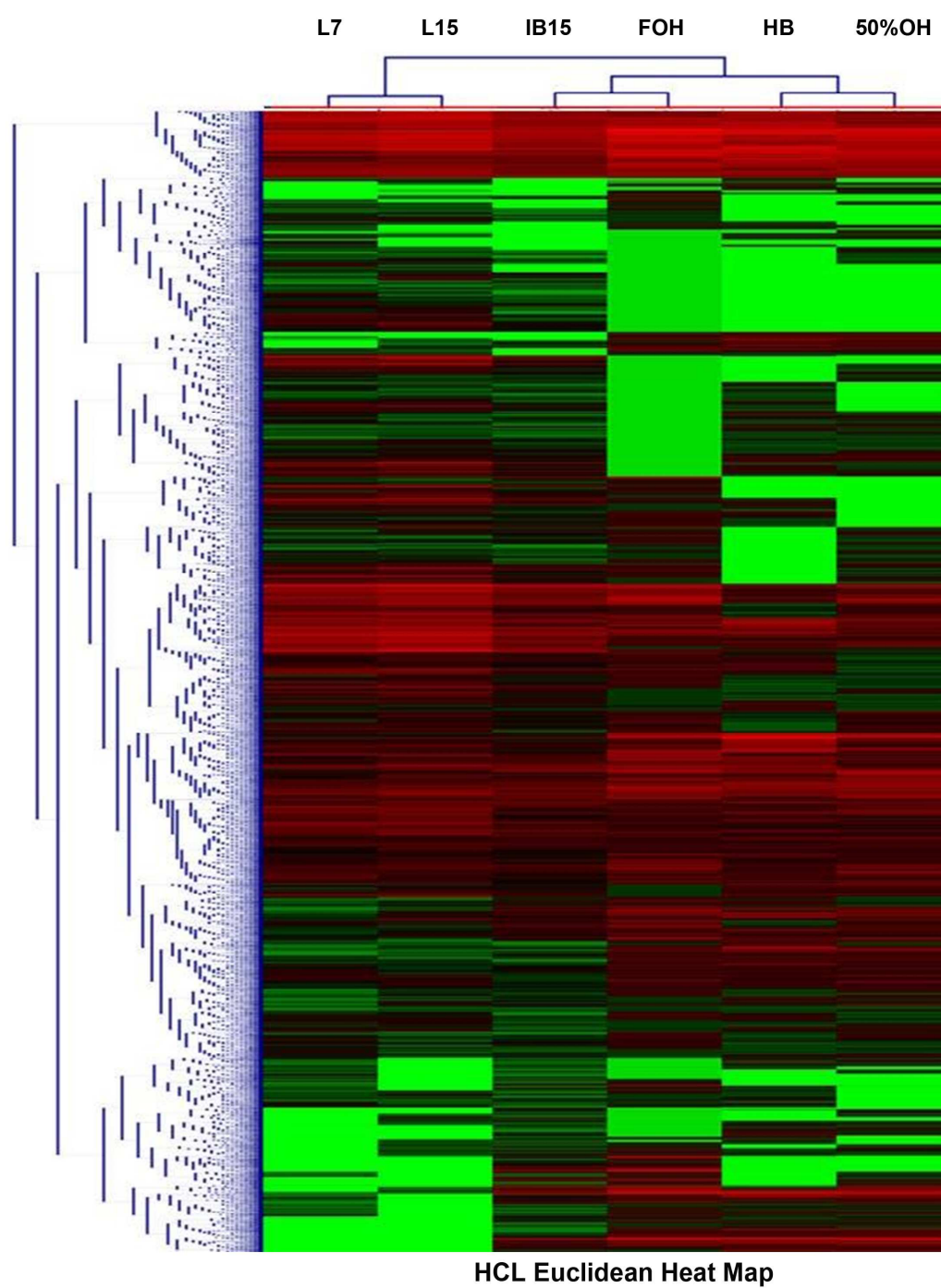




Eight-seven metabolites used for cluster analysis







A

