

The Second Goodman-Fielder Oration in International Nutrition, Monash Medical Center, Dec 3rd, 1996
Invited review

Biotechnology to harness the benefits of dietary phenolics; focus on *Lamiaceae*

Kalidas Shetty

Laboratory of Food Biotechnology, Department of Food Science, University of Massachusetts, USA

Phytochemicals from herbs and fermented legumes are excellent dietary sources of phenolic metabolites. These phenolics have importance not only as food preservatives but increasingly have therapeutic and pharmaceutical applications.

The long-term research objectives of the food biotechnology program at the University of Massachusetts are to elucidate the molecular and physiological mechanisms associated with synthesis of important health-related, therapeutic phenolic metabolites in food-related plants and fermented plant foods. Current efforts focus on elucidation of the role of the proline-linked pentose phosphate pathway in regulating the synthesis of anti-inflammatory compound, rosmarinic acid (RA).

Specific aims of the current research efforts are: (i) To develop novel tissue culture-based selection techniques to isolate high RA-producing, shoot-based clonal lines from genetically heterogeneous, cross-pollinating species in the family *Lamiaceae*; (ii) To target genetically uniform, regenerated shoot-based clonal lines for: (a) preliminary characterization of key enzymes associated with the pentose phosphate pathway and linked to RA synthesis; (b) development of genetic transformation techniques for subsequent engineering of metabolic pathways associated with RA synthesis.

These research objectives have substantial implications for harnessing the genetic and biochemical potential of genetically heterogeneous, food-related medicinal plant species. The success of this research also provides novel methods and strategies to gain access to metabolic pathways of pharmaceutically important metabolites from ginger, curcuma, chili peppers, melon or other food-related species with novel phenolics.

Key words: Biotechnology, medicinal plants, phenolics, phytochemicals, phytopharmaceuticals, *Lamiaceae*, rosmarinic acid, proline, pentose phosphate pathway, ginger, curcuma, chili pepper, melon

Phenolic phytopharmaceuticals from *Lamiaceae*

Higher plants are very important sources of secondary metabolites which have therapeutic and pharmaceutical applications. These secondary metabolites are species specific and can be termed phytopharmaceuticals. These metabolites, without the knowledge of the specific physiologically active components, have been a part of human health for over many centuries and across all cultures. Despite excellent advances in synthetic organic chemistry, plants are still the sole source of about 25% of prescribed medicines¹. Some economically important plant-derived drugs obtained from plants are provided in Table 1²⁻⁴.

Among various phytopharmaceuticals, plant phenolics are an important group of secondary metabolites having diverse food processing, dietary and medicinal applications. Examples of plant phenolics that are used or have potential as food preservatives and pharmaceuticals are provided in Table 2.

Species belonging to the family *Lamiaceae* (Labiatae) are important sources of phenolic-type food preservatives and pharmaceuticals. Therapeutic and food processing use of these species can be observed in several countries. Examples are provided in Table 3.

Genetic heterogeneity in family *Lamiaceae*

The major problem in the use of phytopharmaceuticals from the family *Lamiaceae* is the plant to plant variability of specific metabolites due to genetic heterogeneity common to all species in this family. Much of this genetic heterogeneity is due to gynodioecy, resulting in breeding character being influenced by natural cross-pollination⁵. Floral diversity and bee

pollination also contribute to high cross-pollination. This gives rise to substantial variability in active ingredient levels and quality^{6,7}. Therefore, the biochemical characterization of pathways and genetic access to specific metabolites in all species in *Lamiaceae* is difficult. Each plant within a given sample extract originates from a different heterozygous seed. Also, this makes breeding of elite varieties targeting enhancement of specific metabolites very challenging. Current genetic improvements have been limited to random selection and in some cases vegetative propagation³.

Rosmarinic acid and medical applications

Rosmarinic acid is an important caffeoyl ester (phenolic depside) with proven medicinal properties and well characterized physiological functions. Rosmarinic acid is found in substantial quantities in several species in the family *Lamiaceae* with medicinal uses. *Salvia lavandulifolia* is used as choleric, antiseptic, astringent and hypoglycemic drug in southern Europe and contains high quantities of RA⁸. Rosmarinic acid-containing *Ocimum sanctum* (holy basil) is widely used to reduce fevers and against gastrointestinal disease in India. In Mexico, high RA-containing *Hyptis verticillata* is widely used by Mixtec Indians against gastrointestinal disorders and skin infections⁹. In Indonesia and several other parts of the southeast Asia RA-containing

Correspondence address: Kalidas Shetty, Laboratory of Food Biotechnology, Department of Food Science, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA 01003 USA
Tel: +1-413-545-1022; Fax: +1-413-545-1262
Email: Kalidas@food.sci.umass.edu

Orthosiphon aristatus is known for its diuretic properties and is also used against bacterial infections and inflammations of the urinary system¹⁰. *Salvia cavaleriei*, a high RA-containing species is used in China for treatment of dysentery, boils and injuries¹¹. Rosmarinic acid-containing plant extracts also have excellent potential as antioxidants for food preservation¹²⁻¹⁴.

Table 1. Economically important plant-derived metabolites.

Species	Metabolites	Use/Potential Use
<i>Artemisia annua</i>	artemesinin	antimalarial
<i>Atropa belladonna</i>	atropine/ hyoscyamine	parasympatholytic
<i>Buddleja globosa</i>	verbascoside	antihepatotoxic
<i>Catharanthus roseus</i>	vincristine	anticancer
<i>Chondodendron tomentosum</i>	d-tubcurarine	muscle relaxant
<i>Coleus blumei</i>	rosmarinic acid	anti-inflammatory
<i>Colchicum autumnale</i>	colchicine	antigout
<i>Digitalis purpurea</i>	digitoxin/digoxin	cardiotonic glycoside
<i>Dioscorea spp</i>	diosgenin	oral contraceptive
<i>Forsythia suspensa</i>	suspensaside	antialsthmatic
<i>Lithospermum spp.</i>	lithospermic acid	antigonadotropic
<i>Origanum vulgare</i>	galangin	antimutagen
<i>Papaver somniferum</i>	morphine	analgesics
<i>Pilocarpus jaborandi</i>	imidazole alkaloids	glaucoma
<i>Rauwolfia serpentina</i>	reserpine	antihypertensive
<i>Rheum officinale</i>	anthrones	cathartic
<i>Salvia multiorrhiza</i>	salvianolic acid A	antiulcer
<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>	thymol	anticaries/ antibacterial
<i>Zingiber cassumunar</i>	curcuminoids	anti-inflammatory

Table 2. Important plant phenolics and pharmaceutical potential.

Species	Metabolite	Use/Potential	Ref.
<i>Curcuma longa</i>	curcumin	cancer chemo-preventive	15
<i>Curcuma mangga</i>	curcumin	antioxidant	16
<i>Digitalis purpurea</i>	purpureaside	Immuno-suppressive	4
<i>Glycine max</i>	isoflavonoids	cancer chemo-preventive	17
<i>Lithospermum sp.</i>	lithospermic	antigonodo-acid tropic	18
<i>Origanum vulgare</i>	galanigin	antimutagen	19
<i>Pimpinella anisum</i>	anethole	antifungal	20
<i>Plantago asiatica</i>	Hellicoside	antialsthmatic	4
<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>	rosmarinic acid	anti-inflammatory	21
<i>Salvia multiorrhiza</i>	salvianolic acid	antiulcer	4
<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>	thymol	anticaries	22
<i>Vitis vinifera</i>	flavonoids	prevents cardiovascular problems	23
<i>Zingiber cassumunar</i>	curcuminoids	antioxidants	24
<i>Zingiber officinale</i>	gingereonone A	antifungal	4

Pharmacological functions of rosmarinic acid

The pharmacological effect of RA through inhibition of several complement-dependent inflammatory processes has been clearly proven²¹. Therefore, it has tremendous potential as a therapeutic agent for control of complement activation diseases^{21,29}. Rosmarinic acid has been reported to have effects on both the classical C3-convertase and on the cobra venom factor-induced alternative convertase pathway²¹. Other *in vivo* studies show that RA inhibits several complement-dependent inflammatory processes including paw edema induced by cobra venom factor and ovalbumin/anti-ovalbumin-mediated passive cutaneous anaphylaxis²⁹. It also inhibits prostacyclin synthesis induced by complement activation^{30,31}. It is also

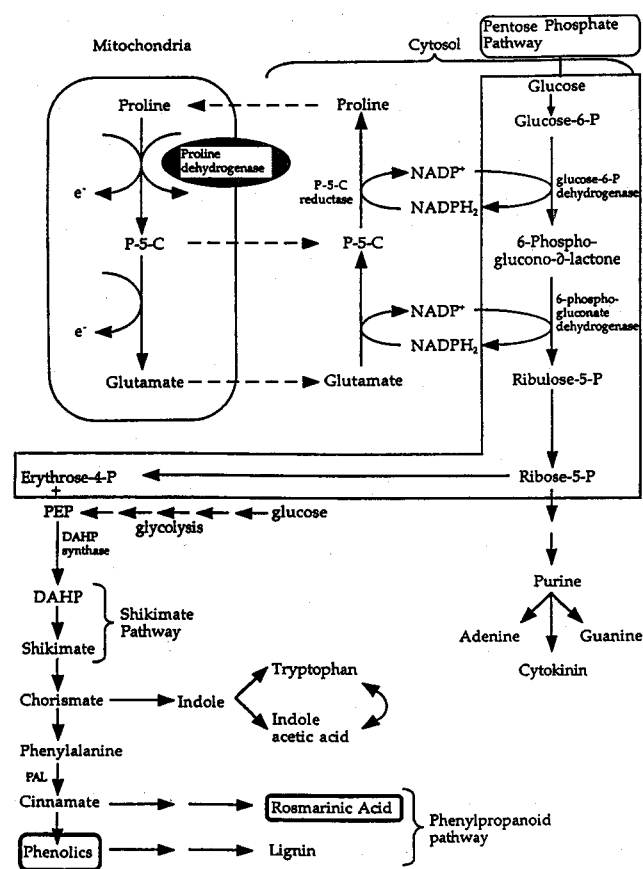
known to have complement-independent effects such as scavenging of oxygen free radicals³² and inhibition of elastase. The relative safety of RA in relation to other methods of complement depletion is well documented³². Among other actions of RA are antithyrotropic activity in tests with human thyroid membrane preparations, inhibition of complement dependent components of endotoxin shock in rabbits and the ability to react rapidly to viral coat proteins and so inactivate the virus^{25,29}. Rosmarinic acid also inhibits Forskolin-induced activation of adenylate cyclase in cultured rat thyroid cells³³.

Table 3. Examples of species in Lamiaceae used as medicine and food preservatives.

Species	Key Metabolite	Use	Ref.
<i>Hyptis verticillata</i>	rosmarinic acid	gastro- intestinal disorders	9
<i>Lavandula spp.</i>	rosmarinic acid	anti-inflammatory	25
<i>Lithospermum erythrorhizon</i>	rosmarinic acid	anti-inflammatory -	26
<i>Origanum vulgare</i>	lithospermic acid	antigonodotropic	18
	galangin	antimutagen	19
	rosmarinic acid	anti-inflammatory	27
<i>Orthosiphon aristatus</i>	rosmarinic acid	diuretic and anti-inflammatory	10
<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>	rosmarinic acid	anti-inflammatory	21
<i>Salvia multiorrhiza</i>	salvianolic acid	antiulcer	4
<i>Salvia officinalis</i>	rosmarinic acid	antioxidant	12
<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>	thymol	antioxidant	28
<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>	Thymol, carvacrol	anticaries	22

Production of rosmarinic acid

Rosmarinic acid has been targeted for production using undifferentiated cell suspension cultures of several species^{10,25,34-38}. The main purpose of cell suspension production of RA is the potential for large-scale production in bioreactors^{1,39}. Although large-scale production in bioreactors is feasible for RA, undifferentiated cell suspensions are not practical for metabolites produced in differentiated structures (e.g. anethole in seeds, curcumin in rhizomes and thymol in glandular cells of leaves). An additional disadvantage of undifferentiated callus-based suspension cultures is that the DNA is more error prone and therefore cell lines are genetically unstable⁴⁰. Even if problems of genetic stability and differentiation-linked metabolite production are solved, bioreactor-based production requires high initial operating costs and is not feasible in regions with poor industrial infrastructure. Gaining access to phenolic phytopharmaceuticals like rosmarinic acid for all people at low cost can be best achieved by improving plant varieties for specific metabolites using modern biotechnology. Such improved, elite varieties can be incorporated into existing agricultural practices and systems. With the above perspectives, the strategies outlined in this paper are to isolate high RA-producing genetically uniform, shoot-based clonal lines of several species belonging to the family Lamiaceae using tissue culture techniques. These species are known to produce RA and are used in several parts of the globe either as food additives, preservatives or medicines. The species chosen for this study are: (i) *Rosmarinus officinalis* (rosemary), (ii) *Ocimum sanctum* (holy basil), (iii) *Origanum vulgare* (oregano) and *Thymus vulgaris* (thyme). The high RA-producing, elite, shoot-based clonal lines will be screened based on resistance to *Pseudomonas* sp.⁴¹⁻⁴³. The rationale for such a selection strategy is outlined in Figure 1 and described below.

Figure 1. Proline-linked pentose phosphate pathway.

Selected elite, shoot-based clonal lines will be used to gain access to pathways important for biosynthesis of RA and for developing genetic transformation techniques. This will be used for subsequent engineering of RA biosynthesis using modern molecular biology techniques. Such a model for isolating genetically uniform, elite, shoot-based clonal lines from a heterogeneous and unknown genetic background can be extended for the metabolic engineering of other phytopharmaceuticals.

Pathways associated with rosmarinic acid biosynthesis

It has been shown that two aromatic amino acids phenylalanine and tyrosine are precursors of RA biosynthesis⁴⁴. Using radioactive phenylalanine and tyrosine it was

established that they are incorporated into caffeic acid and 3,4-dihydroxyphenyllactic acid moieties, respectively⁴⁴. Steps in RA biosynthesis originating from phenylalanine and tyrosine have been characterized (Figure 2)^{10,38,45-47}. In several cell cultures, the activity of phenylalanine ammonia-lyase was correlated to RA^{10,47}. Using *Anchusa officinalis* cell suspension cultures it was reported that tyrosine aminotransferase catalyzes the first step of the transformation of tyrosine to 3,4-dihydroxyphenyllactic acid. Several isoforms of tyrosine aminotransferase were found to be active in cell suspension cultures of *Anchusa officinalis*^{46,47}. Prephenate aminotransferase in *Anchusa* cell suspension cultures was found to be important, and its activity was affected by 3,4-dihydroxyphenyllactic acid⁴⁸. Other enzymes of late steps in the RA biosynthesis pathway like hydroxyphenylpyruvate reductase and RA synthase were isolated and characterized in cell cultures of *Coleus blumei*⁴⁹⁻⁵¹.

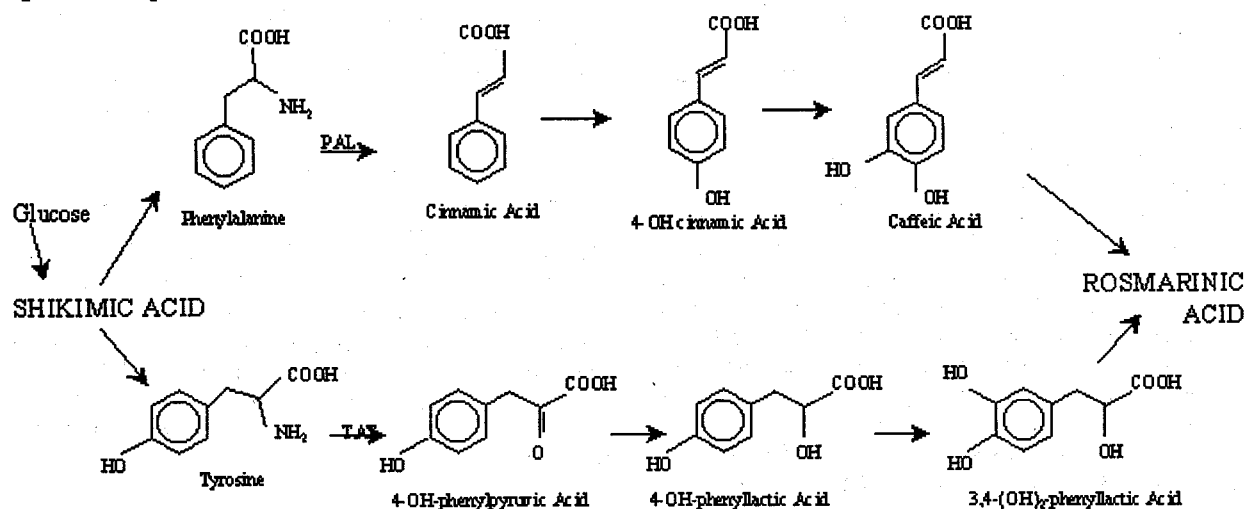
Recently, microsomal hydroxylase activities that introduce hydroxyl groups at position 3 and 3' of the aromatic rings of ester 4-coumaroyl-4-hydroxy-phenyl-lactate to give rise to RA were isolated³⁸. This led to the proposed complete biosynthetic pathway for RA biosynthesis originating from phenylalanine and tyrosine (Figure 2).

The above reports point to good success in understanding RA biosynthesis from phenylalanine and tyrosine using various cell suspension cultures. However, several major issues have to be addressed to gain access and control the interacting metabolic fluxes critical to RA biosynthesis and for subsequent metabolic engineering. The major gaps in understanding and significant questions are: (i) What is the role of primary metabolism, particularly the pentose phosphate pathway?; (ii) How is the pentose phosphate pathway regulated during RA synthesis?; (iii) What is the role of light in regulating RA biosynthesis?; (iv) How can the problems associated with genetic instability of undifferentiated callus cultures be resolved?; (v) How can the understanding of metabolic pathways and subsequent engineering of efficient RA biosynthesis be used to develop elite varieties for traditional and contemporary agricultural production systems?

Model and rationale for current research

1) Selection of high RA-producing, shoot-based clonal lines

This paper focusses on techniques to isolate genetically uniform, high rosmarinic acid-containing, shoot-based clonal lines for metabolic pathway analysis and for developing gene

Figure 2. Biosynthesis of rosmarinic acid from phenylalanine and tyrosine.

transfer techniques for subsequent metabolic engineering. This will help to develop excellent experimental systems and directions to fill gaps in knowledge of RA biosynthesis using several species used for food and medicinal applications. The basic strategy involves the isolation of genetically uniform, high RA-producing, shoot-based clonal lines from a heterogeneous genetic background. This heterogeneity is found in all species in the family *Lamiaceae* and since the breeding character is influenced by natural cross-pollination⁵. The use of genetically uniform, shoot-based clonal lines envisioned in this paper have the following advantages: (i) Shoot clones are genetically more stable than undifferentiated callus cultures; (ii) Shoot clones allow the characterization of light-regulated pathways associated with RA synthesis; (iii) Shoot clones can easily be targeted for large-scale greenhouse production of elite clonal lines or for incorporating into plant breeding programs to develop superior RA-producing seed varieties; (iv) Shoot clones targeted for genetic engineering of metabolic pathways can be easily regenerated to whole plants for incorporation into plant variety improvement programs.

2) Role of proline-linked pentose phosphate pathway

High RA-producing, shoot-based clonal lines originating from a single heterozygous seed among a heterogeneous bulk-seed population will be selected based on tolerance to a novel *Pseudomonas* sp. isolated from oregano. This strategy for selection of high RA clonal lines is based on the model that proline-linked pentose phosphate pathway is critical for driving metabolic flux (erythrose-4-phosphate) towards shikimate and phenylpropanoid pathways (Figure 1). Any clonal line with a deregulated proline synthesis pathway should have an overexpressed pentose phosphate pathway which allows excess metabolic flux to drive shikimate and phenylpropanoid pathway towards RA synthesis. Such proline-overexpressing clonal line should be tolerant to *Pseudomonas* sp. If the metabolic flux to RA is overexpressed it is likely to be stimulated in response to *Pseudomonas* sp. Therefore such a clonal line is likely to be tolerant to *Pseudomonas* sp. Such a clonal line should also have high proline and proline oxidation (proline dehydrogenase) and high RA content in response to *Pseudomonas* sp. In addition, in the presence of *Pseudomonas* sp. increased activity of key enzymes glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (pentose phosphate pathway), pyrroline-5-carboxylate reductase (proline synthesis pathway), proline dehydrogenase (proline oxidation pathway), 3-deoxy-D-arabino heptulosonate-7-phosphate synthase (shikimate pathway) and phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (phenylpropanoid pathway) should be observed. The rationale for this model is based on the role of the pentose phosphate pathway in driving ribose-5-phosphate towards purine metabolism in cancer cells⁵², differentiating animal tissues⁵³ and plant tissues⁵⁴. The hypothesis of this model is that the same metabolic flux from overexpression of proline-linked pentose phosphate pathway regulates the interconversion of ribose-5-phosphate to erythrose-4-phosphate driving the shikimate pathway. Shikimate pathway flux is critical for both auxin and phenylpropanoid biosynthesis, including RA. This hypothesis has been strengthened by preliminary results that in several oregano clonal lines RA biosynthesis was significantly stimulated by *Pseudomonas* sp. and responded to the bacterium by increasing both RA and proline biosynthesis^{42,55}. High RA-producing clonal lines selected based on the model will be targeted for preliminary characterization of key enzymes mentioned above. Such genetically uniform clonal lines will also be targeted for developing gene transformation techniques using *Agrobacterium* or particle gun bombardment.

The model will provide access to critical interlinking metabolic pathways associated with RA biosynthesis. This will allow more detailed analysis that will lead to metabolic engineering for efficient RA biosynthesis. This strategy for RA biosynthesis can be the foundation for metabolic engineering of other phytopharmaceuticals from cross-pollinating, heterogeneous species.

Regulation of the pentose phosphate pathway in plants

The pentose phosphate pathway is the alternate route for breakdown of carbohydrates⁵⁶. The important functions of this pathway are to generate NADPH for use in biosynthetic (anabolic) reactions and to provide ribose-5-phosphate for nucleotide synthesis and erythrose-4-phosphate for shikimate pathway syntheses^{56,57}. Therefore, it is also critical for the synthesis of phenylpropanoid pathway metabolites, including RA.

Up to 60% of the dry weight in some plant tissues can consist of metabolites derived from the shikimate pathway^{58,59}. Activity of the distinct isozymes of 3-deoxy-arabino heptulosonate-7-phosphate (DAHP) synthase in the shikimate pathway are dependent on metabolic flux from erythrose-4-phosphate⁶⁰⁻⁶⁴. This large flux of erythrose-4-phosphate cannot be exported from the Calvin cycle without rapid depletion^{59,65}. This has led to the suggestion that the oxidative pentose phosphate pathway must operate to provide the erythrose-4-phosphate for the shikimate pathway⁵⁹. This may be particularly important during plant response to micro-organisms, when metabolites derived from the shikimate pathway increase substantially⁶⁴.

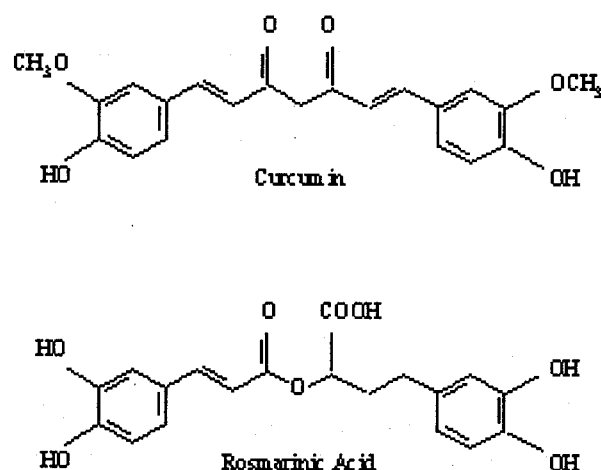
Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase catalyses the first committed and rate limiting step of the pentose phosphate pathway^{56,57}. This enzyme is strongly inhibited by NADPH and is known to be affected by NADPH/NADP ratio, pH, Mg⁺² and substrate concentration in the chloroplast^{56,66,67}. An increased requirement for NADPH during anabolic reactions would result in lowering of NADPH/NADP ratio that would deregulate glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase and increase metabolic flux through the pentose phosphate pathway (e.g. erythrose-4-phosphate for shikimate pathway)⁵⁶. The opposite would be true when NADPH/NADP ratio is high and metabolic flux to anabolic reactions would be reduced by inhibition of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase.

In plants, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase is known to exist both in the cytosol and plastids⁵⁷. To avoid futile cycles with photosynthetic carbon fixation, the pentose phosphate pathway in the chloroplast is known to operate at night⁵⁷. The cytosolic isoform is regulated by metabolites and the chloroplastic isoform is known to be regulated by covalent redox modification in light^{57,68,69}. A confirmation of these different modes of regulation is made difficult due to purification problems associated with the chloroplastic form⁷⁰ but not the cytosolic form⁶⁹. Recent success in isolating cDNA clones for both forms, cytosolic⁷¹ and plastidic⁵⁷ could open the door to more detailed study about the mode of regulation of the two isoforms.

Unlike animal systems, no clear evidence exists to show that the pentose phosphate pathway is activated and regulated by depletion of NADPH required for proline synthesis (Figure 1). The creation of such a proline-linked redox cycle is well established in animal models^{52,72,73} and some indirect evidence exists in plants⁵⁴. The stimulation of a proline-linked redox cycle in animal systems not only drives the pentose phosphate pathway but in addition proline may serve as a reductant replacing NADH as the hydrogen donor for oxidative phosphorylation in the mitochondria^{52,72}. Empirical indicators

that lead to the hypothesis and model outlined in this paper suggest that a proline-linked pentose phosphate pathway through depletion of NADPH for proline synthesis, may help drive metabolic flux towards the shikimate pathway and RA biosynthesis in response to *Pseudomonas* sp. These empirical evidences are outlined in the section on Preliminary Studies (below). Molecular investigation of this unique proline link to pentose phosphate pathway in relation to pharmaceutically important phenolic metabolites like RA and curcumin (Figure 3) are the long term goals based on the research directions described in this paper. This unique link will be targeted for detailed pathway analysis and metabolic engineering following the selection and access to elite clones, preliminary pathway analysis and optimization of gene transfer techniques.

Figure 3. Structure of (a) curcumin (b) rosmarinic acid.



Preliminary studies

(1) Tissue culture-based clonal propagation of species in Lamiaceae

As stated previously, species in the family Lamiaceae are open-pollinated and therefore genetically highly heterogeneous⁵. Therefore, every plant from a bulk seed population should have variability in the mode of regulation of RA biosynthesis. Therefore, genetically uniform clonal lines originating from a single heterozygous seed are critical for studying RA biosynthesis and its eventual engineering for overproduction. Genetically uniform clonal lines were generated via *in vitro* tissue culture techniques. This was initially attempted in oregano (*Origanum vulgare*). Multiple shoots from an apex explant were induced in benzylaminopurine-containing growth medium. This mode of shoot organogenesis is without an intervening callus phase and was induced through axillary bud proliferation. The rationale for the avoidance of callus phase was to avoid the genetic instability associated with undifferentiated callus tissue⁴⁰. Using benzylaminopurine-induced axillary bud proliferation, multiple clonal shoots were generated from single seedlings. Axillary bud proliferation results in two shoots along each node in the growing shoot axis. About 10-12 shoots were induced per apex explant. These clonal shoots were multiplied further or regenerated to whole plants to assemble a clonal line originating from a single seed⁷⁴. Such shoot-based clonal lines will be used for investigating the regulation of RA biosynthesis.

An accidental seed-borne contaminant in clonal line 0-4 has led to novel methods to select high and low RA clonal lines. The contaminant, identified as *Pseudomonas* sp.⁷⁴ induced higher levels of chlorophyll, phenolics and reduced

water content in several clonal lines tested⁷⁴. These *Pseudomonas* sp-induced physiological modifications helped oregano clones to adapt to outside environmental conditions without as much acclimation as normally required for *in vitro* tissue culture generated clonal plants. Other studies also confirmed that only polysaccharide-producing *Pseudomonas* strains induced the increased phenolics and reduced hyperhydration effects⁷⁵. Furthermore, the polysaccharide was purified, partially characterized, and treatment of shoot clones resulted in enhanced acclimation of plants to outside environmental conditions without increased total phenolics⁷⁶. Since polysaccharide-treated shoots were rigid, it was theorized that phenolic flux ended up as lignin⁷⁶.

(2) Selection of high RA clonal lines using *Pseudomonas* sp.

Pseudomonas sp-induced enhancement of acclimation of tissue cultured plants resulted in stimulation of phenolic flux⁷⁴. Since each clonal line was isolated from a heterogeneous background it is likely that different responses to *Pseudomonas* sp. should exist among different clonal lines. This should allow selection of clonal lines with diverse phenolics synthesizing abilities which may be directly related to their resistance to *Pseudomonas* sp. Other studies have shown that the ability to produce secondary metabolites in response to microbial interactions is correlated to increased resistance and survival of plants^{77,78}. It has also been shown that RA synthesis can be stimulated by microbial elicitors like yeast extract^{10,47} and that RA has antibacterial activity⁹. Based on these observations, polysaccharide-producing *Pseudomonas* sp. strain F was used to isolate high RA-producing clonal lines of oregano (*Origanum vulgare*)⁴², rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis*)⁴³ and thyme (*Thymus vulgaris*)^{41,79}.

(3) Selection of high RA-producing clonal lines of oregano⁴²

Using shoot-based clonal lines generated by axillary bud proliferation, resistance to *Pseudomonas* sp. and RA levels were measured (Table 4). It was clear that clonal lines tolerant to *Pseudomonas* sp. also had enhanced stimulation of RA synthesis. From this study 0-4 and 0M-1 were grouped as responsive clonal lines. Clonal lines 0M-8 and 0-5 were inhibited clonal lines. Clonal lines 0-4 and 0-5 are being used for further studies to determine if a proline-linked pentose phosphate pathway is associated with enhanced *Pseudomonas* tolerance and RA biosynthesis.

Table 4. *Pseudomonas* tolerance and RA synthesis in oregano clonal lines.

Clonal lines	<i>Pseudomonas</i> tolerance	RA (mg/g FW) ± SD
0-1 Control	Moderate (++)	1.6 (0.7)
0-1 Inoculated		3.3 (0.2)
0-4 Control	Moderate (+++)	1.6 (0.8)
0-4 Inoculated		4.2 (0.2)
0M-1 Control	High (++++)	2.8 (0.3)
0M-1 Inoculated		5.7 (0.8)
0M-8 Control	Poor (+)	2.9 (0.4)
0M-8 Inoculated		3.1 (0.3)
0-5 Control	Poor (+)	1.8 (0.8)
0-5 Inoculated		2.7 (0.9)

*Note: RA was measured 30 days after inoculation. Modified from ref 42. (Control refers to uninoculated shoots for each clonal line).

(4) Selection of high total phenolics and thymol-producing clonal lines of thyme⁴¹

Since oregano is closely related to thyme it is possible that the *Pseudomonas* strain F could be used to isolate high and low

phenolics clonal lines of thyme. This study analyzed 10 clonal lines of thyme (Table 5; includes 5 examples). These clonal lines were generated via benzylaminopurine-induced multiple shoot organogenesis through adventitious bud proliferation (multiple buds from a single node). This resulted in isolation of high (T-12), medium (T-16G) and low phenolic clonal lines for further investigations. The high phenolic clonal line also had high thymol content.

(5) Rosmarinic acid synthesis in high and low phenolics-producing thyme clonal lines in response to *Pseudomonas* sp.⁷⁹

Biosynthesis of RA in response to mucoid, partially mucoid and non-mucoid *Pseudomonas* sp. was investigated in high (T-12), medium (T-16G) and low (M-3) phenolics-producing clonal lines. This study provided insights, that in addition to RA stimulation, that the metabolic flux to lignin could be critical for thyme tolerance to *Pseudomonas* sp. The high RA-producing clonal line T-12 was highly tolerant to *Pseudomonas* sp. and mechanically rigid (indicating the possibility of higher lignification). This clonal line consistently produced high RA over a 30 day growth period in response to *Pseudomonas* sp.

This investigation also led to a thyme clonal line T-16G-non mucoid *Pseudomonas* sp. strain NMA combination that may favor metabolic flux to RA rather than lignin. This clonal line, T-16G was moderately tolerant to mucoid *Pseudomonas* sp. strain M4 and appeared partially rigid and inhibited.

Table 5. Total phenolic and thymol content of clonal lines of thyme and corresponding *Pseudomonas* tolerance.

Clonal Line	Total Phenolics (mg/g FW) ± SD	<i>Pseudomonas</i> Tolerance	Thymol (µg/g FW) ± SD
M-3 (control)	1.5 (0.2)	+	75 (10)
M-3 (inoculated)	2.0 (0.5)		
T-35 (control)	1.6 (0.4)	+	55 (10)
T-35 (inoculated)	2.2 (0.8)		
M-4 (control)	2.2 (0.2)	+	10 (5)
M-4 (inoculated)	2.2 (0.4)		
KM-40 (control)	1.3 (0.7)	++	125 (20)
KM-40 (inoculated)	3.2 (0.5)		
T-16G (control)	2.3 (0.2)	+++	150 (15)
T-16G (inoculated)	3.7 (0.6)		
T-12 (control)	2.7 (1.0)	++++	155 (15)
T-12 (inoculated)	4.8 (0.3)		

*Note: Phenolics were measured 25 days after inoculation and thymol was only measured in control after 60 days. Modified from ref 41.

(6) Selection of high RA-producing clonal lines of rosemary using *Pseudomonas* sp.⁴³

Using the *Pseudomonas* sp. isolated from oregano, high RA-producing clonal lines of rosemary were isolated. Unlike oregano, multiple shoot organogenesis was induced via adventitious bud proliferation (multiple shoots from the same node). About 3-10 shoot were induced/explant depending on the clonal line. In this study 5 classes of clonal lines with different abilities to produce RA were isolated. Clonal line R-1 was clearly low RA-producing and was inhibited by *Pseudomonas* inoculation⁴³. Clonal line R-7, consistently produced high RA in response to *Pseudomonas* sp. and RA production could be sustained over an extended 60 day growth period. Similarly, clonal lines R-16 and R-35 produced high RA, but unlike R-7 mechanical rigidity was reduced which may indicate reduced lignification. Clonal line R-15 was the most interesting clonal line in that it responds to *Pseudomonas*

sp. by producing high RA on day 25 but does not survive over a 60 day growth period due to excess phenolics. This could be an interesting clonal line to study what role glutathione-S-transferase has in controlling RA synthesis and *Pseudomonas* tolerance.

(7) Role of proline metabolism in regulating RA biosynthesis

Rationale: Proline biosynthesis is known to be activated during drought and frost tolerance^{80,81}. It is also known that glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase⁸², DAHP synthase^{83,84} and phenylalanine ammonia-lyase^{78,85} are activated during microbial interaction. Utilization of NADPH for proline synthesis during microbial interaction may reduce NADPH/NADP⁺ ratio which should activate glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase^{56,67}. Therefore, deregulation of pentose phosphate pathway by microbial-induced proline synthesis may provide the excess erythrose-4-phosphate for shikimate and therefore the phenylpropanoid pathway. At the same time proline could serve as a reductant (instead of NADH) for oxidative phosphorylation (ATP synthesis) in the mitochondria^{52,73}.

Table 6: Rosmarinic acid and proline levels of oregano clonal lines 0-4 and 0-5 in response to *Pseudomonas* sp

Clonal Lines	RA(mg/g FW) ± SD	Proline ± SD (µmol/g FW)
0-4 Control 30d	1.7 (0.1)	21.25 (7.3)
0-4 Inoculated 30d	3.9 (0.5)	36.37 (6.6)
0-5 Control 30d	2.8 (1.3)	14.82 (4.7)
0-5 Inoculated 30d	2.2 (0.7)	14.93 (9.2)
0-4 Control 41d	3.3 (0.6)	9.34 (0.8)
0-4 Inoculated 41d	7.1 (1.4)	26.64 (4.2)

*d-denotes days after inoculation.

Preliminary results⁵⁵ indicate that *Pseudomonas*-induced stimulation of RA biosynthesis is positively correlated with proline synthesis in *Pseudomonas* tolerant clonal line 0-4. This correlation is absent in *Pseudomonas*-inhibited 0-5 clonal line (Table 6).

(8) Polymerase chain reaction for identification of clonal lines

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was used to identify various clonal lines of oregano⁸⁶. Two methods were used in our preliminary studies. In the first method a pair of consensus tRNA gene primers facing outward from tRNA genes were used to amplify DNA⁸⁷. The PCR fingerprints developed from these primers are mainly derived from regions between closely linked tRNA. Genomic fingerprints for tRNA are largely conserved within species and any small variations should help classification of clonal lines in highly heterogeneous, cross-pollinating family like Lamiaceae. The two primers used were: P#1: 5'AGTCCGTGCTCTAACCAAC 3'; P#2: 5'GGGGGTTCTGAATCCCCGCCGC 3'.

PCR amplification was done in total volume of 25 µl using standard reagents⁸⁷. The amplification conditions were: 94°C for 1 min to denature, 50°C for 1 min for annealing of primer and 72°C for 2 min for primer extension. The PCR amplified products were separated on agarose gel and photographed by Poloroid camera by placing the gel on a UV transilluminator. Use of above tRNA primers allowed clear separation of all clonal lines of oregano reported in this paper⁸⁶.

A second method used Operon 10-mer kits (Operon Tech; CA) containing 10-base oligonucleotide primers used in genetic mapping⁸⁸. The arbitrary primers have been used

widely for genome mapping in plants, microorganisms and animals. A 10-mer (OP10-10) primer with the sequence: 5' GGTCTACACC 3' allowed separation of O-series oregano clonal lines from Kentucky gene pool vs M-series from Connecticut. Identification of clonal lines is now being attempted using a combination of arbitrary primers (Operon Tech, CA) with known consensus primers for the sequenced genes of key enzymes targeted in this proposal. This would allow separation of clonal lines based on specific variations in genes of interest for metabolic engineering. This will also provide the foundation to develop methods like RT-PCR to isolate cDNA of specific key enzymes from high RA and low RA-stimulated clonal lines.

(9) Genetic transformation using *Agrobacterium*

Preliminary studies indicate that species in the family Lamiaceae were susceptible to *Agrobacterium*. *Agrobacterium rhizogenes*-induced root and callus cultures have been developed from several clonal lines of rosemary, oregano and thyme. Some clonal lines in all the species were not susceptible. Such non-susceptible clonal lines were made susceptible when proline was added to the medium during the co-culture. This increased susceptibility may be linked to stimulation of total phenolics. Phenolics such as acetosyringone are essential for *Agrobacterium vir* gene expression, which in turn activates the transfer of T-DNA into the plant genome⁸⁹⁻⁹¹. Currently the susceptibility of various oregano clonal lines to wild strains of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* is being probed. This will lay the foundation for transfer of marker genes coding for antibiotic resistance and β -glucuronidase. The strategies to improve *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation were based on previous studies in melon⁹². These strategies were:

(i) improvement of multiple shoot organogenesis via adventitious buds, which allows maximum multiple shoot forming zone to be exposed to *Agrobacterium*; (ii) modulation of potential host factors like proline and phenolic metabolites during co-culture of explant and *Agrobacterium*; (iii) transformation at undifferentiated callus stage with subsequent regeneration of whole plants. In addition, the potential use of particle gun bombardment for genetic transformation (after development of efficient regeneration system) will be probed.

Some of the strategies that were successful in melon⁹² were used to develop *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation in *Pimpinella anisum* (anise-family: Umbelliferae)⁸⁶. Prior to this success it was extremely difficult to genetically transform anise using *Agrobacterium*. The transformation efficiency for anise in several experiments were in the range of 10 to 20%⁸⁶. The keys to success were: (i) initial dedifferentiation of root explants to produce callus tissue using naphthalene acetic acid; (ii) regeneration of undifferentiated callus to form maximum number of shoot using benzyladenine (25-30 shoots/callus explant); (iii) use of proline during the co-culture of callus and *Agrobacterium* increased transformation efficiency; (iv) the potential problem of genetic instability through prolonged subculture of callus culture was overcome by clonally multiplying transformed shoots via direct shoot organogenesis without an intermediate callus phase like in melon⁹³ and oregano⁷⁴. Several transformed plants carrying markers for antibiotics (kanamycin and hygromycin) and β -glucuronidase (GUS-stains blue when aglycone is released) have been isolated⁸⁶.

Since callus-based plant regeneration is feasible in oregano⁹⁴, the strategy developed for anise could be adopted for all key RA-producing clonal lines in all species mentioned in this paper. A successful genetic trans-formation strategy will be critical for subsequent metabolic engineering after key biochemical links and genes for RA biosynthesis are characterized.

Future goals

Future goals will involve purification and characterization of key enzymes and isolation of corresponding cDNA. Based on preliminary results there is some empirical evidence for the link between proline biosynthesis, oxidation and stimulation of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase. Following the studies envisioned in this paper, it would be only logical to initially target complete characterization of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase and proline dehydrogenase (proline oxidation) at the enzyme and gene level. Some work in this direction is planned for the immediate future. This will evolve from the work on polymerase chain reaction for clonal identification and on enzyme characterization. Purification of cytosolic glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase and isolation of corresponding cDNA will be pursued based on methods for potato^{57,71}. Mitochondrial membrane associated proline dehydrogenase will also be the target for purification based on Rayapati and Stewart⁹⁵ and isolation of cDNA will be pursued based on recent success in Arabidopsis⁹⁶. This would pave the way for: (i) characterization of promoters through isolation of genomic clones using cDNA probes; (ii) promoter-GUS fusions and analysis of expression in transgenic model plants like tobacco; (iii) overexpression and antisense technology for metabolic engineering of RA biosynthesis.

Conclusions

The above research goals have substantial implications for harnessing the genetic and biochemical potential of genetically heterogeneous, food-related medicinal plant species. Metabolic engineering to improve elite clonal lines can be subsequently targeted using modern biotechnology. Elite transgenic clonal lines can then be incorporated into commercial production systems linked to current agri-cultural/ horticultural practices. This ensures global access of important plant-based metabolites for food and pharmaceutical applications. The success of this project will result in techniques to generate metabolically diverse genetic stocks of several clonal lines that are amenable to gene transfer techniques. This research will also help to gain preliminary insights into how primary metabolism (proline-linked pentose phosphate pathway) may influence RA biosynthesis. This should pave the way for more detailed analysis of key enzymes and genes for subsequent metabolic engineering. The success of this research also provides novel methods and strategies to gain access to metabolic pathways of food-related, pharmaceutically important metabolites like curcumin, salvianolic acid, gingernone, capsaicin, salicylic acid or any newly discovered phenolic metabolites.

Acknowledgements. This research was supported by UMASS-Faculty Research Grants, University of Massachusetts Agricultural Experiment Station - and Cultor, Inc. (former Pfizer, Inc. - Food Div.). The author also appreciates the kind invitation from Monash Medical Center (Prof. Mark Wahlqvist) and Goodman Fielder, Inc. to present this paper.

利用生物工程技术來加强食物類酚化物的效益: 重點研究唇科類植物

摘要

來源草藥和發酵豆類的植物化學物質是最佳的食源性酚類代謝物。酚類化合物的重要性不僅在於對食品的防腐性能，它在藥物治療方面的應用也日漸增加。

馬薩諸塞大學食品生物工程的長遠研究課題的重點是探討食物性植物和植物發酵食品中對醫藥和健康有益的酚化物及其在生物合成中的分子學和生理學機制。目前的主攻方向是闡明連接脯氨酸的磷酸戊糖途徑在調節抗炎物，迷迭香酸 (RA) 合成中的作用: (I) 建立全新的組織培養技術從唇科類交叉授粉分離出迷迭香酸 (RA) 生產量高的異源性克隆芽株; (II) 集中在具有同一的遺傳性並且能重複生產的克隆芽株: (a) 首先應有 (RA) 合成相關的磷酸戊糖途徑的關鍵酶; (b) 其次是建立能利用遺傳轉化技術來生產與 (RA) 合成相關的代謝途徑。

上述研究課題對促進食物有關的異源遺傳性藥性植物的遺傳和生物化學性能具有實際的利用價值。這一研究的成功還將會為我們提供嶄新的方法和策略去探討生姜，黃瓜，辣椒，瓜類或其它含新的酚類化合物食物調料中具有的重要藥物代謝物的代謝途徑。

References

1. Kreis W and Reinhard E. The production of secondary metabolites by plant cells cultivated in bioreactors. *Planta Medica*, 1989; 55: 409-416.
2. Balandrin MF, Klocke JA, Wurtele ES and Bollinger WMH. Natural plant chemicals: sources of industrial and medicinal materials. *Science*, 1985; 228: 1154-1160.
3. Bajaj YPS, Furmanowa M and Olszowska O. Biotechnology of micropropagation of medicinal and aromatic plants. In: *Biotechnology in Agriculture and Forestry*, Vol. 4 (YPS Bajaj, eds) Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1988, 60-97.
4. Harbone JB and Baxter H. Phenylpropanoids. In: *Phytochemical Dictionary: A Handbook of Bioactive Compounds from Plants* (Harbone, JB and Baxter H, eds.) Taylor and Francis, London-Washington, DC, 1993: 472-488.
5. Richards AJ. Gynodioecy. In: *Plant Breeding Systems* (Richards AJ, eds) Chapter 9, G Allen and Unwin Publishers, London, UK. 1986, 89-331.
6. Fleisher A and Sneer N. *Oregano* species and *Origanum* chemotypes. *J Sci Food Agric*. 1982; 33: 441-446.
7. Svoboda KP and Deans SG. A study of the variability of rosemary and sage and their volatile oil on the British market: Their antioxidant properties. *Flav Fragrances J*. 1992; 7: 81-87.
8. Canigueral S, Iglesias J, Hamburger M and Hostettmann K. Phenolic constituents of *Salvia lavandulifolia* ssp. *lavandulifolia*. *Planta Medica*, 1989; 55: 92.
9. Kuhnt M, Probstle A, Rimpler H, Bauer R and Heinrich M. Biological and pharmacological activities and further constituents of *Hyptis verticillata*. *Planta Medica*, 1995; 61: 227-232.
10. Sumaryono W, Proksch P, Hartmann T, Nimtz M and Wray V. Induction of rosmarinic acid accumulation in cell suspension cultures of *Orthosiphon aristatus* after treatment with yeast extract. *Phytochemistry*. 1991; 30: 3267-3271.
11. Zhang HJ and Li LN. Salvianolic acid I: A new depside from *Salvia cavaleriei*. *Planta Medica*, 1994; 60: 70-72.
12. Cuvelier ME, Berset C and Richard H. Antioxidants constituents in sage (*Salvia officinalis*). *J Agric Food Chem*. 1994; 42:665-669.
13. Madsen HL and Bertelsen G. Spices as antioxidants. *Trends in Food Sci. Technol*, 1995; 6: 271-277.
14. Frankel EN, Huang SW, Aeschbach R and Prior E. Antioxidant activity of a rosemary extract and its constituents, carnosic acid, carnosol, and rosmarinic acid, in bulk oil, and oil-in-water emulsion. *J Agric Food Chem*. 1996; 44: 131-135.
15. Huang MT, Lysz T, Ferraro T and Conney AH. Inhibitory effects of curcumin on tumor promotion and arachidonic acid metabolism in mouse epidermis. In: *Cancer chemoprevention* (Wattenberg L,

- Lipkin M, Boone CW and Kelloff GJ, eds). CRC Press, Inc, Boca Raton, FL, 1992; 375-391.
16. Jitoe A, Masuda T, Tengah IGP, Suprpta DN, Gara IW and Nakatani N. Antioxidant activity of tropical ginger extracts and analysis of the contained curcuminoids. *J Agric Food Chem.* 1992; 40: 1337-1340.
17. Hutchins AM, Slavin JL and Lampe JW. Urinary isoflavonoid phytoestrogen and lignan excretion after consumption of fermented and unfermented soy products. *J Am Dietetic Assoc.* 1995; 95: 545-551.
18. Winterhoff H, Gumbinger HG and Sourgens H. On the antionogadotropic activity of *Lithospermum* and *Lycopus* species and some of their phenolic constituents. *Planta Medica*, 1988; 54: 101-106.
19. Kanazawa K, Kawasaki H, Samejima K, Ashida H and Danno G. Specific desmutagens (antimutagens) in oregano against a dietary carcinogen, Trp-P-2 are galangin and quercetin. *J Agric Food Chem.* 1995; 43: 404-409.
20. Himejima M and Kubo I. Fungicidal activity of polygodial in combination with anethole and indole against *Candida albicans*. *J Agric Food Chem.* 1993; 41: 1776-1779.
21. Peake PW, Pussell BA, Martyn P, Timmermans V and Charlesworth JA. The inhibitory effect of rosmarinic acid on complement involves the C5 convertase. *Int J Immunopharmac.* 1991; 13: 853-857.
22. Guggenheim S and Shapiro S. The action of thymol on oral bacteria. *Oral Microbiol Immunol.* 1995; 10: 241-246.
23. Frankel EN, Waterhouse AL and Teissedre PL. Principal phenolic phytochemicals in selected California wines and their antioxidant activity in inhibiting oxidation of human low-density lipoproteins. *J Agric Food Chem.* 1995; 43: 890-894.
24. Masuda T and Jitoe A. Antioxidative and antiinflammatory compounds from tropical gingers: Isolation, structure determination, and activities of cassumunins A, B and C, new complex curcuminoids from *Zingiber cassumunar*. *J Agric Food Chem.* 1994; 42: 1850-1856.
25. Lopez-Arnaldos T, Lopez-Serrano M, Barcelo AR, Calderon AA and Zapata MM. Spectrophotometric determination of rosmarinic acid in plant cell cultures by complexation with Fe^{2+} ions. *Fresenius. J Anal Chem.* 1995; 351: 311-314.
26. Mizukami H, Ogawa T, Ohashi H and Ellis BE. Induction of rosmarinic acid biosynthesis in *Lithospermum erythrorhizon* cell suspension cultures by yeast extract. *Plant Cell Rep.* 1992; 11:480-483.
27. Kikuzaki H and Nakatani N. Structure of a new antioxidative phenolic acid from oregano (*Origanum vulgare* L). *Agric Biol Chem.* 1989; 53: 519-524.
28. Deighton N, Glidewell SM, Deans SG and Goodman BA. Identification by EPR spectroscopy of carvacrol and thymol as the major sources of free radicals in the oxidation of plant essential oils. *J Fd Sci Agric.* 1993; 63: 221-225.
29. Engleberger W, Hadding V, Etschenberg E, Graf E, Leyck S, Winkelmann J and Parnham MJ. Rosmarinic acid. A new inhibitor of complement C3-convertase with anti-inflammatory activity. *Intl J Immunopharmac.* 1988; 10: 729-737.
30. Bult H, Herrman AG and Rampart M. Modification of endotoxin-induced haemodynamic and haemolytical changes in rabbit by methylprednisolone, $F(ab')_2$ fragments and rosmarinic acid. *Brit J Pharmacol.* 1985; 84: 317-327.
31. Rampart M, Beetsens JR, Bult H, Herman AJ, Parnham MJ and Winkelmann J. Complement-dependent stimulation of prostacyclin biosynthesis: inhibition by rosmarinic acid. *Biochem Pharmac.* 1986; 35: 1397-1400.
32. Nuytink JKS, Goris RJA, Kalter ES and Schillings PHM. Inhibition of experimentally induced microvascular injury by rosmarinic acid. *Agents Actions*, 1985; 17: 373-374.
33. Kleemann S and Winterhoff H. Rosmarinic acid and freeze-dried extract (FDE) of *Lycopus virginicus* are able to inhibit Forskolin-induced activation of adenylate cyclase in cultured rat thyroid cells. *Planta Medica*, 1990; 56: 683.
34. Zenk MH, El-Shagi H and Ulbrich B. Production of rosmarinic acid by cell suspension cultures of *Coleus blumei*. *Naturwissenschaften*, 1977; 64: 585-586.
35. De-Eknamkul W and Ellis BE. Rosmarinic acid production and growth characterization of *Anchusa officinalis* cell suspension cultures. *Planta Medica*, 1984; 50: 346-350.
36. Hippolyte I, Marin B, Baccou JC and Jonard R. Growth and rosmarinic acid production in cell suspension cultures of *Salvia officinalis*. *Plant Cell Rep.* 1992; 11: 109-112.
37. Mizukami H, Tabira Y and Ellis BE. Methyl jasmonate-induced rosmarinic acid biosynthesis in *Lithospermum erythrorhizon* cell suspension cultures. *Plant Cell Rep.* 1993; 12: 706-709.
38. Petersen M, Hausler E, Karwatzki B and Meinhard J. Proposed biosynthetic pathway for rosmarinic acid in cell cultures of *Coleus blumei*. *Benth. Planta*, 1993; 189: 10-14.
39. Ulbrich B, Wiesner W and Arens H. Large-scale production of rosmarinic acid from plant cell cultures of *Coleus blumei* Benth. In: *Primary and Secondary Metabolism of Plant Cell Cultures*, (Neumann K, eds) Springer-Verlag, Berlin-Heidelberg. 1985, 293-303.
40. Phillips RL, Kaeppler SM and Olhoft. Genetic instability of plant tissue cultures: Breakdown of normal controls. *Proc Natl Acad Sci, USA.* 1994; 91: 5222-5226.
41. Shetty K, Carpenter TL, Kwok D, Curtis OF and Potter TL. Selection of high phenolics-containing clones of thyme (*Thymus vulgaris* L) using *Pseudomonas* sp. *J Agric Food Chem.* 1996; 44:3408-3411.
42. Eguchi Y, Curtis OF and Shetty K. Interaction of hyperhydricity-preventing *Pseudomonas* sp. with oregano (*Origanum vulgare*) and selection of high phenolics and rosmarinic acid-producing clonal lines. *Food Biotechnol*, 1996; 10: 191-202.
43. Yang R, Curtis OF and Shetty K. Tissue-culture-based selection of high rosmarinic acid-producing clonal lines of rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis*) using hyperhydricity-reducing *Pseudomonas*. *Food Biotechnol*, 1997; 11: 73-88.
44. Ellis BE and Towers GHN. Biogenesis of rosmarinic acid in *Mentha* *Biochem J.* 1970; 118: 287-291.
45. De-Eknamkul W and Ellis BE. Purification and characterization of tyrosine aminotransferase activities from *Anchusa officinalis* cell cultures. *Arch Biochem Biophys.* 1987; 257: 430-438.
46. De-Eknamkul W and Ellis BE. Tyrosine aminotransferase: The entry point enzyme of the tyrosine-derived pathway in rosmarinic acid biosynthesis. *Phytochemistry.* 1987; 26: 1941-1946.
47. Mizukami H and Ellis BE. Rosmarinic acid formation and differential expression of tyrosine aminotransferase isoforms in *Anchusa officinalis* cell suspension cultures. *Plant Cell Rep.* 1991; 10: 321-324.
48. De-Eknamkul W and Ellis BE. Purification and characterization of prephenate aminotransferase from *Anchusa officinalis* cell cultures. *Arch Biochem Biophys.* 1988; 267: 87-94.
49. Petersen M and Alfermann AW. Two new enzymes of rosmarinic acid biosynthesis from cell cultures of *Coleus blumei*: hydroxyphenylpyruvate reductase and rosmarinic acid synthase. *Z Naturforsch.* 1988; 43c 501-504.
50. Hausler E, Petersen M and Alfermann AW. Hydroxyphenylpyruvate reductase from cell suspension cultures of *Coleus blumei*. *Benth Z Naturforsch.* 1991; 46C: 371-376.
51. Petersen MS. Characterization of rosmarinic acid synthase from cell cultures of *Coleus blumei*. *Phytochemistry.* 1991; 30: 2877-2881.
52. Phang JM. The regulatory functions of proline and pyrroline-5-carboxylic acid. *Curr Top Cell Regul.* 1985; 25: 91-132.
53. Jost A, Perlman S, Valentino O, Castanier M, Scholler R and Magre S. Experimental control of the differentiation of Leydig cells in the rat fetal testis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 1988; 85: 8094-8097.
54. Kohl DH, Schubert KR, Carter MB, Hagedorn CH and Shearer G. Proline metabolism in N_2 -fixing nodules: Energy transfer and regulation of purine synthesis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci, USA.* 1988; 85: 2036-2040.
55. Perry and Shetty, unpublished.
56. Copeland L and Turner JF. The regulation of glycolysis and the pentose-phosphate pathway. In: *The Biochemistry of Plants*, Vol. 11 (Stumpf PK and Conn EE, eds) New York: Academic Press, 1987; 107-125.
57. von Schaewen A, Langenkamper G, Graeve K, Wenderoth J and Scheibe R. Molecular characterization of plastidic glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase from potato in comparison to its cytosolic counterpart. *Plant Physiol.* 1995; 109: 1327-1335.
58. Jensen RA. The shikimate/arogenate pathway: Link between carbohydrate metabolism and secondary metabolism. *Physiol Plant*, 1985; 66: 164-168.
59. Schnarrenberger C, Flechner A and Martin W. Enzymatic evidence for a complete oxidative pentose phosphate pathway in chloroplasts and an incomplete pathway in the cytosol of spinach leaves. *Plant Physiol*, 1995; 108: 609-614.

60. Jensen RA, Morris P, Bonner C and Zamir LO. Biochemical interface between aromatic amino acid biosynthesis and secondary metabolism. In: Plant Cell Wall Polymers: Biogenesis and Biodegradation, Symposium Series, Vol. 379. (Lewis NG and Paice MG, eds). American Chemical Society, Washington, DC, 1989; 89-107.
61. Nyogi KK and Fink GR. Two anthranilate synthase genes in *Arabidopsis*: defense-related regulation of the tryptophan pathway. Plant Cell, 1992; 4: 721-733.
62. Last RL. The genetics of nitrogen assimilation and amino acid biosynthesis in flowering plants: progress and prospects. Int Rev Cytol. 1993; 143: 297-330.
63. Bohlmann J, deLuca V, Eilert U and Martin W. Purification and cDNA cloning of anthranilate synthase from *Ruta graveolens*: modes of expression and properties of native and recombinant enzymes. Plant J 1995; 7: 491-501.
64. Herrmann KM. The shikimate pathway as an entry to aromatic secondary metabolism. Plant Physiol, 1995; 107: 7-12.
65. Geiger DR and Servaites JC. Diurnal regulation of photosynthetic carbon metabolism in C3 plants. Annu Rev Plant Physiol Plant Mol Biol. 1994; 45: 235-256.
66. Lendzian KJ. Interactions between magnesium ions, pH, glucose-6-phosphate, and NADPH/NADP⁺ ratios in the modulation of chloroplast glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase. Planta, 1978; 141: 105-110.
67. Lendzian KJ. Modulation of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase by NADPH, NADP⁺ and dithiothreitol at variable NADPH/NADP⁺ ratios in an illuminated reconstituted spinach (*Spinacia oleracea* L.) chloroplast system. Planta, 1980; 148: 1-6.
68. Scheibe R and Anderson LE. Dark modulation of NADP-dependent malate dehydrogenase and glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase in the chloroplast. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta, 1981; 636: 58-64.
69. Fickenscher K and Scheibe R. Purification and properties of the cytoplasmic glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase from pea leaves. Arch Biochem Biophys. 1986; 247: 393-402.
70. Scheibe R, Geissler A and Fickenscher K. Chloroplast glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase: K_m shift upon light modulation and reduction. Arch. Biochem. Biophys, 1989; 274: 290-297.
71. Graeve K, von Schaewen A and Scheibe R. Purification, characterization, and cDNA sequence of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase from potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L). Plant J. 1994; 5: 353-361.
72. Phang JM, Downing SJ, Yeh GC, Smith RJ, Williams JA and Hagedorn CH. Stimulation of the hexose monophosphate-pentose phosphate pathway by pyrroline-5-carboxylate in cultured cells. J Cell Physiol. 1982; 110: 255-261.
73. Hagedorn CH and Phang JM. Transfer of reducing equivalents into mitochondria by the interconversions of proline and Δ-pyrroline-5-carboxylate. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 1983; 225: 95-101.
74. Shetty K, Curtis OF, Levin RE, Witkowsky R and Ang W. Prevention of vitrification associated with *in vitro* shoot culture of oregano (*Origanum vulgare*) by *Pseudomonas* spp. J Plant Physiol, 1995; 147: 447-451.
75. Shetty K, Curtis OF and Levin RE. Specific interaction of mucoid strains of *Pseudomonas* spp with oregano (*Origanum vulgare*) and the relationship to prevention of hyperhydricity (vitrification) in tissue culture. J Plant Physiol. 1996; 149: 605-611.
76. Shetty K, Carpenter TL, Curtis OF and Potter TL. Reduction of hyperhydricity in tissue cultures of oregano (*Origanum vulgare*) by extracellular polysaccharide isolated from *Pseudomonas* sp. Plant Science, 1996; 120: 175-183.
77. Ebel J. Phytoalexin synthesis: The biochemical analysis of the induction process. Ann Rev Phytopathol. 1986; 24: 325-364.
78. Dixon RA and Lamb CJ. Molecular communication in interactions between plants and microbial pathogens. Annu Rev Plant Physiol Plant Mol Biol. 1990; 41: 339-367.
79. Kwok D and Shetty K. *Pseudomonas* spp-mediated regulation of total phenolics and rosmarinic acid in thyme (*Thymus vulgaris*) clonal lines. J Food Biochem. 1996; 20: 365-377.
80. Csonka LN and Hanson AD. Prokaryotic osmoregulation: genetics and physiology. Annu Rev Microbiol. 1991; 45: 569-606.
81. Martinez CA, Maestri M and Lani EG. *In vitro* salt tolerance and proline accumulation in Andean potato (*Solanum* spp.) differing in frost resistance. Plant Science, 1996; 116: 177-184.
82. Muto S, Asahi T and Uritani I. Increase in the dehydrogenase activities of the pentose phosphate pathway in potato root tissue after slicing. Agric Biol Chem. 1969; 33: 176-189.
83. McCue KF and Conn EE. Induction of 3-deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate synthase activity by fungal elicitor in cultures of *Petroselinum crispum*. Proc Natl Acad Sci, USA. 1989; 86: 7374-7377.
84. Keith B, Dong X, Ausubel FM and Fink GR. Differential induction of 3-deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate-7-phosphate synthase genes in *Arabidopsis thaliana* by wounding and pathogenic attack. Proc Natl Acad Sci, USA 1991; 88: 8821-8825.
85. Dixon RA and Paiva N. Stress-induced phenylpropanoid metabolism. Plant Cell, 1995; 7: 1085-1097.
86. Ueno and Shetty, unpublished.
87. Welsh J and McClelland M. Genomic fingerprints produced by PCR with consensus tRNA gene primers. Nucleic Acids Res. 1991; 19: 861-866.
88. Williams JGK, Kubelik AR, Livak KJ, Rafalski JA and Tingey SV. DNA polymorphisms amplified by arbitrary primers are useful as genetic markers. Nucl Acids Res, 1990; 18: 6531-6535.
89. Winans SC. Transcriptional induction of an *Agrobacterium* regulatory gene at tandem promoters by plant-released phenolic compounds, phosphate starvation and acidic growth media. J Bact. 1990; 172: 2433-2438.
90. Vernade D, Herrera-Estrella A, Wang K and Van Montagu M. Glycine betaine allows enhanced induction of the *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* vir genes by acetosyringone at low pH. J Bact. 1988; 170: 5822-5829.
91. Stachel SE, Messens E, van Montague M and Zambryski P. Identification of the signal molecules produced by wounded plant cells that activate T-DNA transfer in *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*. Nature, 1985; 318: 624-629.
92. Shetty K, Ohshima M, Murakami T, Oosawa K and Ohashi Y. Transgenic melon (*Cucumis melo* L) and potential for expression of novel proteins important to food industry. Food Biotechnol. 1997; 11: 111-128.
93. Shetty K, Shetty GA, Nakazaki Y, Yoshioka K, Asano Y and Osawa K. Stimulation of benzyladenine-induced *in vitro* shoot organogenesis in *Cucumis melo* L. by proline, salicylic acid and aspirin. Plant Science, 1992; 84: 193-199.
94. Kumari N and Saradhi PP. Regeneration of plants from callus cultures of *Origanum vulgare* L. Plant Cell Rep. 1992; 11: 476-479.
95. Rayapati JP and Stewart CR. Solubilization of a proline dehydrogenase from maize (*Zea mays* L) mitochondria. Plant Physiol. 1991; 95: 787-791.
96. Kiyosue T, Yoshida Y, Yamaguchi-Shinozaki K and Shinozaki K. A nuclear gene encoding mitochondrial proline dehydrogenase an enzyme involved in proline metabolism, is upregulated by proline but down-regulated by dehydration in *Arabidopsis*, Plant Cell, 1996; 8: 1323-1335.