<span id="page-0-0"></span>**Supplementary Appendix S1 for Changing biosynthesis of terpenoid precursors in rice through synthetic biology, by Basallo et al.**

## Contents



## <span id="page-2-0"></span>Chapter 1. Methods

### <span id="page-2-1"></span>1.1. Mathematical Modeling

We used ordinary differential equation systems to model the biosynthesis of IPP/DMAPP. The mathematical formalism used to describe the flux dynamics is the saturating cooperative formalism (Alves et al., 2008; Sorribas et al., 2007). This formalism allows us to approximate the kinetics of any given reaction using a rational expression, where parameters have physical interpretations that are common in enzyme kinetics. Vmax parameters represent the apparent rate constants of the reactions. Kms represent the apparent Michaelis-Menten constants for the substrate(s). K<sub>i</sub>s represent the apparent inhibition constants of inhibitors. While no activators were considered in our model, these can also be included using this formalism.

## <span id="page-2-2"></span>1.2. The endogenous MVA and MEP pathways

To model the wildtype (i.e., the endogenous MVA and MEP pathways), we used the reactions shown in Figure 1 and modelled the kinetics of each process using the rate expressions in Table S1 and Table S2, as well as the exchange fluxes of IPP and DMAPP between cytoplasm and plastid (Table S4). We assume that the cell maintains homeostasis of Acetyl-CoA and Acetoacetyl-CoA.

### <span id="page-2-3"></span>1.3. The ectopic MVA pathway in plastid

The difference between the WT and mutant rice lines is that the mutant rice lines have genes that code for plastid-localized enzyme versions of the MVA pathway.

To model type I mutants, we added the reaction that transforms  $HMG\text{-}CoA_{pl}$  into  $MVA_{pl}$  to the plastid (Table S3), as well as the cytoplasm-plastid exchange reactions for these two metabolites (Table S4). In Figure 1, we sequentially added ectopic MVA pathway from type I (only the green), to type II (adding green and purple), and to type III (whole ectopic pathway)

## <span id="page-2-4"></span>1.4. Exchange of MVA and MEP pathway metabolites between the cytoplasm and the plastid

Under physiological conditions, IPP and DMAPP flow from the plastid into the cytosol in a mostly unidirectional way (Bick & Lange, 2003). We implemented this observation by assuming that metabolites flow from the plastid to the cytosol at ten times the rate of the import reaction from the cytosol. Bick and Lange (Bick & Lange, 2003) also reported that other pathway intermediates were not actively transported between the two compartments. Nevertheless, early intermediates of the MVA pathway can be found in the plastid space (Schneider et al., 1977). As such, we assumed that HMG-CoA, MVA, MVP and MVPP enter and leave the plastid, albeit at slower rates. Table S4 summarizes all reactions of material interchanged between plastid and cytosol.

## <span id="page-2-5"></span>1.5. Estimating rate constants, metabolite concentrations and variations in enzyme activity

Table S5 presents the rate constants for each reaction in the models. Table S6 presents the concentrations for the independent variables of the model.

We extensively searched the literature for quantitative and qualitative information about the correlation between changes in gene expression and enzyme activities in the MEP and MVA pathways. As we found no such information, we modeled variations in the enzyme activities of the mutant lines as described in Comas et al. (2016): changes in gene expression with respect to the WT are assumed to be proportional to changes in protein activity. This is the simplest possible assumption about the relationship between changes in gene expression and changes in enzyme activity.

We explicitly consider the enzymes that catalyze each reaction in the rate expressions. As  $V_{max} \approx k_{cat}$  Enzyme, the model for the WT sets the enzyme activity to be 1 (the basal state). As we model mutant lines we assume that changes in gene expression are proportional to changes in enzyme activity and make  $Enzyme = Enzyme_{WT}$  Gene expression in mutant line *Gene expression in maturit the* 

The values for the ectopic pathway enzymes are set to zero if the gene is absent. This ensures the reaction does no take place in the model. When they are present,  $Enzyme =$ Gene expression in mutant  $\frac{line}{C}$  $\frac{time}{Gene}$  expression in the WT.

#### <span id="page-3-0"></span>1.6. Assembling the models and solving the differential equations

Each metabolite has its own differential equation in the model. The kinetic rate function,  $f_j$ , for each process that produces a metabolite M appears as a positive term in the differential equation that determines the dynamic behavior of that metabolite. Similarly, the kinetic rate function,  $f_k$ , for each process that consumes a metabolite appears as a negative term in the differential equation that determines the dynamic behavior of that metabolite:

$$
\frac{dM}{dt} = \sum f_j - \sum f_k \tag{1}
$$

For each line of rice, we assemble a system of ordinary differential equations (ODEs) that describes the dynamic behavior of all metabolites in the system. To solve the ODEs, we assume that the metabolic concentrations are in rapid equilibrium with respect to the changes in gene expression (Comas et al. 2016). Because of that, we solve the systems of differential equations for the steady state of the pathways.

#### <span id="page-3-1"></span>1.7. Stability analysis

Biological steady states should be stable (Savageau, 1975; Voit, 2013). Stability measures the capacity of a system to remain or return to the steady-state. Lack of stability indicates that the model is missing information (Savageau, 1975; Voit, 2013).

As such, and to validate or correct our modeling assumptions, we performed a stability analysis of the models for each rice line.

An efficient way to assess stability is by calculating the eigenvalues of the Jacobian matrix of the ODE system, which are complex numbers (Voit, 2013). If all real parts of all eigenvalues are negative, the system is stable. Otherwise, the system is unstable. The Jacobian matrix is constructed by taking the partial derivatives of the right-hand side of the ODEs  $(f_i)$  with respect to each state variable  $(x_j)$ , as shown in Eq. 2.

$$
J=D_x f=f_x=\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc} \displaystyle\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \displaystyle\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \displaystyle\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\[1em] \displaystyle\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \displaystyle\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \displaystyle\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n} \\[1em] \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\[1em] \displaystyle\frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & \displaystyle\frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \displaystyle\frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n} \end{array}\right)
$$

#### <span id="page-4-0"></span>1.8. Sensitivity analysis

In addition to stable, biological steady states should be robust, and have low sensitivity to parameter changes (Savageau, 1975; Voit, 2013). Sensitivity measures how much a dependent variable or output changes when a parameter is altered (Comas et al., 2016). Parameters with high sensitivities indicate regions of the network that are incomplete or inaccurate.

As such, we performed a sensitivity analysis to investigate the robustness of the models and the places in the network where our assumptions may have been too simplifying. This allowed us to identify which steps of the pathway could have additional regulation that we were ignoring.

We calculated logarithmic, or relative, steady-state parameter sensitivities, which measure the relative change in a system variable  $(X)$  that is caused by a relative change in a parameter  $(p)$ " (Voit, 1991):

$$
\bar{S}(X,p) = \frac{\partial X/X}{\partial p/p} = \frac{\partial \log X}{\partial \log p}
$$
 (3)

#### <span id="page-4-1"></span>1.9. Including hormone influence in the models

Hormones were included in the models using a three-stage process.

First, and for each pair of metabolite-hormone, we adjusted a linear model that assumes the metabolite is a function of the hormone. We calculate the adjusted  $\mathbb{R}^2$  of the models and filter out all metabolite-hormone pairs with adjusted  $R^2$  below 0.20.

Second, for the remaining metabolite-hormone pairs after filtering, we investigated how best to account for hormone influence in the ordinary differential equations. We tested two alternative mathematical formalisms.

On the one hand, we considered the power-law formalism. This is a simple non-linear formalism that can be used to approximate unknown flux functions and has strong theoretical support (Alves et al., 2008; Sorribas et al., 2007). In this situation

$$
M_i = \alpha H_j^{g_{ij}},\tag{4}
$$

Where  $M_i$  is the concentration of metabolite *i* in the model, H<sub>j</sub> is the level of hormone *j* at twelve weeks, and  $\alpha$  and  $q$  are constants. This formalism can be linearized as

$$
\log M_i = c + g_{ij} \log H_j \tag{5}
$$

(2)

#### where  $c = \log \alpha$ .

On the other hand, we considered the saturating cooperative formalism, which is a more detailed approximation in situations where saturation needs to be described (Alves et al., 2008; Sorribas et al., 2007). Using this formalism, we can write

$$
M_i = \alpha \left(\frac{H_j}{K + H_j}\right)^{g_{ij}},\tag{6}
$$

where K is the concentration of hormone that produces half the effect. We linearized it for linear model fitting as

$$
\frac{1}{g_{ij}} = \frac{1}{d} + K \frac{1}{d H_j},
$$
\n(7)

where  $d = \sqrt[g]{a}$ .

To select which formalism to use when including hormone influence in each line we used a criterion that considers the adjusted  $R^2$  and the value for  $g_{ij}$ . A combination of low adjusted  $R^2$  and high  $|g_{ij}|$  suggests a potentially strong influence of the hormone levels on metabolite concentrations (high d  $|g_{ij}|$ ) over a small range of hormone levels (low adjusted  $R^2$ ). In this situation, we assumed a saturation effect and used the saturating cooperative formalism to model hormone influence on metabolite production and consumption. Otherwise, we used the power law formalism, as it uses a smaller number of parameters and minimizes the possibility of overfitting the model to the data. The threshold for selecting the one or the other formalism was set at 0.5 for the ratio  $\left|R_{adj}^2/g\right|$ . If  $\left|R_{adj}^2/g\right| > 0.5$  we use the power law formalism. Otherwise, we use the saturation cooperative formalism. The resulting formalisms are summarized in Table S7.

The final step was selecting the flux to which the hormone influence should be included in. To decide this, we calculated the correlation between gene expression levels and hormones using a standard linear model

$$
G_i = a + bH_j,\tag{8}
$$

where *G<sup>i</sup>* is the gene expression levels at 12 weeks. If a hormone was correlated to a metabolite, and at the same time was correlated to expression levels of a gene involved in the production or consumption of said metabolite, we multiplied the hormone dependency function by the flux function for the process catalyzed by the gene. If no strong and significant correlation was found, we multiplied the hormone dependency term by the overall production (consumption) flux of the metabolite if the correlation between hormone and metabolite was positive (negative).

We note that, when hormones were below the experimental detection threshold, we revert the kinetic expression presented in [Table](#page-25-0) using a piece-wise approximation to solve the differential equations.

#### <span id="page-5-0"></span>1.10. Phenotype models

We took an algebraic approach to model different phenotype variables as a function of hormones, genes and intermediate metabolites of terpenoid biosynthesis. The phenotypic characteristics to be modeled were the plants' *Height*, number of *Leaves*, *Leaf Length*, *Leaf* *Width*, and *Chlorophyl* levels. Data is separated according to mutant type, so the analysis and model building is performed three times, one for each mutant type.

First, we built linear models with one predictor variable and selected the predictor variables that had a significant ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) effect on the phenotype and whose model had an Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> greater than 0.2. With the remaining phenotype variables and predictors, we built every possible multivariate model with all subsets of predictors. So, for a given subset of predictors  $\{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$ , the model would be:

$$
\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n \tag{9}
$$

To avoid overfitting, we compared the models using AICc (AIC corrected for small sample sizes) and BIC estimators. In addition to AICc and BIC, the p-values of the multiple predictors' effects and the adjusted  $R^2$  were considered when the best multivariate model was selected.

#### <span id="page-6-0"></span>1.11.Gene constructs and gene expression

Table A summarizes the transgenes used to create a plastidic MVA pathway.

Transgene	Original	Promoter/terminator
	organism	
<b>BjHMGS</b>	Brassica	Hordeum vulgare D-hordein promoter and Agrobacterium
	juncea	tumefaciens nopaline synthase (nos) terminator
tHMGR	Arabidopsis	Triticum aestivum low-molecular-weight glutenin promoter
	thaliana	and rice ADPGPP terminator
CrMK	Catharanthus	H. vulgare D-hordein promoter and A. tumefaciens nos
	roseu	terminator
<b>CrPMK</b>	Catharanthus	Zea mays y-zein promoter (GZ63) and A. tumefaciens nos
	roseu	terminator
CrMVD	Catharanthus	Orizae sativa prolamin promoter (RP5) and A. tumefaciens
	roseu	nos terminator

**Table A: Gene constructs**

We assembled BjHMGS, tHMGR, CrMK, CrPMK, CrMVD into two separate expression vectors. We inserted a transit peptide at the N-terminal region of the enzymes in order to direct them to the plastid. GenScript (Piscataway, NJ, USA) optimized the sequences of the transgenes for expression in rice and pre-assembled them onto two vectors. Vector one contained the three initial genes of the MVA pathway (BjHMGS:tHMGR:CrMK). Vector two contained the final two genes of the MVA pathway (CrPMK:CrMVD). An additional plasmid containing the hygromycin phosphotransferase (hpt) selectable marker gene (Christou et al. 1991) under the control of the constitutive cauliflower mosaic virus 35S promoter and the nos terminator to select the transgenic rice plants.

We used the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) to isolate total seed RNA, which we quantified using a Nanodrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). We used 2 μg of total RNA as a template for first strand cDNA synthesis with Quantitech reverse transcriptase (Qiagen) in a 20-μL reaction volume. We used a CFX96 system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) for Real-time qRT-PCR, using 20-μL mixtures containing 5 ng cDNA, 1 × iQ SYBR Green Supermix and 0.5 μM of the forward and reverse primers designed for the transgenes BjHMGS, tHMGR, CrMK, CrPMK, CrMVD, and the endogenous MVA and MEP pathway genes OsHMGS, OsHMGR, OsMK, OsPMK, OsMVD, OsDXS, OsDXR, OsMCT, OsCMK, OsMDS, OsHDS, OsHDR and OsIPPI . We used serial dilutions of cDNA (80–0.0256 ng) to generate standard curves for each gene. We performed triplicate PCR using 96-well optical reaction plates. We plotted the ΔCt values of different primer combinations of serial dilutions against the log of starting template concentrations using CFX96 software to calculate amplification efficiencies. We used the rice housekeeping OsActin1 (ABF98567.1) as an internal control.

### <span id="page-7-0"></span>1.12.Hormone determinations

We built calibration curves for each phytohormone (1, 10, 50 and 100 µg L−1) and corrected for 10 µg L−1 deuterated internal standards. These curves were used to quantify the hormones in transgenic rice lines.

We homogenized 0.1 g of fresh leafs in liquid nitrogen. Then, we immersed the homogenate in 1 mL 80:20 (v/v) methanol/water at –20 °C, separating the solids through centrifugation (20,000  $\times$  g, 15 min, 4 °C) and re-extracted for 30 min at 4 °C as above. We separated the pooled supernatants using Sep-Pak C18 Plus cartridges (Waters, Milford, MA, USA), thus removing interfering lipids and pigments. Finally, we evaporated the mix under vacuum (40 °C) to near dryness. We then dissolved the residue in an ultrasonic bath containing 0.5 mL 20:80 (v/v) methanol/water. We passed the dissolved samples through 0.22-µm Millex nylon filters (Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA), and injected 10 µL of the filtered extract in an Accela Series ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) system coupled to an Exactive mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) via a heated electrospray ionization (HESI) interface. We used Xcalibur v2.2 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to obtain the mass spectra. We achieved 92–95% target compound recovery.

## <span id="page-8-0"></span>Chapter 2. Results

#### <span id="page-8-1"></span>2.1. Gene expression measurements



Figure A. Gene expression levels. (A): Endogenous genes, normalized with respect to the gene expression in WT rice. We normalized WT gene expression with respect to actin levels (B): Exogenous genes, normalized with respect to actin levels.



### 2.2. Hormone determinations

<span id="page-9-0"></span>Figure B – Experimental measurements for plant hormones in the four types of rice lines. See section 1.12 for technical details.



## <span id="page-10-0"></span>2.3. Phenotype measurements

Figure C - Phenotype measurements. Phenotypes were determined as described in the main text.

### <span id="page-11-0"></span>2.4. Sensitivity Analysis of the WT line

Sensitivity analysis identifies the parameters to which the various variables of the model are most sensitive, as described in (Alves et al., 2008; Sorribas et al., 2007). A high sensitivity of a variable to a parameter indicates that small changes in that parameter might lead to big changes in the variable.

We performed a logarithmic sensitivity analysis of the dependent concentrations of the WT model with respect to each parameter of the model. Table S9 shows the concentration sensitivities. We only present sensitivities with an absolute value larger than 0.5.

### <span id="page-11-1"></span>2.5. Stabilization of the mutant models

Biological steady states should be stable and robust, having low sensitivity to parameter changes (Savageau, 1975; Voit, 2013). When implementing the modified models for each mutant line as described in sections 2.3 to 2.6, we found that the steady states were unstable for some of those lines, with a few intermediate metabolites accumulating indefinitely. Unstable steady states indicate that the models are not adequate representations of the biological situation (Savageau, 1971, 1976).

One possibility for explaining this instability is the existence of a non-proportional relationship between changes in gene expression and changes in enzyme activity (see section 2.5). To test this hypothesis, we investigated if the steady state of a line would stabilize if changes in enzyme activities and changes in gene expression were not proportional.

Using a minimal intervention policy, we identified the metabolites that accumulated in each line, which were DXP, CDP-MEP, MEcPP, or combinations of them. Reactions r9, r12, and r13 of Table S2 either produce or consume these metabolites. Consequently, we scanned the values for the Vmax parameters of reactions Vmax9, Vmax12 and Vmax13 in order to identify the minimum change in those parameters that would stabilize the steady state of each mutant line.

To find the values of Vmax that made the models stable we scanned one-dimensional, twodimensional and three-dimensional spaces, and we checked for steady state stability with each set of parameter values. The sets of Vmax that made the models stable were stored in a candidate sets list and we chose the best as the one with minimum Euclidian distance to the original set of values of that line. Figure S1 shows that, overall, the more complex the model is, the bigger must the change in parameter values be to stabilize the model.

## <span id="page-11-2"></span>Chapter 3. Discussion

The terpenoid family holds many chemicals with importance in pharmacy, biotechnology, biomedicine and cosmetics. IPP and DMAPP production and polymerization is key to their biosynthesis. Plants produce these monomers with two pathways: MVA pathway (cytosol) and MEP pathway (plastid). A part of the flux is used for the biosynthesis of developmental hormones, making redirection of the flux detrimental to the plant. Developing plants that produce IPP/DMAPP in high amounts is a requirement for their use as a platform to produce high value terpenoids, and an important goal in biotechnology. We participated in the creation of mutant rice lines that express the totality or parts of the MVA pathway in the plastid. Data was collected on the macroscopic and molecular phenotypes, gene expression, terpenoid compounds and hormone levels of the different mutant lines. Intermediates of the pathways could not be measured with the current technology. Integrating the different data and understanding the changes brought by the ectopic pathway is complex. To generate understanding of this, we developed line specific mathematical models using the available data.

We used ODEs to model terpenoid biosynthesis. We described the reactions in the pathways with cooperative formalisms, and power laws for diffusion rates, with a couple of exceptions where data was not available. For the different mutants, the ectopic pathway reactions were included as corresponded to the type of mutant and line specific Vmax were given by directly correlating gene expression data to enzyme activity, so that the new Vmax were the WT model Vmax multiplied by the factor of increase/decrease of gene expression with respect to the WT line. We integrated the hormone effects by searching correlation between them and the metabolites and representing the effect as either a power law or a saturation formalism depending on the strength and significance of the correlation.

The WT model, or basal, model passed all generic quality controls for model behavior. The steady state of the WT model was stable, as proved by the eigenvalues. Out of 700 sensitivities variable-to-parameter calculated, 646 were lower than 0.1. An example of high sensitivity is  $IPP<sub>pla</sub>$  when Km6 is varied. From the sensitivities of eigenvalues to parameters, 677 out of 700 were below 0.1. High sensitivities help identify places where the model can be improved, because such places act as weak links of a chain towards stability and robustness of the steady state values. The concentrations given by its steady state are also within ranges that make biological sense. Even if the current technology does not allow to validate this experimentally, due to these intermediates having a short residence time, the models allow us to see differences on the steady states based on the gene expression levels. The changes in metabolites propagate as expected when one flux is increased or reduced, with the model being more susceptible to instability in the MEP pathway, due to feedback regulation only existing in the first step of the pathway. The models tell us that, due to the differences in gene expression and the ectopic pathway, the IPP and DMAPP levels should decrease in the mutant lines.

We scanned Vmax9, Vmax12 and Vmax 13 to make the mutant models stable. For each line, we detected which of those three metabolites accumulated, and the corresponding Vmax was tweaked. This "simplest solution" approach would not work alone, because increasing upstream rates was causing the problem to be displaced downstream (e.g., if only DXP was accumulating and we increased its depletion rate, then CDP-MEP would accumulate instead). Therefore, the Vmax downstream were scanned as well. We tried to stabilize by decreasing Km9, Km12 and Km13 instead, but the impact was not enough to avoid metabolite accumulation, so we discarded this approach. Our analysis of sensitivity of eigenvalues to parameters would make us expect that at least changing Vmax12 and Vmax13 would affect the stability of the model. However, the eigenvalues that become destabilized do not correspond with DXP, CDP-MEP, MEcPP. Such metabolite specific correlation could be hidden in multivariate sensitivity, as stabilizing often required changing more than one of those parameters.

Our models assume that changing gene expression directly correlates to changing enzyme activities. That, together with the fact that Vmax9, Vmax12 and Vmax 13 required adjustment, could imply that regulation not described in literature is required at those steps of the pathway. Said regulation would cause the decoupling between gene expression and protein synthesis or be post-translational regulation of protein activity.

The method used in the transformation of the lines results in a non-targeted integration of the ectopic genes in the genome of the endosperms. This could explain different behaviors between lines within the same mutant type. While some lines are unstable and others are not within the

same type, once stabilized, the difference in metabolite levels among lines is usually not greater than one order of magnitude. The model is restricted to the MVA and MEP pathways, and squalene, sterols and Vitamin E could not be integrated as we were missing transcriptomic data on the enzymes responsible for the creation and consumption of said metabolites.

The lack of data for testing makes impossible for now to validate the model quantitatively. Metabolite data is obtained in-silico from the models without the hormone effects, so we could not use it for validation of the final models. However, metabolite-hormone correlation could be carried over from the steady state simulations in case where gene expression-hormone correlation exists. That is, the models without the hormones are still implicitly correlating metabolite levels to gene expression (even though at a multivariate scale), so if expressionhormone correlation is found, hormone to metabolite effects could be inferred.

Additionally, non-expected tendencies with other metabolites are observed when adding the hormone effects. Different hypothesis could be attributed to this observation. First, these correlations were filtered out with the adjusted  $R<sup>2</sup>$ . This could be detected with more data points, or by trying different thresholds for filtering candidate hormone effects. Second, these correlations propagate from upstream or downstream effects. The fact that one correlation is detected but not others could imply additional regulation in the pathway. Our model would not reflect those regulations and therefore effects would propagate to other metabolites proportionately. Testing different models that have been modified to include such regulation could be a way to detect this. Alternatively, removing one source of variation of our model and focusing on the factor of interest could help. Our models have two sources of variation: one is the variables and rates considered in the specific mutant-type model (the "shape" of the model itself), and the other is the different Vmax values given to each line, which are directly correlated to gene expression. For example, there is no reason to not include the plastid versions of MVA pathway intermediates in the WT model, other than Ockham's Razor, as we consider to be exchange between cytosol and plastid.

As for the phenotype models, the predicted versus observed plots give us an idea of the performance of the selected linear models, thought we need to mind that part of the data (hormones and gene expression) is the same that was used to build the models. In other words, we lack a traditional test set. Predicted values are in the range of the real values, and Type I models perform well. The performance seems progressively worse in Type II and then Type III models. This drop in performance could be explained as the increasing complexity of the ODE models adding noise to the metabolite *in silico* data, but some of the low performing linear models do not include metabolite predictors at all, ruling out that possibility. Thus, the building of the models itself is faulty, as confirmed by the lower significance of the predictors' coefficients in those models. The tendency of the low performing models is to overestimate lower values of the independent variable and underestimate higher values.

## <span id="page-14-0"></span>Chapter 4. References

- Albe, K. R., Butler, M. H., & Wr1ghtt, B. E. (1990). Cellular Concentrations of Enzymes and Their Substrates. In *J. theor. Biol* (Vol. 143).
- Alves, R., Vilaprinyo, E., Hernádez-Bermejo, B., & Sorribas, A. (2008). Mathematical formalisms based on approximated kinetic representations for modeling genetic and metabolic pathways. *Biotechnology & Genetic Engineering Reviews*, *25*, 1–40. http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21412348
- Bach, T. J., & Benveniste, P. (1997). Cloning of cDNAs or genes encoding enzymes of sterol biosynthesis from plants and other eukaryotes: Heterologous expression and complementation analysis of mutations for functional characterization. *Progress in Lipid Research*, *36*(2–3), 197–226. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0163-7827(97)00009-X
- Benveniste, P. (1986). Sterol Biosynthesis. *Annual Review of Plant Physiology*, *37*(1), 275–308. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.pp.37.060186.001423
- Bick, J. A., & Lange, B. M. (2003). Metabolic cross talk between cytosolic and plastidial pathways of isoprenoid biosynthesis: unidirectional transport of intermediates across the chloroplast envelope membrane. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, *415*(2), 146–154. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0003-9861(03)00233-9
- Comas, J., Benfeitas, R., Vilaprinyo, E., Sorribas, A., Solsona, F., Farré, G., Berman, J., Zorrilla, U., Capell, T., Sandmann, G., Zhu, C., Christou, P., & Alves, R. (2016). Identification of linespecific strategies for improving carotenoid production in synthetic maize through datadriven mathematical modeling. *The Plant Journal*, *87*(5), 455–471. https://doi.org/10.1111/TPJ.13210
- Dharmapuri, S., Rosati, C., Pallara, P., Aquilani, R., Bouvier, F., Camara, B., & Giuliano, G. (2002). Metabolic engineering of xanthophyll content in tomato fruits. *FEBS Letters*, *519*(1–3), 30– 34. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0014-5793(02)02699-6
- Eisenreich, W., Rohdich, F., & Bacher, A. (2001). Deoxyxylulose phosphate pathway to terpenoids. *Trends in Plant Science*, *6*(2), 78–84. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1360- 1385(00)01812-4
- Enfissi, E. M. A., Fraser, P. D., Lois, L.-M., Boronat, A., Schuch, W., & Bramley, P. M. (2004). Metabolic engineering of the mevalonate and non-mevalonate isopentenyl diphosphateforming pathways for the production of health-promoting isoprenoids in tomato. *Plant Biotechnology Journal*, *3*(1), 17–27. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7652.2004.00091.x
- Fraser, P. D., Romer, S., Shipton, C. A., Mills, P. B., Kiano, J. W., Misawa, N., Drake, R. G., Schuch, W., & Bramley, P. M. (2002). Evaluation of transgenic tomato plants expressing an additional phytoene synthase in a fruit-specific manner. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, *99*(2), 1092–1097. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.241374598
- Gylling, H., & Miettinen, T. (1999). Phytosterols, analytical and nutritional aspects. In R. Lasztity, W. Pfannhauser, L. Simon-Sarkadi, & S. Tömöközi (Eds.), *Functional Foods. A New Challenge for the Food Chemist* (p. 109). Publishing Company of TUB. https://scholar.google.com/scholar\_lookup?hl=en&publication\_year=1999&pages=109& author=H.+Gylling&author=T.A.+Miettinen&title=Functional+Foods.+A+New+Challenge+f or+the+Food+Chemist

Harborne, J. B. (Jeffrey B. ., Tomas-Barberan, F. A. (Francisco A. ., & Phytochemical Society of

Europe. (1991). *Ecological chemistry and biochemistry of plant terpenoids*. Clarendon Press. http://agris.fao.org/agris-search/search.do?recordID=US201300687965

- Huang, Z.-R., Lin, Y.-K., & Fang, J.-Y. (2009). Biological and Pharmacological Activities of Squalene and Related Compounds: Potential Uses in Cosmetic Dermatology. *Molecules*, *14*, 540– 554. https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules14010540
- Lange, B. M., Wildung, M. R., McCaskill, D., & Croteau, R. (1998). A family of transketolases that directs isoprenoid biosynthesis via a mevalonate-independent pathway. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, *95*(5), 2100–2104. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.95.5.2100
- Laule, O., Fürholz, A., Chang, H.-S., Zhu, T., Wang, X., Heifetz, P. B., Gruissem, W., & Lange, M. (2003). Crosstalk between cytosolic and plastidial pathways of isoprenoid biosynthesis in Arabidopsis thaliana. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, *100*(11), 6866–6871. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1031755100
- Liao, P., Hemmerlin, A., Bach, T. J., & Chye, M.-L. (2016). The potential of the mevalonate pathway for enhanced isoprenoid production. *Biotechnology Advances*, *34*(5), 697–713. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.BIOTECHADV.2016.03.005
- Lois, L. M., Campos, N., Putra, S. R., Danielsen, K., Rohmer, M., & Boronat, A. (1998). Cloning and characterization of a gene from Escherichia coli encoding a transketolase-like enzyme that catalyzes the synthesis of D-1-deoxyxylulose 5-phosphate, a common precursor for isoprenoid, thiamin, and pyridoxol biosynthesis. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, *95*(5), 2105–2110. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.95.5.2105
- Mcgarvey, D. J., & Croteau, R. (1995). Terpenoid Metabolism. In *The Plant Cell* (Vol. 7). American Society of **Society** of Plant Plant Physiologists. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC160903/pdf/071015.pdf
- Römer, S., Fraser, P. D., Kiano, J. W., Shipton, C. A., Misawa, N., Schuch, W., & Bramley, P. M. (2000). Elevation of the provitamin A content of transgenic tomato plants. *Nature Biotechnology*, *18*(6), 666–669. https://doi.org/10.1038/76523
- Rosati, C., Aquilani, R., Dharmapuri, S., Pallara, P., Marusic, C., Tavazza, R., Bouvier, F., Camara, B., & Giuliano, G. (2000). Metabolic engineering of beta-carotene and lycopene content in tomato fruit. *The Plant Journal*, *24*(3), 413–420. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365- 313x.2000.00880.x
- Savageau, M. A. (1971). Parameter sensitivity as a criterion for evaluating and comparing the performance of biochemical systems. *Nature*, *229*(5286), 542–544. https://doi.org/10.1038/229542A0
- Savageau, M. A. (1975). Significance of autogenously regulated and constitutive synthesis of regulatory proteins in repressible biosynthetic systems. *Nature*, *258*(5532), 208–214. https://doi.org/10.1038/258208A0
- Savageau, M. A. (1976). *Biochemical systems analysis : a study of function and design in molecular biology*. 379.
- Schaller, H., Grausem, B., Benveniste, P., Chye, M. L., Tan, C. T., Song, Y. H., & Chua, N. H. (1995). Expression of the Hevea brasiliensis (H.B.K.) Mull. Arg. 3-Hydroxy-3-Methylglutaryl-Coenzyme A Reductase 1 in Tobacco Results in Sterol Overproduction. *Plant Physiology*, *109*(3), 761–770. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.109.3.761
- Schneider, M. M., Hampp, R., & Ziegler, H. (1977). Envelope Permeability to Possible Precursors of Carotenoid Biosynthesis during Chloroplast-Chromoplast Transformation. *Plant Physiology*, *60*(4), 518–520. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.60.4.518
- Sies, H., & Krinsky, N. I. (1995). The present status of antioxidant vitamins and beta-carotene. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, *62*(6), 1299S-1300S. https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/62.6.1299S
- Sorribas, A., Hernández-Bermejo, B., Vilaprinyo, E., & Alves, R. (2007). Cooperativity and saturation in biochemical networks: a saturable formalism using Taylor series approximations. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, *97*(5), 1259–1277.
- Voit, E. O. (1991). *Canonical nonlinear modeling : S-system approach to understanding complexity*. 365.
- Voit, E. O. (2013). Biochemical Systems Theory: A Review. *ISRN Biomathematics*, *2013*, 1–53. https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/897658
- Wołosik, K., Knaś, M., Zalewska, A., Niczyporuk, M., & Przystupa, A. W. (2013). The importance and perspective of plant-based squalene in cosmetology. *Journal of Cosmetic Science*, *64*(1), 59–66. http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23449131
- World Health Organization. (2012). *WHO | Squalene-based adjuvants in vaccines*. World Health Organization. https://www.who.int/vaccine\_safety/committee/topics/adjuvants/squalene/questions\_a nd\_answers/en/
- Zorrilla-López, U., Masip, G., Arjó, G., Bai, C., Banakar, R., Bassie, L., Berman, J., Farré, G., Miralpeix, B., Pérez-Massot, E., Sabalza, M., Sanahuza, G., Vamvaka, E., Twyman, R. M., Christou, P., Zhu, C., & Capell, T. (2013). Engineering metabolic pathways in plants by multigene transformation. *The International Journal of Developmental Biology*, *57*(6-7–8), 565–576. https://doi.org/10.1387/ijdb.130162pc





*Supplementary Figure S1. Distribution of each line's Normalized Euclidean distance of Vmax9, Vmax12 and Vmax13 to the original values.*

# Appendix B. Supplementary tables.



*Table S1. MVA pathway reactions that were considered in the model.*

*Table S2. MEP pathway reactions that were considered in the model.*





*Table S3. Exchange of MVA and MEP intermediates between the cytosol and the plastid.*

*Table S4. Ectopic MVA pathway reactions that were considered in the model.*





*Table S5. Kinetic Parameters. All concentration units in mM. All time units in s-1 .*



Table S5 (continued). Kinetic Parameters. All concentration units in mM. All time units in  $\mathsf{s}^{\text{-}1}$ .

*Table S6. Concentration of independent Variables (Albe et al., 1990).*





<span id="page-25-0"></span>







Eigenvalue	Parameter	Logarithmic	Eigenvalue	Parameter	Logarithmic
		sensitivity			sensitivity
EV <sub>5</sub>	Km <sub>3</sub>	$-13965$	EV <sub>5</sub>	<b>Ki81</b>	$-4881$
EV <sub>5</sub>	Ki31	$-13961$	EV <sub>5</sub>	<b>Ki82</b>	-4374
EV <sub>5</sub>	Km4	$-13951$	EV <sub>5</sub>	$Km6_{pl}$	$-1813$
EV <sub>5</sub>	Ki4	$-13933$	EV <sub>5</sub>	k1	1745
EV <sub>5</sub>	<b>Ki34</b>	$-13468$	EV13	Vmax4	1024
EV <sub>5</sub>	<b>Ki33</b>	$-13178$	EV12	Vmax3	1009
EV <sub>5</sub>	Ki6 <sub>pl</sub>	$-12927$	EV <sub>6</sub>	Km3	$-221$
EV <sub>5</sub>	<b>Ki32</b>	$-10525$	EV <sub>6</sub>	Ki31	$-221$
EV <sub>5</sub>	Ki <sub>2</sub>	$-10475$	EV <sub>6</sub>	Km4	$-221$
EV <sub>5</sub>	Ki6	-9495	EV <sub>6</sub>	Ki4	$-220$
EV <sub>5</sub>	Km <sub>6</sub>	-7504	EV <sub>6</sub>	<b>Ki34</b>	$-213$
EV <sub>5</sub>	<b>Ki35</b>	-7179	EV <sub>6</sub>	<b>Ki33</b>	$-208$

*Table S8. Logarithmic sensitivities of the eigenvalues to reaction parameters. Only the top 24 sensitivities with largest absolute value are shown. Full table in Supplementary Data S1.*



*Table S9. Logarithmic sensitivities of the concentrations to reaction parameters. Only sensitivities with an absolute value larger than 0.5 are shown.*

Steady state concentrations [mM]		Type I	Type II	<b>Type III</b>			Type I	Type II	Type III
	<b>HMGCoAcvt</b>	$5.76 \times 10^{-1}$	4.67	2.97	Stability	EV1	$-11249$	$-12515$	$-14205$
	<b>MVAcyt</b>	$4.86 \times 10^{-5}$	$1.15 \times 10^{-4}$	$6.55 \times 10^{-5}$		EV <sub>2</sub>	$-11000$	$-11009$	$-12624$
	$MVP_{\text{cyt}}$	$6.61 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.57 \times 10^{-3}$	$8.43 \times 10^{-4}$		EV3	$-4678$	$-11000$	$-11306$
	<b>MVPPcvt</b>	$9.68 \times 10^{-5}$	$1.41 \times 10^{-4}$	$7.53 \times 10^{-5}$		EV4	$-1994$	$-3946$	$-11000$
	$IPP_{\text{cyt}}$	$1.14 \times 10^{-3}$	$9.42 \times 10^{-4}$	$7.93 \times 10^{-4}$		EV <sub>5</sub>	$-1124$	$-1098$	$-3373$
	IPP <sub>pla</sub>	$7.45 \times 10^{-4}$	$9.22 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.09 \times 10^{-3}$		EV <sub>6</sub>	$-402$	$-1053$	$-2001$
	<b>DMAPPcvt</b>	$8.19 \times 10^{-6}$	$1.35 \times 10^{-5}$	$1.58 \times 10^{-5}$		EV7	$-357$	$-618$	$-1904$
	<b>DMAPP</b> <sub>pla</sub>	$2.90 \times 10^{-3}$	$3.41 \times 10^{-3}$	$3.96 \times 10^{-3}$		EV8	$-163$	$-595$	$-669$
	<b>DXP</b>	$5.24 \times 10^{-1}$	$8.41 \times 10^{-1}$	1.06		EV9	$-132$	$-156$	$-602$
	<b>MEP</b>	$4.58 \times 10^{-3}$	$7.10 \times 10^{-3}$	$5.10 \times 10^{-3}$		<b>EV10</b>	$-91$	$-117$	$-184$
	<b>CDPME</b>	$4.12 \times 10^{-4}$	$3.45 \times 10^{-4}$	$4.60 \times 10^{-4}$		<b>EV11</b>	$-65$	$-85$	$-171$
	<b>CDPMEP</b>	$7.55 \times 10^{-1}$	2.76	3.48		<b>EV12</b>	$-32$	$-84$	$-98$
	<b>MECPP</b>	9.46	4.00	5.05		<b>EV13</b>	$-1.94 \times 10^{-1}$	$-30$	$-71$
	<b>HMBPP</b>	$1.08 \times 10^{-3}$	$1.73 \times 10^{-3}$	$3.52 \times 10^{-3}$		<b>EV14</b>	$-7.64 \times 10^{-2}$	$-3.79 \times 10^{-2}$	$-54$
	<b>HMGCoApla</b>	$5.76 \times 10^{-2}$	$4.67 \times 10^{-1}$	$2.97 \times 10^{-1}$		<b>EV15</b>	$-6.17 \times 10^{-2}$	$-2.70 \times 10^{-2}$	$-4.42 \times 10^{-2}$
	<b>MVApla</b>	$9.37 \times 10^{-6}$	$1.77 \times 10^{-5}$	$1.10 \times 10^{-5}$		<b>EV16</b>	$-1.09 \times 10^{-3}$	$-1.04 \times 10^{-2}$	$-3.20 \times 10^{-2}$
	<b>MVP</b> <sub>pla</sub>		$1.60 \times 10^{-4}$	$8.52 \times 10^{-5}$		<b>EV17</b>		$-8.93 \times 10^{-3}$	$-8.61 \times 10^{-3}$
	<b>MVPP</b> <sub>pla</sub>			$8.86 \times 10^{-6}$		<b>EV18</b>			$-7.70 \times 10^{-3}$

*Table S10. Levels of each intermediary metabolite (left) at the steady states of each mutant type's average model and the eigenvalues (right) of the Jacobian matrix at these steady states.*



*Table S11. Cross-validation of the models, showing the confidence intervals (95%) of the adjusted R <sup>2</sup> and relative errors, also when using a model to predict different mutant types.*