

Doctor Dissertation

**Regulation of steroidal glycoalkaloid biosynthesis by jasmonate-responsive
Ethylene Response Factors in tomato**

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<p>Yield of tomato, an economically important crop in the Solanaceae family, can be adversely affected by pathogens and insect herbivores. Tomato genes involved in the regulation and biosynthesis of defense compounds, which often cause food poisoning, may be exploited to breed new tomato cultivars that benefit human health. Among tomato defense compounds, steroidal glycoalkaloids (SGAs) are the major cholesterol-derived pseudo-alkaloids. Although many enzyme genes in the biosynthetic pathway of SGAs have been recently cloned, it is not well known how these enzyme genes are up-regulated after the herbivore attack. By combining approaches using molecular biology, transcriptomics, and metabolite analysis, I found that a group of jasmonate-responsive ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR (JRE) transcription factors, which are close homologs of alkaloid regulators in <i>Catharanthus roseus</i> and tobacco, regulate SGA biosynthesis genes in tomato. Alteration of JRE functions in transgenic plant or hairy root lines by overexpression or dominant suppression caused drastic changes in SGA accumulation and in expression patterns of enzyme genes involved in the whole multistep pathway, starting from the mevalonate substrates and leading to the final SGA products. Transactivation and DNA-protein binding assays demonstrated that JRE4 activates the transcription of SGA biosynthetic genes by binding to the GCC-box-like elements in their promoters. I also found that jasmonates act upstream of the induction of JRE4-mediated SGA biosynthesis. The JRE4-binding elements occur at significantly higher frequencies in the proximal promoter regions of the genes regulated by JRE4, supporting the JRE4-mediated transcriptional coordination of a series of metabolic genes involved in the SGA biosynthesis. My research results provide the novel insights of regulatory mechanism of tomato toxic compound biosynthesis mediated by a conserved jasmonate-inducible ERF transcription factors in tomato, and will be useful for elucidating regulatory mechanisms of defense compounds found in related <i>Solanaceae</i> crops, such as potato and eggplant.</p>			

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Introduction

Tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) is a *Solanaceae* vegetable rich in vitamins, antioxidants and other nutrients (Kimura and Sinha 2008). In US alone, fresh tomatoes of 27.3 million pounds, worth \$1.14 billion, were harvested in 2014 (USDA NASS 2015). Although originated in warm climate area, tomato is widely cultivated across all continents in part because of its high adaptability to various environments (UGA Extension 2014). Tomato, as a model species of plant biology, has been intensively studied to understand the genetic and evolutionary bases of fruit development (Ososio et al. 2011, Seymour et al. 2013), flowering (Samach and Lotan 2007), and biotic and abiotic responses (AbuQamar et al. 2009). Genetic modification through transformation is readily available for the species, and has been used to develop cultivars with novel genetic traits (Shikata and Ezura 2016). Whole genome sequence of a domesticated cultivar of tomato (cv. Heinz 1706) was determined (The tomato genome consortium 2012)

Plants, as sessile organisms, have evolved multitudes of defense and adaptation mechanisms to endure in fluctuating environments. To ward off biotic threats imposed by pathogens and pests, plants produce and accumulate toxic substances, including a diverse array of alkaloids, terpenoids, and other metabolites with bioactive properties (Bednarek and Osbourn 2009). For instance, saponin from *Avena sativa* disrupt cell membrane of pathogens (Osbourn et al. 1996), morphine from opium poppy (*Papaver somniferum*) blocks specific receptors in central nervous systems (Moriyama et al. 2001), and DIMBOA-glucoside from *Zea mays* inhibits nutrient absorption in insect gut (Frey et al. 2009). Plant-derived chemicals, being widely exploited by human as valuable compounds, are often considered unwanted ingredients in food crops because of their adverse impacts on human health (Betz 1999), and elimination or reduction of such phytochemicals has been considered critical in plant breeding. Complex metabolic pathways, encompassing precursor-supplying primary pathways and downstream specialized pathways, are engaged in the production of defense chemicals, and the regulation of the pathways, often represented with transcriptional coordination of structural genes, is required to ensure the restrained implementations of costly chemical defense, which usually impose burdens on growth and development in plants (Baldwin 1998).

Solanaceae plants synthesize steroidal glycoalkaloids (SGAs) (Itkin et al, 2011,

Itkin et al. 2013, Iijima et al 2013, Chowański et al. 2016); over a one hundred of SGAs, including α -tomatine, dehydrotomatine, and esculeosides in tomato (Itkin et al. 2011, Cárdenas et al. 2015), α -solanine and α -chaconine in potato (Itkin et al. 2013, Cárdenas et al. 2015), and α -solasonine and α -solamargine in eggplant (Mennela et al. 2012), has been found in *Solanaceae* (Chowański et al. SGAs are mainly produced and accumulated in green parts of plants, such as leaves and immature fruits in tomato, and sprouting shoots in potato. When consumed, most SGAs have lethal or sub-lethal effects on herbivorous insects (Itkin et al. 2013, Chowański et al. SGAs have cholesterol-derived steroidal backbone attached with a chain of three or four sugar residues (Cárdenas et al. 2015). All of the steps involved in SGA biosynthesis starting from acetyl-CoA are schematically shown in **Fig. 1**. Steroidal backbones of SGAs, such as tomatidine and solanidine, are synthesized from cholesterol by a series of enzymes encoded by *GLYCOALKALOID METABOLISM (GAME)* genes in potato and tomato (Itkin et al. 2011, Itkin et al. 2013, Cárdenas et al. 2015) (**Fig. 1**). Like other metabolic genes forming the clusters in plants (Boycheva et al. 2014, Osbourn 2010a and 2010b), *GAME* genes were found to be clustered together in tomato and potato genomes (Itkin et al. In the final part of the biosynthesis, three and four sugar moieties are attached to the steroidal aglycones by multi-step glycosylation steps catalyzed by GAMEs with UDP-glycosyltransferase activities (**Fig. 2**). During ripening of tomato fruits, α -tomatine is converted to lycoescosides, e.g. esculeoside A, less toxic and health benefit-compounds (Iijima et al. 2008, Yamanaka et al. 2009) (**Fig. 2**).

Jasmonates (JAs) play central signaling roles in a wide range of plant resistance and developmental responses (Wasternack and Hause 2013), including the elicitation of defense chemical pathways. Among different forms of JAs synthesized in plants, isoleucine-conjugated jasmonate (jasmonoyl-L-isoleucine; JA-Ile) is the most effective form of naturally occurring JAs (Fonseca et al. 2009) (**Fig. 3**). Methyl jasmonate (MeJA) has been widely used as effective elicitors to induce the production of secondary metabolites in plant cultures (Yukimune et al. 1996). Perception of JA signals and following steps, mediated by CORONATINE INSENSITIVE 1 (COI1), JASMONATE ZIM-DOMAIN proteins (JAZs) and JAZ-interacting transcription factors, have been elucidated through molecular and genetic studies and found conserved among the plant species (Wasternack and Hause 2013) (**Fig. 3**). JA-Ile promotes the COI1/JAZ complex formation and degradation of JAZ repressor proteins by 26S proteasome complex

(Pauwels and Goossens 2011). The degradation of JAZs releases basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH)-family MYC2 and other transcription factors bound by JAZ repressors in the absence of JA-Ile, leading to the activation or repression of genes responsible for JA-mediated transcriptional control (Zhang et al. 2015) (**Fig. 3**). The molecular mechanisms linking the conserved JA signaling with downstream defense metabolisms have been intensively studied (De Geyter et al. 2012). Plant secondary metabolisms can also be controlled by JA-mediated COI1/JAZ signaling cascade via bHLH-family MYC2 transcription activation. A group of JA-inducible ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR (ERF) transcription factors, categorized in clade 2 of group IXa (Nakano et al. 2006, Shoji et al. 2010, Shoji et al. 2013), including OCTADECANOID-DERIVATIVE RESPONSIVE CATHARANTHUS 3 (ORCA3) from *Catharanthus roseus* and ERF189 from tobacco, have been found to play similar regulatory roles in JA-induced alkaloid biosynthesis in distinct species; ORCA3 controls the JA-dependent production of monoterpenoid indole alkaloids, including clinically important compounds, in the medicinal species (van der Fits and Memelink 2000), whereas JA-induced formation of ornithine-derived nicotine is regulated by ERF189 in tobacco (Shoji et al. 2010) (**Fig. 4**). JA-inducible *ORCA3* and *ERF189* mediate the coordinated transcription of a series of metabolic and transport (Shoji et al. 2009) genes involved in the alkaloid pathways by recognizing specific GCC box-like elements found in promoters of the targeted genes (van der Fits and Memelink 2001, Shoji et al. 2010, Shoji and Hashimoto 2011a). JA-inducible expression of *ORCA3* and *ERF189* is regulated by bHLH-family MYC2 transcription factor (Zhang et al. 2011, Shoji and Hashimoto 2011b), one of the JAZ-interacting factors, involved in the regulation of a wide range of JA downstream responses (**Fig. 4**).

Tomato has six *JA-Responsive ERF (JRE)* genes, phylogenetically related to alkaloid-regulating *ORCA3* and *ERF189*, and five of the *JREs* are clustered together on chromosome 1 (**Fig. 5**). In this study, I performed the transcript profiling and metabolite analyses of transgenic tomato lines with altered *JRE* function, and demonstrated that *JREs* play central roles in the transcriptional regulation of a long multi-step pathways leading to SGAs, from isoprenoid-supplying mevalonate pathway to GAME-mediated steps after cholesterol. Transactivation and DNA-protein binding studies indicated that *JRE4* positively controls the biosynthesis genes by recognizing GCC box-like elements in their

promoters. Amino acid substitution in the DNA-binding domain of JRE4 causes loss-of-JRE4 function to recognize with JRE-binding site in promoter region of SGA gene. Significantly frequent occurrences of putative JRE-binding elements in proximal 5'-flanking regions of *JRE*-regulated genes, including genes involved in SGA biosynthesis, implicated the *JRE*-mediated transcriptional coordination of the genes.

Experimental procedures

Plant growth, transformation and treatment

Sterilized seeds of tomato, *Solanum lycopersicum* cv. Micro-Tom, were germinated and grown to the seedlings on half-strength Gamborg B5 medium solidified with 0.6% (w/v) agar and supplemented with 2% (w/v) sucrose. Two-week-old seedlings were transferred onto the soil in pots and grown to maturity in greenhouse.

A coding region of *JRE4* was cloned into the *Bam*HI and *Sac*I sites on pBI121 to generate a binary vector *p35S::JRE4* for overexpression. The *p35S::JRE4* vector was introduced into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain GV2260 by electroporation. *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation to generate transgenic tomato plants was done according to Sun et al. (2006). Shoots were selected on solidified Murashige and Skoog medium containing 100 mg liter⁻¹ kanamycin. Diploid individuals were screened in T₀ generation. Transgenic plants of T₃ generation were analysed.

For gene expression analyses, leaves and roots from 4 week-old plantlets grown in greenhouse were submerged in B5 medium with 100 μM MeJA and incubated for 24 h in the dark. Four individuals of 7 week-old plants were placed in airtight plastic containers (ca. 8.1 liters of volume), with a cotton sheet soaked with 5 ml of 100 μM MeJA. The cotton was replaced with a newly soaked one every day during the duration. Leaves detached from plants exposed to MeJA vapour for 4 d were used for metabolite analysis.

To generate the dominant suppression vectors, coding sequences of *JRE3*, *JRE4*, and *JRE5* were amplified by PCR with primers including the restriction sites and a sequence for EAR motif (5'-CGGCCGCTTGATTTGGATCTTGAAGCTCAGACTTGGATTTGCTTA-3'; encoding LDLDLELRGFA; Hiratsu et al., 2003) and inserted into the *Xba*I and *Sac*I sites on pBI121. To generate transgenic hairy roots, tomato hypocotyls from 7-day-old seedlings were infected with *Agrobacterium rhizogenes* strain ATCC15834 harboring a binary vector by briefly contacting one ends of hypocotyl segment (1.5 cm in length) to a bacterial colony and then standing the segments on the same agar medium with the attached ends up. Hairy roots emerging from infected sites were excised and subcultured every week twice on the solidified B5 medium containing 300 mg liter⁻¹ cefotaxime for disinfection and 50 mg liter⁻¹ kanamycin for drug-

resistance selection. The selected lines were maintained by subculturing every week in 125-ml glass flasks filled with 25 ml of liquid B5 medium supplemented with 2% (w/v) sucrose with shaking at 100 rpm in the dark. MeJA was directly added to 4-day-old cultures to a final concentration of 100 μ M.

cDNA microarray analysis

Total RNA was isolated from leaves treated with MeJA for 24 h and hairy roots treated with MeJA for 24 h using an RNeasy kit (Qiagen). RNA integrity was checked with an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent). Total RNA (500 ng) was used to generate Cyanine 3-labelled cRNA probes using a Quick Amp Labeling Kit, One-Color (Agilent). Tomato custom oligoarray with 60-mer probes of more 40,000 sequences, designed using transcript sequences of the Tomato Gene Index Version 11 (LeGI v.11; <http://www.danafarber.org/>), was hybridized with the labelled samples and scanned, and data were captured and processed as described (Ruiu et al. 2015). Due to poor labelling, hybridization was cancelled for sample from *JRE4-EAR* line #2.

Probes with low signal intensities (averages for the two controls <0.2) and intensities variable between the lines (differences between the two controls >2.5 folds) were excluded from the analysis. Values relative to the controls were obtained by pairwise comparisons and averaged for each construct; defined R_{ox} , R_{j3} , R_{j4} , and R_{j5} derived from data for *JRE4-OX*, *JRE3-EAR*, *JRE4-EAR*, and *JRE5-EAR* lines, respectively. For overexpression experiment, probes with $R_{ox}>5$ are listed in **Supplementary Table S1**. For suppression experiment, Q is defined as $Q^2=R_{j3}^2+R_{j4}^2+R_{j5}^2$ and probes with $Q<0.85$ are listed in **Supplementary Table S2**.

qRT-PCR

Total RNA was isolated from plant samples that had been ground in liquid nitrogen using RNeasy kit (Qiagen) and then converted to first-strand cDNA using ReverTra Ace qPCR RT Master Mix (Toyobo) with oligo(dT) primer. The cDNA templates were amplified using a LightCycler 96 (Roche) with SYBR Premix Ex Taq (Takara) according to Shoji et al. (2010). The primer sequences are given in **Supplementary Table S9**. *EF1 α* (Solyc05g005060) was used as a reference gene. Each assay was repeated at least three times. Based on amplifications from equal molar quantities of cloned amplicons, amplifications from different primer pairs were normalized.

Metabolite analysis

For measurement of SGAs, freeze-dried samples (2 mg) were extracted with 250 μl (for hairy root samples) or 500 μl (for leaf samples) of 80% (v/v) methanol containing 2.5 μM lidocaine and 2.5 μM 10-camphor sulfonic acid using a mixer mill with zirconia beads for 7 min at 18 Hz and 4 °C. After centrifugation for 10 min at 12,000 \times g, the supernatant was filtered using an HLB $\mu\text{Elution}$ plate (Waters). The extracts (1 μl) were analyzed using LC-QTOF-MS (LC, Waters Acquity UPLC system; MS, Waters Xevo G2 Q-ToF). Positive ion mode was used and analytical conditions were as follows: LC column, acquity bridged ethyl hybrid (BEH) C18 (1.7 μm , 2.1 mm \times 100 mm, Waters); solvent system, solvent A (water including 0.1% formic acid) and solvent B (acetonitrile including 0.1% formic acid); gradient program, 99.5% A/0.5% B at 0 min, 99.5% A/0.5% B at 0.1 min, 20% A/80% B at 10 min, 0.5% A/99.5% B at 10.1 min, 0.5% A/99.5% B at 12.0 min, 99.5% A/0.5% B at 12.1 min and 99.5% A/0.5% B at 15.0 min; flow rate, 0.3 ml min⁻¹ at 0 min, 0.3 ml min⁻¹ at 10 min, 0.4 ml min⁻¹ at 10.1 min, 0.4 ml min⁻¹ at 14.4 min and 0.3 ml min⁻¹ at 14.5 min; column temperature, 40°C; MS detection: capillary voltage, +3.0 keV, cone voltage, 25.0 V, source temperature, 120°C, desolvation temperature, 450°C, cone gas flow, 50 l h⁻¹; desolvation gas flow, 800 l h⁻¹; collision energy, 6 V; mass range, m/z 50–1,500; scan duration, 0.1 s; inter-scan delay, 0.014 s; data acquisition, centroid mode; Lockspray (leucine enkephalin): scan duration, 1.0 s; inter-scan delay, 0.1 s. MS/MS data were acquired in ramp mode using the following analytical conditions: (i) MS: mass range, m/z 50–1,500; scan duration, 0.1 s; inter-scan delay, 0.014 s; data acquisition, centroid mode; polarity, positive/negative; and (ii) MS/MS: mass range, m/z 50–1,500; scan duration, 0.02 s; inter-scan delay, 0.014 s; data acquisition, centroid mode; polarity, positive/negative collision energy, ramped from 10 to 50 V. In this mode, MS/MS spectra of the top 10 ions (>1,000 counts) in an MS scan were automatically obtained. If the ion intensity was <1,000, MS/MS data acquisition was not performed and moved to the next top 10 ions. Chemical assignment of SGAs was performed using the MS/MS spectra reported in Itkin et al. 2011 (Itkin et al. 2011). All SGA levels were calculated based on a calibration curve of α -tomatine (Tokyo Chemical Industry Co., Ltd.), assuming the same molar responses of SGAs.

For measurement of triterpenes, the extraction of plant tissues with added standards ([25,26,26,26,27,27,27-²H₇]cholesterol (98% D, Cambridge Isotope

Laboratories, Inc.) or synthesized [$3,28,28,28\text{-}^2\text{H}_4$] β -amyirin, [$28,28,28\text{-}^2\text{H}_3$] α -amyirin and $28,28,28\text{-}^2\text{H}_3$ lupeol; Ohyama et al. 2007) was carried out using the method previously described (Tsukagoshi et al. 2016). Quantification of triterpenes except for lanosterol and squalene using GC-MS analysis was performed as described previously (for sterols, Choi et al. 2014; for triterpenols, Ohyama et al. 2007). Lanosterol amounts were calculated using the peak area ratio of the fragment ion (m/z : 393) of trimethylsilylated lanosterol and that (m/z : 336) of the standard (TMS derivative of the labeled cholesterol). Quantification of squalene was performed using the standard calibration curve with coefficients of determination, $r^2 > 0.9996$. The curves were constructed using the peak area value of TIC (total ion chromatogram).

Transactivation assay

The 5'-flanking regions of *HMGR1*, *DWF7*, *DWF5*, *GAME6*, *GAME1* and *GAME4* were amplified by PCR from tomato genomic DNA with primers attached with the restriction sites and cloned into the *Hind*III and *Bam*HI sites on pBI121 to generate the *GUS* reporter constructs. For mutant effector and reporter constructs, before cloning the fragments into pBI121, PCR-based mutagenesis (Hemsley et al. 1989) was adapted to substitute the nucleotides in the cloned sequences; nucleotide substitutions for promoter sequences introduced are shown in **Fig. 14a**. *pGBW17* was used as empty-vector controls for effector plasmids. The binary vectors, *p19s* for P19 silencing suppressor (Voinnet et al. 2003) and *p35S-GFP* for *GFP* reference gene, were used.

Transient gene expression was performed in tomato fruits according to an agroinjection protocol (Orzaez et al. 2006). Briefly, *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain EHA105 with a binary vector was grown overnight in YEB medium supplemented with 20 μM acetosyringone and appropriate antibiotics and recovered by centrifugation at 4,000 g for 20 min. The cells were re-suspended in infiltration buffer (10 mM MES, 10 mM MgCl_2 , 200 μM acetosyringone, pH 5.7) by adjusting optical density at 600 nm to 0.25, and then incubated for at least 2 h at room temperature in the dark. The bacterial suspensions for reporter and effector vectors plus those for *p19s* and *p35S-GFP* vectors were combined, and the resultant solution (200 to 300 μl per fruit) was injected into mature green fruits (1 to 1.5 cm in size) using a 1 ml plastic syringe attached with a 27-gauge needle. Gene expression was analyzed by qRT-PCR using the fruits harvested 3 d after the injection.

EMSA

Bacterial expression and purification of recombinant fusion proteins of JRE4, called S11g90340 in Shoji et al. (2013), were done as described (Shoji et al. 2013). In the pET32b-based expression vector, a portion, but not full-length, of *JRE4* (corresponding to 40-219 amino acid residues) was placed downstream of a sequence for N-terminal tags, a thioredoxin, an S-tag, and a His-tag (Shoji et al. 2013). The proteins only with the tag portion from empty pET32b were purified and used as the controls.

Sequences of sense and antisense oligonucleotides used are given in **Supplementary Table S10**. Probe preparation, DNA-protein-binding assays, gel separation, and detection of the reaction products were carried out as described (Shoji et al. 2010).

Analysis of GUS reporter activity

For histochemical staining, transgenic hairy root lines were incubated with GUS staining solution (0.5 mM 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indosyl-b-D-glucuronide cyclohexylamine (X-gluc), 10 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0), 0.5 mM potassium ferricyanide, 0.5 mM potassium ferrocyanide and 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100) at 37°C for 24 h. Stained tissues were cleared with 70% ethanol twice before observation with light microscope (Olympus MVX10) attached with camera (Olympus DP70) (Olympus, Japan).

GUS enzymatic activities in plant tissues were measured according to Shoji et al. (Shoji et al. 2008) with minor modifications. Soluble proteins were extracted with GUS extraction buffer (0.1 M potassium phosphate (pH7.8), 1 mM EDTA, 5% (v/v) glycerol and 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100). Plant extracts were incubated with 25 mM 4-methyl umbeliferyl glucuronide (MUG, Sigma) in GUS extraction buffer at 37°C for 30 min.

Computational analysis

I used Regulatory Sequence Analysis Tools (RSAT; Turatsinze et al. 2008, <http://rsat.ulb.ac.be/rsat/>) to search putative JRE binding elements in the query genomic sequences by weight matrix scoring. Weight matrices for P box, CS1 box, and GCC box used (Shoji et al. 2013) are given in **Supplementary Table S1**. All parameters were used in the default setting. The elements with score higher than 7.0 were adapted except

for G2 in *GAME4*. Genes with putative JRE-binding elements in the examined regions were counted. Significant differences of the values against those of group W including all tomato protein coding genes was determined by one-sided Fisher's exact test ($\alpha=0.05$) using the fisher test function of R (V. 3.2.2).

Based on sequences predicted as the JRE-binding elements by RSAT in the regions (-300 to -1) of group R genes, position-specific probability matrices of P, CS1, and GCC boxes (**Supplementary Table S1**) were generated by MEME software (v. 4. 10. 2., Bailey et al. 2006) with option settings; '2' for '-nmotif', '10' for '-minw' and applying '-revcomp'. To retrieve the sequences commonly found in the queries, MEME was used with option settings; '10' for '-nmotif', '7' for '-minw' and applying '-revcomp'. Match scores representing the similarities between a pair of the retrieved sequence and the JRE-binding box (P, CS1, or GCC) were calculated using position-specific probability matrices of the pairs. When a pair of sequences with lengths of L1 and L2 were aligned with the overlapping length of L3, the alignment length L_e was defined as $L_e=L1+L2-L3$. Differences between 1 and normalized vector distances were summed for overlapping positions and divided by L_e to give scores for the alignments. The alignment scores were calculated for all possible alignments with no gap in both orientations for a sequence pair, and the highest alignment score was adapted as match score for the pair.

Results

JRE genes in tomato genome

In tomato, there is a gene cluster (spanning about 100 kb) with five clade 2 *ERF* genes of group IXa on chromosome I and one additional *ERF* gene of this clade also resides as a singleton on chromosome V (**Fig. 5a**). Since all of the six *ERF* genes were inducible by jasmonate (**Fig. 6**) and *JRE5* respectively correspond to *GAME9-like1*, *GAME9-like2*, *GAME9-like3*, *GAME9*, and *GAME9-like4* in a recent study (Cárdenas et al. 2016).

Based on multiple alignments of amino acid sequences of a conserved DNA-binding domain, a phylogenetic tree including JREs from tomato and related ERF proteins from Arabidopsis, *Catharanthus roseus*, and tobacco, was generated to examine the evolutionary relationships among the members (**Fig. 5b**). As defined previously (Shoji et al. 2013), clade 2 is divided into 4 subgroups; JRE3 and JRE4 are in clade 2-2b, and the remaining four JREs in clade 2-3 (**Fig. 5b**).

Expression patterns of *JRE* genes

The expression patterns of *JRE* genes along with SGA biosynthetic *HMGR1*, *SMO2*, and *GAME1* genes in tomato tissues were examined with qRT-PCR (**Fig. 6** and numerical values in **Supplementary Table S2**). Transcript levels of *JREs* were expressed relative to that of house-keeping *EF1 α* . *JRE* and SGA biosynthesis genes were expressed in organs from 7 week-old plants and no apparent organ specificity was observed. *JRE4* was most predominantly expressed among *JREs* in nearly all examined tissues, though in a few cases like roots from plants and fruits in certain stages, the dominances of *JRE4* were relatively diminished (but still *JRE4* transcript is major in most), mainly due to decreased *JRE4* expression in the tissues. Toxic SGAs, such as a predominant α -tomatine, as well as their production drastically decrease during fruit ripening in parallel with increased catabolism of toxic SGAs to less toxic forms (Iijima et al. 2009). In accordance with such changes, expression of SGA biosynthesis genes and some members of *JREs*, *JRE1*, *JRE2*, and *JRE4*, progressively decreased, when fruits were maturing. Except for *HMGR1* of which expression downed clearly at the breaker stage, decreases of the SGA biosynthesis and *JRE* gene expression were most evident during green fruit stages, where fruits are rapidly enlarging, rather than during later color-changing stages.

Expression levels of *JREs* in cultured hairy roots were comparative or sometime higher than those in tissues from greenhouse-grown plants, suggesting the usefulness of the cultured material in studies on *JREs* and SGA biosynthesis. Like in other tissues (see below), MeJA coordinately induced SGA biosynthesis genes in tomato hairy roots (**Fig. 6c**). As reflected to their naming, all *JREs* were induced by MeJA treatment in tomato hairy roots, but induction kinetics in terms of magnitudes and timings were varied among the members; *JRE4* and *JRE6* were gradually induced during the 24-h duration, while acute and strong induction within 30 min followed with sharp decline was characteristic to *JRE1*, *JRE2*, and *JRE3* and induction of *JRE5* peaked at 4 h after the start of the treatment.

Transgenic tomato lines with altered *JRE* function

To study impact of altered *JRE* function on gene expression and metabolism in tomato, stable transgenic tomato lines of plants and hairy roots were generated by *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation. Two *JRE4* overexpression (*JRE4-OX*) lines of plants, OX1 and OX12, were established by introducing *JRE4* cDNA under the control of cauliflower mosaic virus (CaMV) 35S promoter. Because of dominance of its transcript in tomato tissues among *JREs* according to Tomato eFP (http://bar.utoronto.ca/efp_tomato/cgi-bin/efpWeb.cgi), which had been known when I started the experiment and was lately confirmed (see above), *JRE4* was chosen as a target gene for overexpression. In leaves of the *JRE4-OX* lines, high expression of *JRE4* transcript was confirmed, not significantly changing with MeJA treatment, while MeJA induced endogenous *JRE4* gene in wild-type controls (**Fig. 7a**). No visible abnormality was found in the *JRE4-OX* plants (**Fig. 7b**).

Dominant suppression strategy was taken to compromise the *JRE* function, since there are closely related *JRE* genes, which may have overlapping function. Three *JREs*, *JRE3*, *JRE4*, and *JRE5*, were attached with ERF-associated amphiphilic repression (EAR) motif at their C termini, which are known to dominantly suppress the gene expression targeted by the transcription factors (Hiratsu et al. 2003). The EAR-attached fusions *JRE-EARs* were overexpressed with CaMV35S promoter in transgenic tomato hairy roots. Two independent lines for each construct were selected and analyzed. Overexpression of the introduced *JRE* genes were confirmed in *JRE-EAR* lines with qRT-PCR (**Fig. 8a**). Reflecting different expression levels of endogenous *JRE* genes (see above), degrees of overexpression shown relative to vector controls were varied among

lines with different fusion constructs. There were significant reductions of off-target *JRE* gene expression in certain combinations, suggesting the down-regulation of the *JREs* by transformed *JRE-EAR* fusions. There were slight variations of growth and morphology among the lines (**Fig. 8b**), but they seemed within the range normally observed for hairy root cultures.

Transcript profiling in overexpression and dominant-suppression lines of *JREs*

To clarify the regulatory function of *JRE* transcription factors in tomato, I investigated the impacts of altered *JRE* function on transcriptome to reveal genes targeted by *JREs*. Comparative transcript profiling was carried out using the transgenic lines and a tomato custom oligoarray representing over 40,000 transcripts (Ruiu et al. 2015). Total RNA from each line was labeled and hybridized to the array. Two control samples for each comparison, wild-type plants for overexpression and vector control lines for suppression, were included. To examine the profiles in distinct types of tissues and those after JA elicitation, leaves treated with MeJA for *JRE4-OX* lines and hairy roots treated with MeJA for suppression lines were used.

Probes representing genes up-regulated in *JRE4-OX* lines and down-regulated in *JRE-EAR* lines, are given in **Supplementary Table S3** and **Table S4**, respectively; list of the genes included is available in **Supplementary Table S5**. A large number of probes for metabolic genes involved in SGA biosynthesis are among the *JRE*-regulated genes; 24 genes regulated in either *JRE4-OX* or *JRE-EAR* lines and corresponding probes with their signal intensities are shown in **Fig. 9** (values available in **Supplementary Table S6**). Nearly all probes indicated in **Fig. 9**, whether they satisfied or not the both listing criteria (indicated with asterisks), showed trends of signal increases in *JRE4-OX* lines as well as decreases in *JRE-EAR* lines. The *JRE*-regulated metabolic genes are involved in nearly all branches of the entire pathway leading to SGAs from upstream mevalonate pathway to cholesterol synthesis and downstream aglycone formation and its glycosylation steps (**Fig. 9**). Reflected in intense coloring in the maps, extents of regulation generally seemed greater for later steps, especially those after cholesterol (**Fig. 9**); top parts of **Supplementary Table S3** and **Table S4** are enriched with probes for *GAME* genes. All of the biosynthesis genes were similarly suppressed by *JRE3-EAR*, *JRE4-EAR*, or *JRE5-EAR*, and such tendency was corroborated with unbiased distribution of probes for SGA biosynthesis genes in a Venn diagram (**Fig. 10**).

To validate the results of microarray analyses, transcript levels of SGA biosynthesis genes were analyzed in *JRE4-OX* and *JRE4-EAR* lines by qRT-PCR. In leaves from wild type and *JRE4-OX* plants, MeJA-dependent inductions were clearly observed for examined SGA genes except for *acetyl-CoA C-acetyltransferase (ACAA)* (**Fig. 11a**). Increased expression of the genes, except *ACAA*, was observed in leaves of *JRE4-OX* lines relative to wild-type controls in both MeJA-treated and mock-treated conditions (**Fig. 11a**). Consistent with the trend found in microarray analysis, degrees of up-regulation in *JRE4-OX* lines were greater for genes involved in later parts of the SGA pathway (**Fig. 11a**). I also found clear up-regulation of *SMO2* and *GAME1* but not *HMGR1* of mevalonate pathway in roots from *JRE4-OX* plants (**Fig. 12**). In transgenic hairy roots with *JRE4-EAR*, all of the examined SGA biosynthesis genes were suppressed to 28 to 70% levels relative to the controls (**Fig. 11b**).

Metabolic impact of altered *JRE4* function

To clarify how altered *JRE4* function affected SGA and related metabolisms in tomato, I next examined metabolite levels in select transgenic samples, leaves from *JRE4-OX* plants exposed to MeJA vapor (**Fig. 13a**) and hairy roots of a *JRE4-EAR* line treated with MeJA (**Fig. 13b**). SGAs, including a predominant α -tomatine, were extracted and measured using LC-qTOF-MS, whereas more hydrophilic substances, including pathway intermediates and other sterols and triperpenoids, were done using GC/MS. In a *JRE4-OX* line (line OX1), level of α -tomatine increased 2.1 folds relative to wild-type controls, while in a *JRE4-EAR* line (line #1), clear reductions of α -tomatine to 47 % level of controls was observed. Similar changes were observed for other SGAs (**Supplementary Table. S7**). Cholesterol, a sterol precursor of SGAs, increased 1.5 folds in the *JRE4-EAR* line and slightly, but not significantly, decreased in the *JRE4-OX* line. Phytosterols, campesterol and stigmasterol, did not show any significant changes except for 32 % decrease of stigmasterol in the *JRE4-OX* line. Cycloartenol and lanosterol, first tetracyclic triperpenoid intermediates, markedly decreased in the *JRE4-OX* line to 9 and 15 % levels, respectively, while 3.3-fold increase of cycloartenol and 2.9-fold of lanosterol were observed in the *JRE4-EAR* line. Triterpenoids, α -amyirin, β -amyirin, and lupeol, were increased 1.3 to 1.5 folds in the *JRE4-OX* line and decreased to 14 to 80 % levels of the controls in the *JRE4-EAR* line. Squalene decreased to 48 % level of the control in the *JRE4-OX* line and did not significantly change in the *JRE4-*

EAR line.

***JRE4* activate transcription of SGA biosynthesis genes by binding to GCC box-like promoter elements**

To study whether *JRE4* activates the transcriptions of SGA biosynthesis genes *in vivo* through their 5'-flanking regions, transient transactivation assays were performed in tomato fruits by adapting *Agrobacterium*-mediated infection, or agroinjection, for gene deliveries. To be expressed transiently, β -glucuronidase (*GUS*) reporter placed downstream of 5'-flanking regions of *sterol reductase* (*DWF5*) (-1500 to 1; counted from first ATG, only shorter version was shown in the figure) and *GAME4* (-1500 to 1) (**Fig. 14a**) and a CaMV 35S promoter-driven *JRE4* effector were co-delivered into tomato fruits by agroinjection along with a CaMV 35S promoter-driven *green fluorescent protein* (*GFP*) reference gene. The expression levels of the *GUS* reporter genes were analyzed by qRT-PCR and normalized with respect to that of the reference *GFP* gene (**Fig. 14b**). *DWF5* and *GAME4*-driven *GUS* reporter genes were clearly up-regulated 3.8 and 8.2 folds by *JRE4* overexpression, respectively, indicating the *JRE4*-mediated gene activation dependent on the included regions. I succeeded to delimitate the 1,500-bp region of *DWF5* to a relatively short region (-285 to -1) without losing reporter responsiveness (10.6 fold) (**Fig. 14b**) and basal activity, indicating the functional importance of this proximal region.

JRE4 recognizes two different but structurally related, elements, GCC box-like P box and GCC box (Shoji et al. 2013, **Supplementary Table S1**). P box and GCC box elements were computationally predicted within 1,500 bp-long 5'-flanking regions of *DWF5* and *GAME4* which were activated by *JRE4* in transient transactivation assays; adapting cutoff score of 7.0, D5-1 (-110 to -101 with score 7.4 for P) and D5-2 (-228 to -219 with score 11.2 for P) for the shorter version of *DWF5*, and G4-1 (-248 to -239 with score 10.1 for P, including -246 to -239 hit with score 6.1 for P) in *GAME4* were predicted (**Fig. 14a**).

To clarify the requirements of the predicted elements for the *JRE4*-dependent reporter activations, nucleotides within the elements were substituted (**Fig. 14a**) and the resultant mutant reporters were subjected to transient transactivation assays (**Fig. 14b**). For *DWF5*, mutation in D5-2 completely cancelled the *JRE4*-dependent activation of the reporter driven by the short region (-285 to 1), while mutations in D5-1, which resides in

5'-untranslated region rather than promoter, did not have major influences on the inductions, indicating the requirement of functional D5-2 element but not of D5-1. Since *GAME4* activation dependent on the 1,500-bp region did not change much with mutations only in G4-1, the presence of additional elements indispensable for the promoter induction was assumed. Based on such assumption, lowering the cutoff value, I found the G4-2 element (-1166 to -1157) with a score of 6.1 for P box (**Fig. 14a**) and included in the assays. Whereas mutations at G4-2 were not much effective like those at G4-1, promoter double-mutated at both G4-1 and G4-2 did not positively respond to *JRE4* effector, pointing the involvement of functionally redundant G4-1 and G4-2 in the *GAME4* activation.

To validate *in vitro* binding of the elements to JRE4 proteins, Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay (EMSA) was carried out with oligonucleotide probes with sequences of the elements (**Supplementary Table S10**). When incubated with recombinant JRE4 proteins, fusion proteins of a truncated JRE4 (corresponding to 40 to 219 amino acids) with N-terminal thioredoxin and other short tags, but not with the control proteins with only tag portion, DNA-protein complexes were detected as intense shifted bands of triplet for D5-2 and G4-1 probes and as similarly patterned but fainter bands for D5-1 and G4-2 probes (**Fig. 14c**); intensities of the shifted bands were correlated with the scores of the elements. The bindings were completely abolished when mutated probes (**Fig. 14a**) were used, confirming the specific bindings of the wild-type probes.

In addition to those of *DWF5* and *GAME4*, 5'-flanking regions (-1500 to -1) of other SGA biosynthetic genes, *HMGR1*, *DWF7*, *GAME1* and *GAME6*, were placed upstream of GUS reporter gene (**Fig. 15a**). The *GUS* reporters were up-regulated by *JRE4* overexpression; 12.7 fold for *HMGR1*, 8.3 fold for *DWF7*, 4.7 fold for *GAME1* and 13.2 fold for *GAME6* (**Fig. 15b**). A number of P box and GCC box elements were predicted in the flanking regions (**Fig. 15a**).

Promoter analysis of *GAME4* gene

To further study the transcriptional regulation of *GAME4* gene, GUS reporter genes driven with *GAME4* promoter (-1500 to -1) (*GAME4*-GUS) and its derivative mutated at JRE4-binding G4-1 and G4-2 elements (m*GAME4*-GUS) were introduced into tomato to generate transgenic hairy root lines (**Fig. 16a**). GUS activities of the independent lines

were measured for each construct. Though variable among the lines, the activities of *GAME4-GUS*-transformed lines were much higher than those of *mGAME4-GUS* lines, indicating the importance of the JRE4-binding elements for the basal *GAME4* promoter activity (**Fig. 16b**). To observe the tissue specific expression patterns of the *GAME4-GUS* reporters, transgenic hairy root lines were treated with DMSO or 100 μ M MeJA for 24 h and were subjected to histochemical GUS staining. GUS signals were consistently observed in primordia of lateral roots and root tips in the transgenic hairy root lines and the signal intensities were more intense in samples treated with MeJA. No signals were observed in *mGAME4-GUS* lines (**Fig. 16c**). To analyze the effects of JA treatment, one line with the highest GUS activity for each reporter were chosen, and treated with MeJA before measuring GUS activities. While *GAME4-GUS* reporter was significantly induced 5.4 times, no significant induction was observed for the *mGAME4-GUS* line, suggesting the requirement of the binding elements for the JA-mediated reporter induction (**Fig. 16d**).

Putative JRE-binding elements found in proximal promoter regions of *JRE*-regulated genes

The JRE4-binding elements found in proximal promoter regions (**Fig. 14a and 15a**), prompted me to examine whether genes with such JRE-binding elements in promoter regions were enriched among a group of *JRE*-regulated genes. In addition to P box and GCC box targeted by clade 2-2b JRE4, related CS1 box, which could be recognized by clade 2-3 JREs (**Fig. 17a**), was included in the analysis; all the examined boxes are represented as weighted matrices (**Supplementary Table S1**). With the help from Dr. Kudo, we computationally searched P, CS1, or GCC boxes with a cut-off score of 7.0 in promoter regions (up to -800; counted from first ATG) of *JRE*-regulated genes (group R) (180 genes in **Supplementary Table S5**) and of *JRE*-regulated SGA biosynthesis genes, (group SR) (24 genes in **Fig. 9**), a subset of group R genes. The corresponding regions of all protein coding genes annotated in a tomato reference genome (group W) (34,725 genes) were retrieved and analyzed as controls. The genes predicted with the elements in each group were counted and significant differences of the values against group W controls were statistically determined. The 800 bp-long regions were searched with a window size of 100 bp (**Fig. 17b**). The values even for group W were slightly variable

among examined regions, possibly reflecting biased GC-contents or other genomic features in promoter regions. We detected the increases of genes with P box in -200 to -100 region for both R (2.1 fold) and SR groups (5.8 folds) and of genes with CS1 box in -300 to -1 region for group R (2.2 to 2.7 folds) and in -300 to -200 region for group SR (5.7 folds), along with other likely, but no significant, increases around the regions.

To examine whether sequences related to P, CS1, and GCC boxes could be retrieved by non-targeted ways, the 5'-flanking sequences (-1500 to -1) of group R and SR genes were subjected to MEME (Multiple Em for Motif Elicitation) analysis (Bailey et al. 2006), retrieving the sequences commonly found among the queries. Multiple sequences with similarities to the JRE-binding boxes were retrieved (**Supplementary Table S8**); match scores representing the similarities were calculated using position-specific probability matrices of P, CS1, and GCC boxes based on sequences retrieved from 5'-flanking regions (-300 to -1) of group R genes (**Supplementary Table S1**).

Discussion

Impacts of altered *JRE* function on SGA biosynthesis

Transgenic approaches, overexpression and dominant suppression (Hiratsu et al. 2003), were taken to elucidate the regulatory functions of *JRE* transcription factors, close cousins of alkaloid-regulating *ORCA3* from *C. roseus* (van der Fits and Memelink 2001) and *ERF189* from tobacco (Shoji et al. 2010), in tomato. Based on microarray analyses, I have succeeded to identify a large number of *JRE*-regulated metabolic genes involved in SGA biosynthesis, including all clustered *GAME* genes, except *GAME2*, constituting a core pathway after cholesterol (Itkin et al. 2011, Itkin et al. 2013), genes for cholesterol synthesis, including *SSR2* (Sawai et al. 2014), and flux-controlling *HMGR* (Narita and Gruissem 1989) and others involved in mevalonate pathway, demonstrating the *JRE*-mediated transcriptional regulation of the entire SGA pathway. The regulation of the upstream pathways, far up to the isoprenoid-producing branch, may be required to meet the metabolic demands for downstream SGA production without disturbing homeostasis of other metabolites derived from highly branched terpenoid pathways. Relatively small changes of essential phytosterols (Boutté and Grebe 2009), campesterol and stigmasterol, in the transgenics support the point. Although the pathway was generally coordinated, I also noticed that expression levels of genes involved in later steps, such as *GAME*s, had changed much more in the transgenic lines than the upstream genes (**Fig. 9**, **Fig. 11a**, **Fig. 12**, **Supplementary Table S3**, **Supplementary Table S4**, **Supplementary Table S5**). Such differential regulation between distinct parts of the pathway was corroborated with the changes of metabolites; changes of SGAs and upstream intermediates, cholesterol, cycloartenol, lanosterol, and squalene, showed opposite trends in both overexpression and suppression lines (**Fig. 13**), presumably reflecting imbalances between the early and late parts. To explain the metabolic changes of triterpenoids, α -amyirin, β -amyirin, and lupeol, which showed a trend opposite to cycloartenol and lanosterol (**Fig. 13**), I should scrutinize the regulation of *oxidosqualene cyclase* genes, none of which were screened by the microarray analysis.

The microarray-based approach screening genes possibly involved in a *JRE*-controlled regulon, seems a promising strategy not only to point known structural genes (**Fig. 9**) but also to mine novel metabolic and transport genes required for complex SGA

and related metabolisms. In this regard, it is quite stimulating that a bunch of uncharacterized genes annotated as glucosyltransferases, cytochrome P450 enzymes, and peptide transporters are included in the list (**Supplementary Table S5**). Similar transgenic approach combined with transcript profiling is considered applicable in other species producing SGAs to reveal the molecular bases of chemically diverse metabolites of this group (Friedman 2002, Friedman 2006, Iijima et al 2013). I believe that identification of a series of *JRE*-regulated metabolic genes also gave new insights on cholesterol formation, which have been relatively unexplored in plants compared to other organisms (Sawai et al. 2013).

To understand the regulation in the context of a greater metabolic network, I need to address the coordination of the *JRE*-mediated regulation with other mechanisms operating at transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels (Pollier et al. 2013, Van Moerkercke et al. 2015, Mertens et al. 2016). As discussed below, it is still an open question whether all parts of the pathway are similarly subjected to the transcriptional regulation by *JREs*. It is worth to point that a gene encoding a RING-finger E3 ubiquitin ligase, a homolog of MAKIBISH1 (MKB1) from *Medicago truncatula* that controls HMGR enzyme activity (Pollier et al. 2013), was identified as a gene regulated by *JREs* (**Supplementary Table S5**). In addition to structural genes, molecular factors important for the pathway regulation could be included in the *JRE*-regulated genes. I believe that the studies on tomato *JREs* or *GAME9* (Cárdenas 2016, this study), along with recent studies on a group of related bHLH transcription factors (Van Moerkercke et al. 2015, Mertens et al. 2016), open a new chapter of research on the regulation of terpenoid pathways, which had been remained unexplored until recent days.

Transcriptional regulation of SGA biosynthesis genes

JRE4 directly activates the transcription of SGA genes by recognizing the GCC-like elements in their promoter regions (**Fig. 14 and 15**). All of the three elements in *DWF5* and *GAME4* validated experimentally, are present in similarly distanced proximal regions (-248 to -63) (**Fig. 14a and 15a**). This finding is corroborated with previous reports on ORCA3- and ERF189-recognizing elements present in similar regions of the targeted genes (van der Fits and Memelink 2000, Shoji et al. 2010, Shoji and Hashimoto 2011a) and also with the computational predictions of the elements in the *JRE*-regulated genes (**Fig. 17**), suggesting a common mechanistic feature among transcription factors of this

group. The promoter-based regulation of *GAME4* in a two-gene metabolic cluster (**Fig. 14**) gives insights on the regulation of such cluster, which has been proposed to occur at chromosomal level (Wegel et al. 2009).

Even though, my transient transactivation assays, computational prediction of JRE-binding sites and EMSA indicated that JRE4 could directly bind to the JRE-binding sites in the SGA promoter regions (**Fig. 14, Fig. 15, Fig. 17**). It has remained to be addressed whether all *JRE*-regulated SGA biosynthesis genes, including clustered *GAMEs*, are regulated directly by *JREs* in a similar manner as demonstrated for the genes examined. Considering a large number of regulated steps and the differential regulation observed as mentioned, I cannot exclude the possibilities of the involvement of additional mechanisms, such as indirect regulation through other transcription factors or metabolite-mediated feedback regulation. As demonstrated for regulation of nicotine biosynthesis genes by ERF189 and a JAZ-interacting bHLH transcription factor MYC2 (Shoji and Hashimoto 2011b), it is also plausible that *JREs* regulate the downstream genes in cooperation with other transcription factors. Nevertheless, the significant enrichments of genes bearing P or CS1 box in proximal promoters in the *JRE*-regulated gene sets (**Fig. 17**) and complementary results of MEME analysis (**Supplementary Table S8**) suggest that *JRE4* and possibly other *JREs*, including clade 2-3 members that can recognize CS1 box, participate in the transcriptional regulation of many, but not necessarily all, of the genes by binding to the predicted elements. The frequent occurrences of the JRE-binding elements in the regulated genes support a notion that genes acting downstream are recruited into regulons under the controls of transcription factors, which are more conservative in nature than binding-element nucleotides, through acquisitions of functional *cis*-elements in appropriate promoter regions (Shoji and Hashimoto 2011a, Moghe and Last 2015).

The results of the promoter-related analyses (**Fig. 14, Fig. 15, Fig. 17, Supplementary Table S8**), all point the possible importance of GCC-like P rather than canonical GCC box for *JRE*-mediated regulation, although all *JREs* presumably have substantial *in vitro* binding abilities to GCC box (**Fig. 17a**, Shoji et al. 2013). As proposed for tobacco ERF189 that exclusively target P box (Shoji et al. 2013), such preference to the GCC-like box of *JREs* may allow the *JRE*-controlled regulon to be free from influence by a large number of GCC box-recognizing ERFs.

Regulatory function of multiple *JRE* genes

Gene clustering is common to *JREs* (**Fig. 5a**) and related *ERFs* (Shoji et al. 2013); in tobacco, *ERF189* is clustered with related genes on a nicotine-controlling *NIC2* locus and the *NIC2*-locus cluster was found to be deleted in a low-nicotine mutant (Shoji et al. 2010), while *ORCA3* was found to reside on a same genomic contig with a similar gene in *C. roseus* (Kellner et al. 2015). When overexpressed in a low-nicotine mutant, *ERF189* recovered nicotine accumulation to the wild-type levels, and thus *ERF189* has been considered to work most effectively as a regulator of nicotine biosynthesis among the clustered *ERFs* (Shoji et al. 2010). As the *NIC2*-locus cluster in tobacco, tomato *JRE* cluster includes members of different clades, clade 2-2b and 2-3 (**Fig. 5b**). Dominant suppression of either clade 2-2b *JRE3*, 2-2b *JRE4*, or 2-3 *JRE5* similarly repressed the expression of SGA biosynthesis genes (**Fig. 9, Fig. 10**), suggesting overlapping functions of the three *JREs*: of course, the effects of ectopic expression of the dominant repressive forms should be interpreted carefully. As pointed above, the involvement of clade 2-3 *JREs* in SGA regulation was also supported by the frequent occurrences of CS1 box in promoters of the regulated gene. In addition to overexpression (**Fig. 9, Fig. 11, Supplementary Table S3**) and promoter binding (**Fig. 14 and 15**) analyses, as performed for *JRE4*, knock-out or knock-down experiment for individual member is required to confirm the *in planta* contributions of each *JRE* to SGA regulation.

Expression patterns strongly support the role of *JRE4* in SGA regulation (**Fig. 6**). *JRE4* is expressed most predominantly among *JREs* at transcript level and, as pointed in Itkin et al. (2013), its expression is clearly coordinated with SGA biosynthesis genes in various samples (**Fig. 6**). In fruits, progressive decreases of expression were evident for *JRE4* and *SMO2* and *GAME1* during green fruit stages (**Fig. 6b**), indicating that SGA formation mainly declines during the green stages rather than later color-changing stages (Iijima et al. 2009). In hairy roots, all *JREs* were clearly induced by MeJA treatment, but their induction patterns were variable between the members (**Fig. 6c**). Again gradual induction of *JRE4* was well paralleled with those of SGA biosynthesis genes during the 24-h duration. The similar differential responses to MeJA had been demonstrated for the clustered *ERFs* in tobacco and as in the case of tomato *JRE4*, *ERF189* was gradually induced up to 24 h along with nicotine biosynthesis genes in tobacco hairy roots treated with MeJA (Shoji et al. 2010). In tobacco, though nicotine biosynthesis was not much altered with salt stress, salt-induced expression was

demonstrated for most of the clustered *ERF* genes but not *ERF189*, further supporting a role of *ERF189* in nicotine regulation (Shoji and Hashimoto 2015). To distinguish multiple *JREs*, it is interesting to analyze how *JRE* genes respond to external elicitors other than MeJA in tomato. According to the co-expression and other evidences, I can infer that one or few select members, such as tomato *JRE4*, tobacco *ERF189*, and possibly *C. roseus ORCA3*, play a predominant role in regulation of targeted metabolic pathways in each species. Beside of these expression differences, even though the DNA-binding domains are highly conserved, the activation domain in N-termini and the portion of protein in C-termini of *JREs* are totally diverged. Especially clade 2-2b *JRE3* and *JRE4*, I detected high acidic activation domain in the N-terminal and serine-rich region in C-terminal of *JRE4* (**Supplementary Fig. 1**), which possibly give *JRE4* a unique function. I need to further understand functional redundancy and divergence among the multiple *ERF* members to address why these *ERF* genes are maintained in a form of gene clusters during plant evolution.

SGAs as defense chemicals in tomato

Plants usually adapt particular classes of metabolites for chemical defense. A variety of compounds, including SGAs, methyl ketones, and sesquiterpenes, are considered to mediate the herbivore resistance in *Solanum* species (Antonious et al. 2014). SGAs are a group of bioactive compounds with abilities to bind to cholesterol, disrupt cellular membranes, and inhibit cholinesterases (Friedman 2015). Based on the toxic and pharmacological properties, SGAs has been proposed to be involved in plant host resistance against a wide range of biotic agents, such as bacteria, fungi, virus, insects and animals (Friedman 2002, Friedman 2006). A series of gene encoding biosynthetic enzymes and transcription factors involved in SGA biosynthesis, were induced by MeJA treatment in tomato tissues (**Fig. 6c, Fig. 11a, Fig. 12, Fig. 16**). The JA-induced expression of the genes and engagement of tomato homologs of *ORCA3* and *ERF189* in the induction underline the committed roles of SGAs and JA signaling in induced chemical defense in tomato, as in the case of nicotine in tobacco (Baldwin 1998, Shoji and Hashimoto 2013). Although induced significantly after elicitation, SGAs and nicotine are substantially produced even at basal levels and the amounts of SGA and nicotine accumulation in the tissues seem in a similar range (in orders of mg per g dry weight), indicating the similarities of the two alkaloid groups with analogous regulatory

mechanisms. As previously discussed, drastic declines of expression of SGA biosynthetic and regulatory *JRE* genes during early fruit development in tomato (**Fig. 6b**) is considered an example of developmental regulation of defense chemical pathways, which may operate more generally, ensuring the removal of toxic substances from seed-bearing mature fruits to allow seed dispersals assisted by fruit-eating herbivores.

One of the focusing points in tomato and potato breeding is the removal of toxic and anti-nutritional SGAs, which are considered not required for plant protection during normal cultivation and occasionally causing poisoning. The removal of SGAs become critically required, when considering the introduction of desirable genetic traits into cultivated species from counterparts in wild that usually produce SGAs at higher levels (Iijima et al. 2013). Identification of the transcriptional regulators of SGA pathway provides us a promising molecular tool applicable for the generation of the crops with low-SGA contents.

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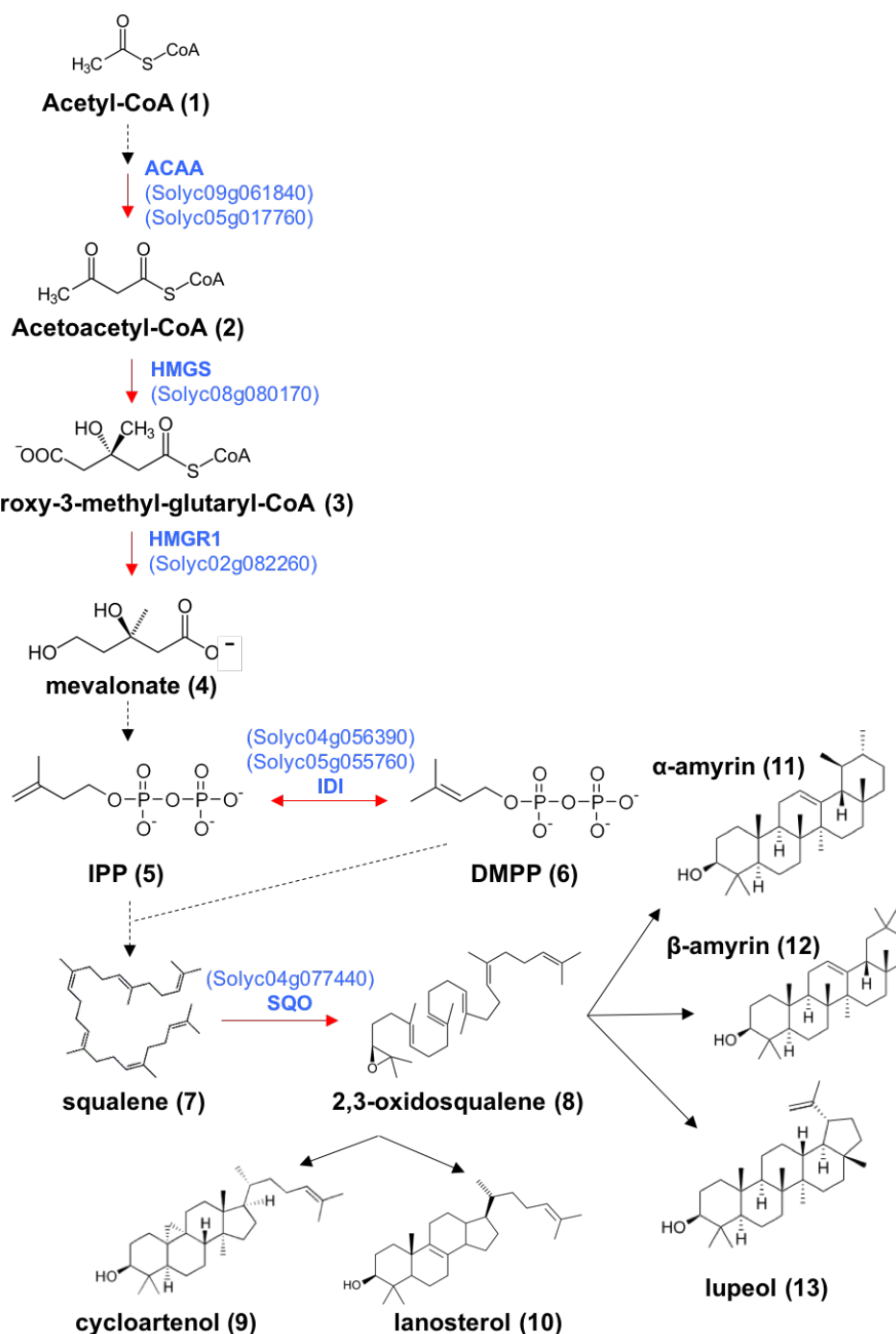


Figure 1. Aglycone formation in tomato

Isopentenyl diphosphate e.g. IPP (5), previously synthesized from the conversion of mevalonate (4), is the precursor for the formation of squalene terpenoid (7). Squalene is further oxidized by squalene monooxygenase (SQO) to form the oxidosqualene (8), an important intermediate for the biosynthesis of plant sterol like amyrins (11 and 12), lupenol (13), campesterol and stigmasterol (15 and 16), and the formation of a substrate in cholesterol biosynthesis like cycloartenol (9) and lanosterol (10). The reaction catalyzing by enzyme discovered in this study is indicated by the red arrow. Multiple enzymatic reactions involved in the formation of a chemical are indicated by dashed arrow. The gene for the enzyme is indicated by colored letter and number in the bucket represents the Gene ID in tomato genomes. ACAA, acetyl-CoA C-acetyltransferase; HMGGS, hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA synthase; HMGR, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl CoA reductase; IDI, isopentenyl-diphosphate D-isomerase; SQO, squalene monooxygenase. DMPP (6) is dimethylallyl diphosphate.

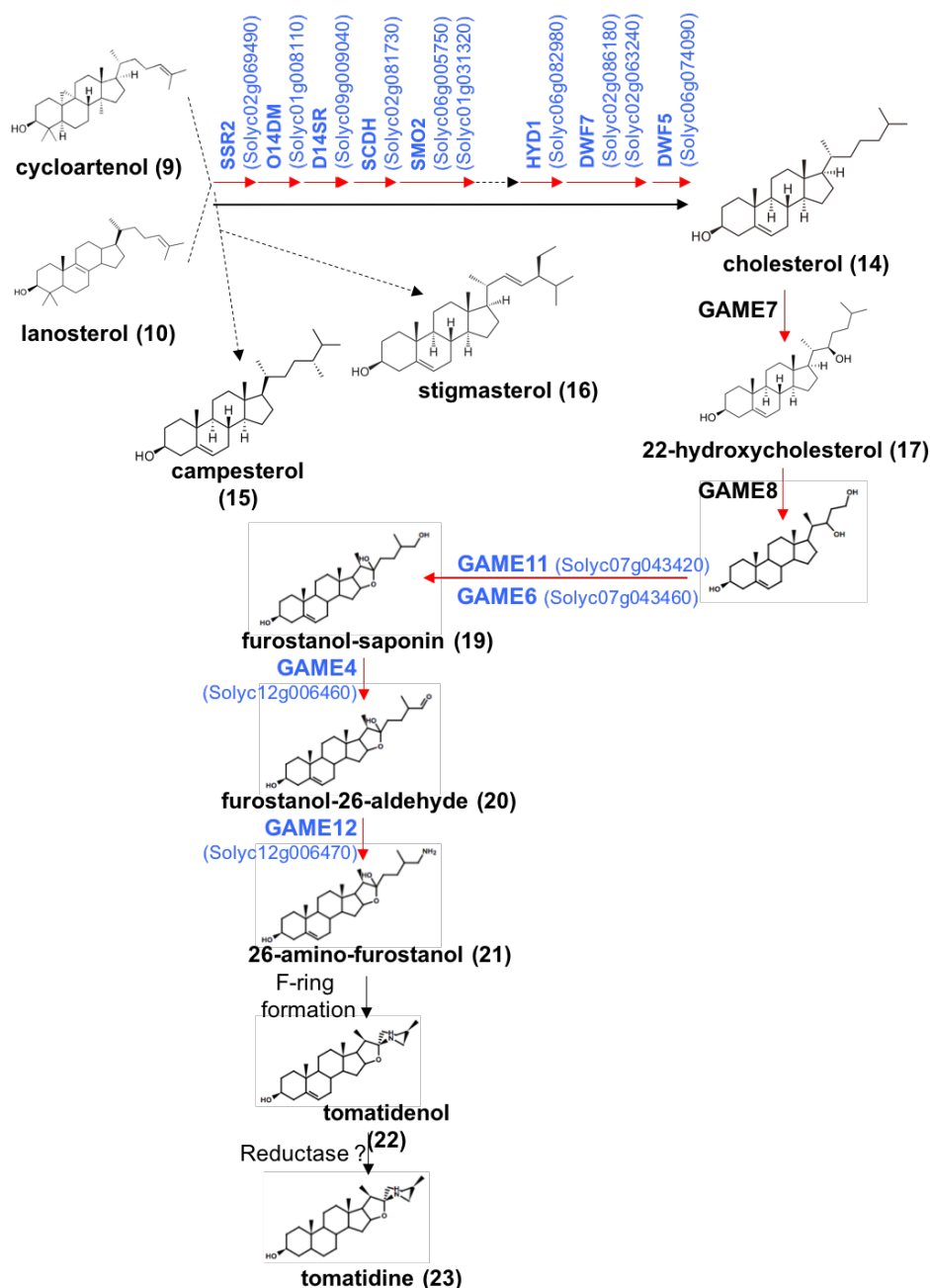


Figure 1. Aglycone formation in tomato (continued)

Cycloartenol (9) and lanosterol (10) are consumed by to synthesize the cholesterol backbone (14) of SGAs. Cycloartenol or lanosterol is converted to the cholesterol by multistep reactions of side-chain sterol reductase 2 (SSR2, obtusifoliol 14- α demethylase (O14DM), δ 14-sterol reductase (D14SR), sterol-4 α -carboxylate 3-dehydrogenase (SCDH), 3 β -hydroxysteroid-D8D7-isomerase (HYD1), sterol 4 α -methyl oxidase 2 SMO2, sterol C-5 desaturase (DWF7), and finally BY sterol reductase (DWF5). Plant alkyl sterols like campesterol and stigmasterol are also synthesized by multiple enzymatic reactions by using cycloartenol and lanosterol as the substrate. Metabolic enzymes encoded by the clustered *GLYCOALKALOID METABOLISM (GAME)* genes then catalyze the formation of steroidal aglycones by using cholesterol as the building block. GAME7 and GAME8 subsequently hydroxylate the cholesterol at C22 and C26 to form 22,26-dihydroxycholesterol (18). However, the coupled enzymatic reaction of GAME 11 and GAME6 differently catalyzes the conversion 22,26-dihydroxycholesterol to the furostanol-saponin (19) in tomato. GAME4 oxidizes furostanol-saponin (19) to furostanol aldehyde (20) which is later transaminated by GAME12 to form amino-furostanol (21). Aminol-furostanol is cyclized to tomatidenol (22) and reduced to form the tomatidine aglycone (23). The reaction catalyzed by enzyme discovered in this study is indicated by the red arrow. Multiple enzymatic reactions involved in the formation of a chemical are indicated by dashed arrows. The gene for the enzyme is indicated by colored letter and number in the bucket represents the Gene ID in tomato genomes.

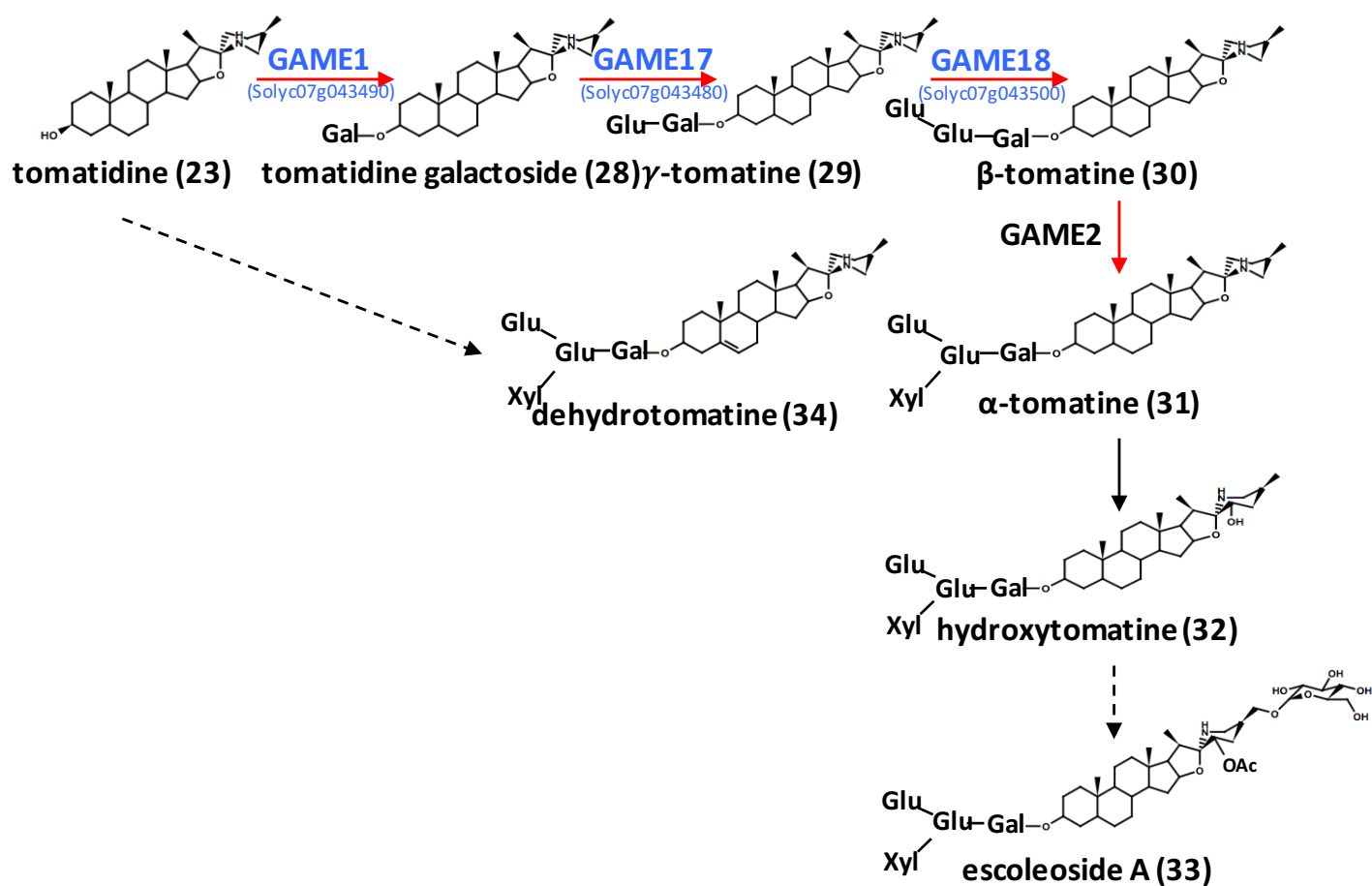


Figure 2. SGA biosyntheses from steroidal aglycones in tomato

(a) Four sugar moieties are attached to the tomatidine aglycone (23) by a series of UDP-glycosyltransferases to form α -tomatine (31) in tomato. GAME1 (a UDP-galactosyltransferase) attaches galactoside sugar moiety to tomatidine to form tomatidine galactoside (28). GAME17 and GAME18 with their glucosyltransferase activities forms γ -tomatine (29) and β -tomatine (30), respectively. The finally step of α -tomatine (31) formation is catalyzed by GAME2 (xylosyltransferase). However, the toxic α -tomatine is further catabolized into least toxicity and human health benefit compound lycoesculeosides, e.g. escoleoside A (33), by C22 isomerase and a glycosyltransferase. The reaction that catalyzed by enzyme discovered in this study is indicated by the red arrow. Multiple enzymatic reactions involved in the formation of a chemical are indicated by dashed arrow. The gene for the enzyme is indicated by colored letter and number in the bucket represents the Gene ID in tomato genomes. GAME, *GLYCOALKALOID METABOLISM* gene.

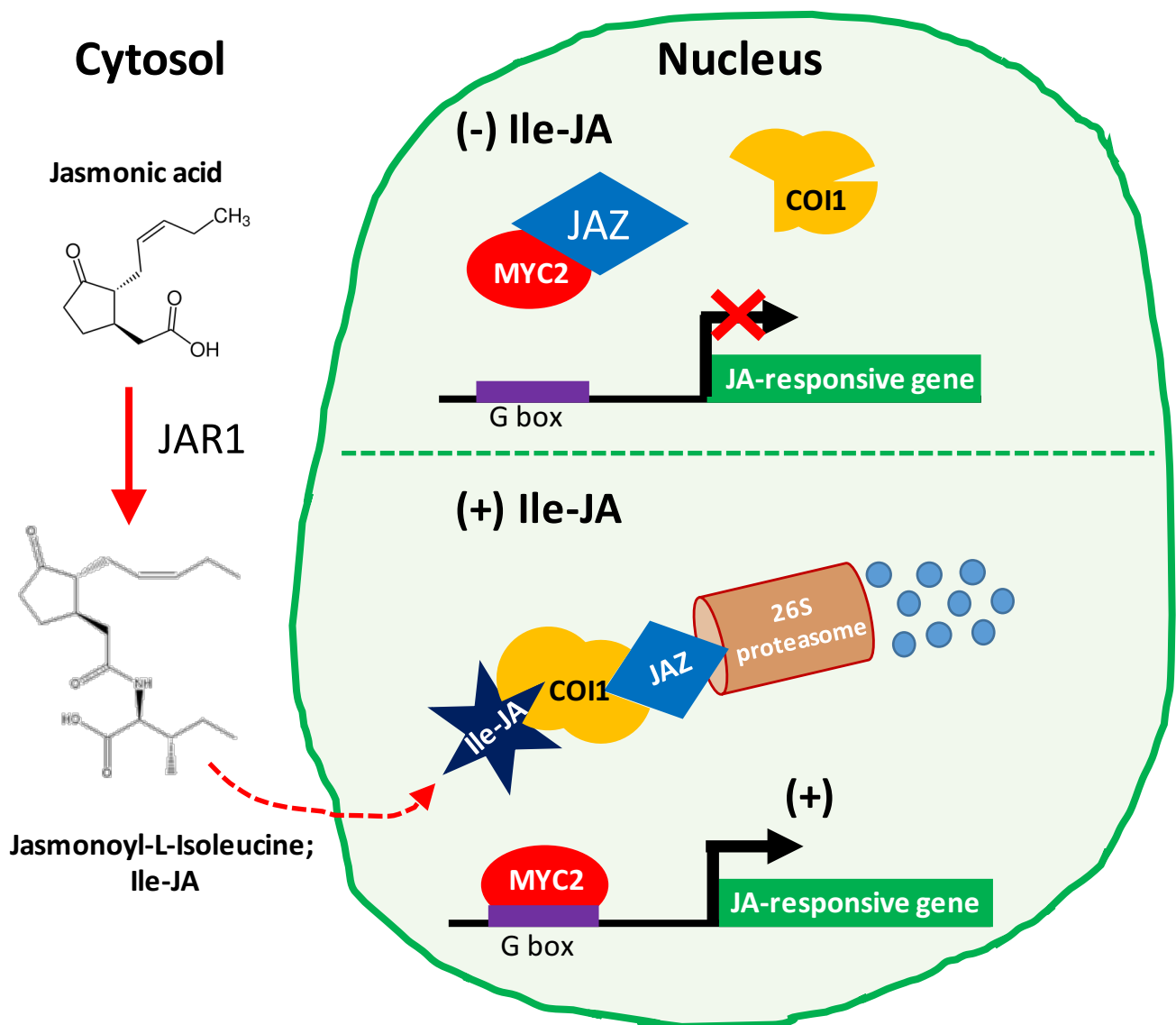


Figure 3. General JA-mediated transcriptional activation in plant

Jasmonic acid, prior synthesized in the cytoplasm of plant cell, is converted into more stability, mobile and functional effective form, jasmonoyl-L-isoleucine; Ile-JA, by JAR1 (JASMONATE RESISTANT 1 protein). During plant developmental processes and environmental stress responses, the level of Ile-JA rises due to the activation of JA biosynthesis pathway. Ile-JA can be recognized by COI1 and causes COI1-conformational change. This leads to the substantial recognition of COI1 with transcription factor - interacting JAZ protein (e.g. beta-helix-loop-helix (bHLH)-family MYC2) and the degradation of JAZ repressor protein by 26S proteasome complex. MYC2 transcription factor, released from JAZ repressor protein, then activates the transcription of JA-responsive genes by recognizing with G-box consensus sequence 5'-CTCGAG-3' in the promoters. COI1, CORONATINE INSENSITIVE 1 protein; JAZ, JASMONATE ZIM-DOMAIN protein; MYC2, beta-Helix-Loop-Helix family MYC2 transcription factor;

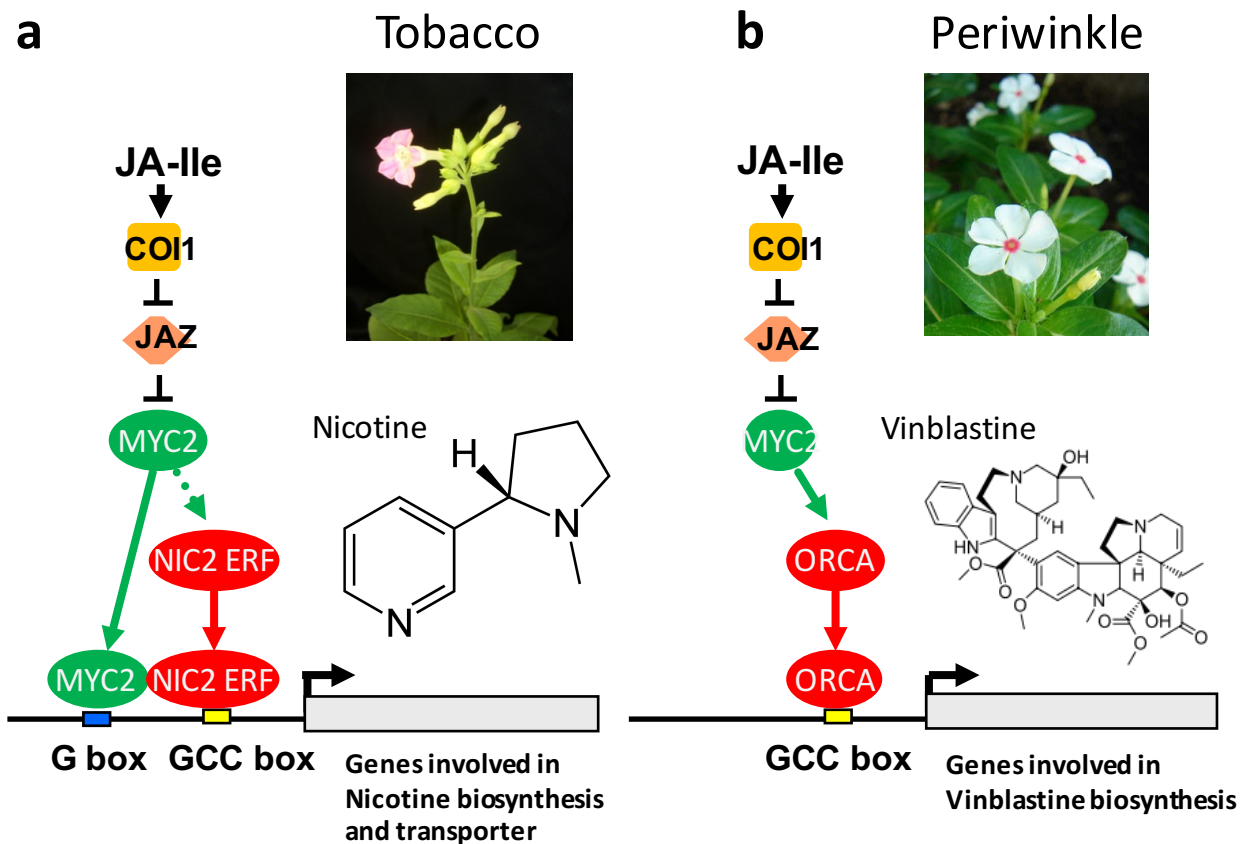


Figure 4. Regulation of alkaloid biosynthesis in tobacco and periwinkle (*Catharanthus roseus*) by JA signaling cascade

JA-induced formation of ornithine-derived nicotine is regulated by ERF189 in tobacco (a) whereas JA-inducible ORCA3 controls the JA-dependent production of monoterpene indole alkaloid vinblastine (b) by recognizing specific GCC box-like elements found in promoters of the targeted. JA-inducible expression of ORCA3 and ERF189 is regulated by a basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH)-family MYC2 transcription factor which is involved in the regulation of a wide range of JA downstream responses. COI1; Coronatine-Insensitive 1 protein, JAZ; Jasmonate ZIM-domain protein. JA-Ile; Isoleucine-conjugated jasmonate.

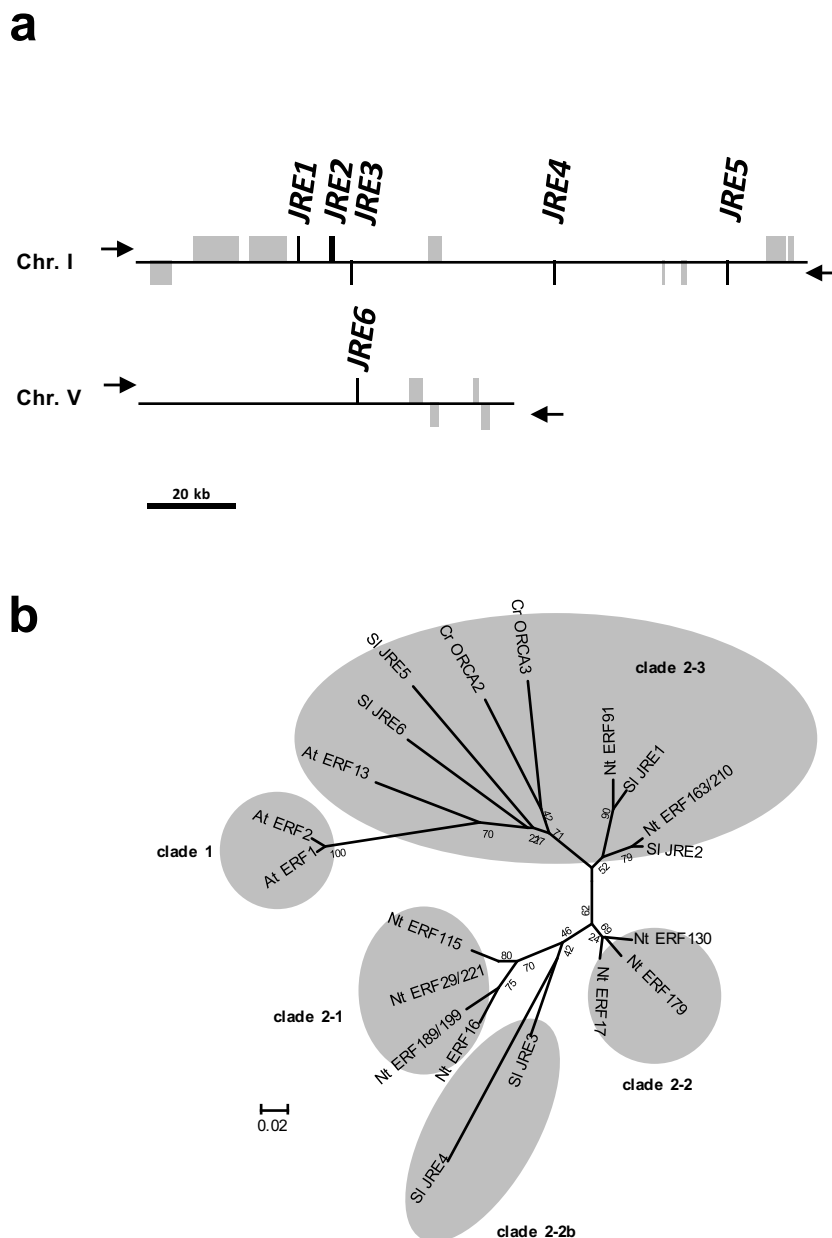


Figure 5. Tomato *JRE* genes

(a) Schematic presentation of a gene cluster of five *JRE* genes on chromosome I and *JRE6* gene on chromosome V. *JRE* and other genes are represented as black and gray boxes. Strands on which each gene resides are indicated with arrowheads.

(b) A phylogenetic tree of tomato *JRE*s and related ERF proteins from Arabidopsis, *Catharanthus roseus*, and tobacco. Two clade 1 ERF genes of group IXa, AtERF1 and AtERF2 are included as genes of an outer group. Amino acid sequences of a DNA-binding domain were aligned with ClustalW (Thompson et al. 1994). An unrooted phylogenetic tree was constructed using the neighbor-joining algorithm with MEGA6 (Tamura et al. 2013). Bootstrap values are indicated at branch nodes, and the scale bar indicates the number of amino acid substitution per site. According to species, names are denoted with prefixes. At, Arabidopsis; Cr, *C. roseus*; Nt, tobacco; Sl, tomato.

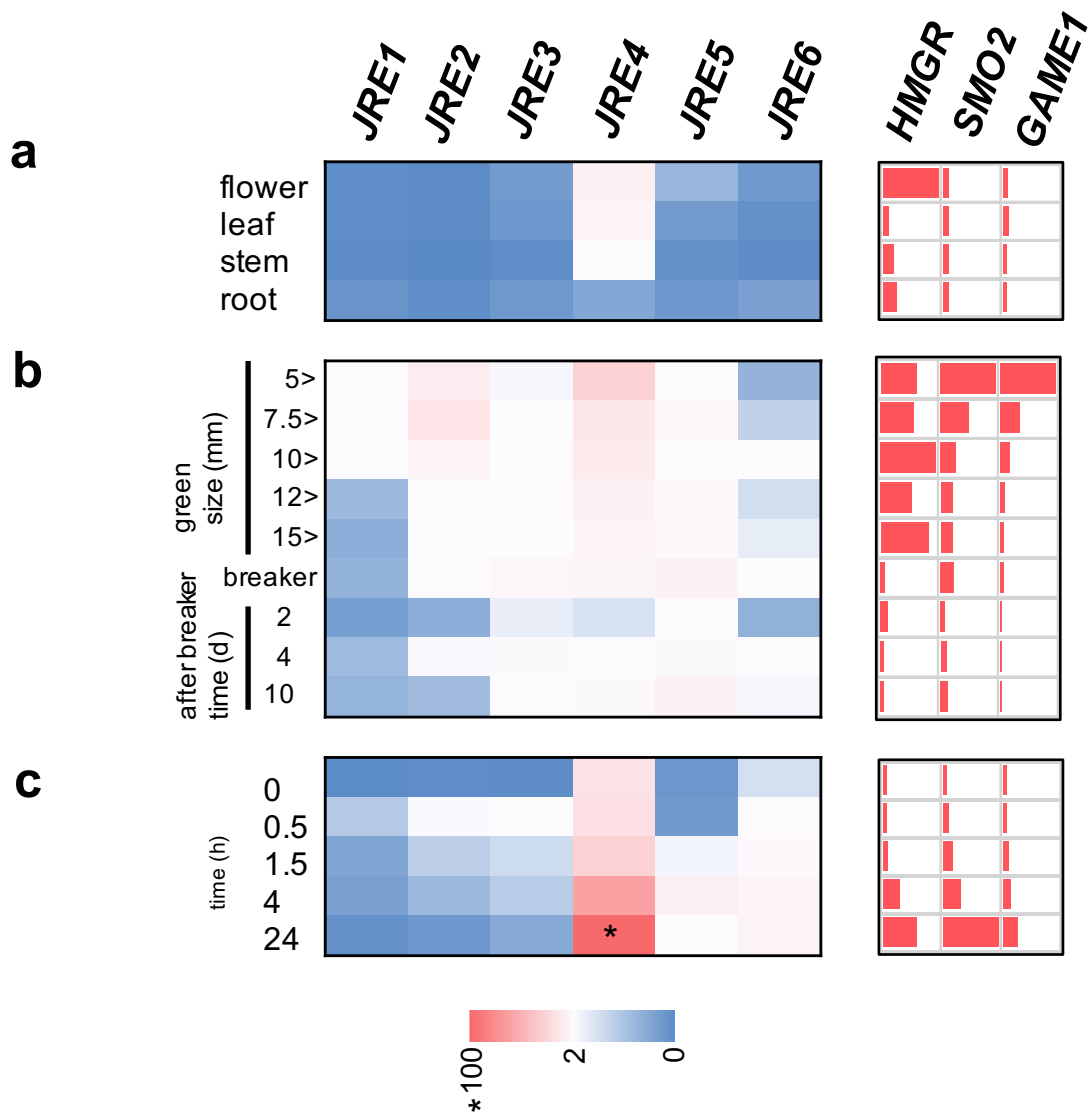


Figure 6. Expression patterns of *JRE* genes in tomato

Tomato organs (a), flower, leaf, stem, and root, and fruits of different ripening stages (b) were examined. Wild-type tomato hairy roots were treated by 100mM MeJA for 0, 0.5, 1.5, 4, and 24h (c). Transcript levels were analyzed by qRT-PCR. Heat maps are drawn using average values of three biological replicates. For *JREs*, values are calculated relative to those of *EF1a*, and are shown as relative levels against the value (set to 100, marked with asterisk) of *JRE4* in hairy roots treated by MeJA for 24 h. For *HMGR1*, *SMO1*, and *GAME1*, levels are shown relative to those in leaf, in fruit at stages with highest expression for each, or in hairy roots at 0 h

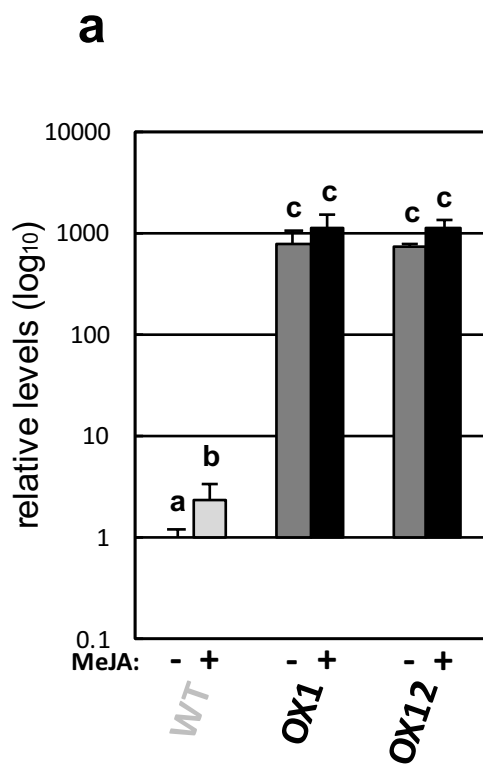


Figure 7. Transgenic JRE4-OX tomato plants

(a) Expression levels of *JRE4* in leaves analyzed by qRT-PCR. Leaves were treated with 100 mM MeJA (+) or mock-treated (-) for 24 h. The error bars indicate the SD for three biological replicates. Significant differences at $P < 0.05$ were determined by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Tukey-Kramer test and are indicated by different letters.

(b) Images of 7-week-old plants of wild-type (WT) and JRE4-OX lines (OX1 and OX12).

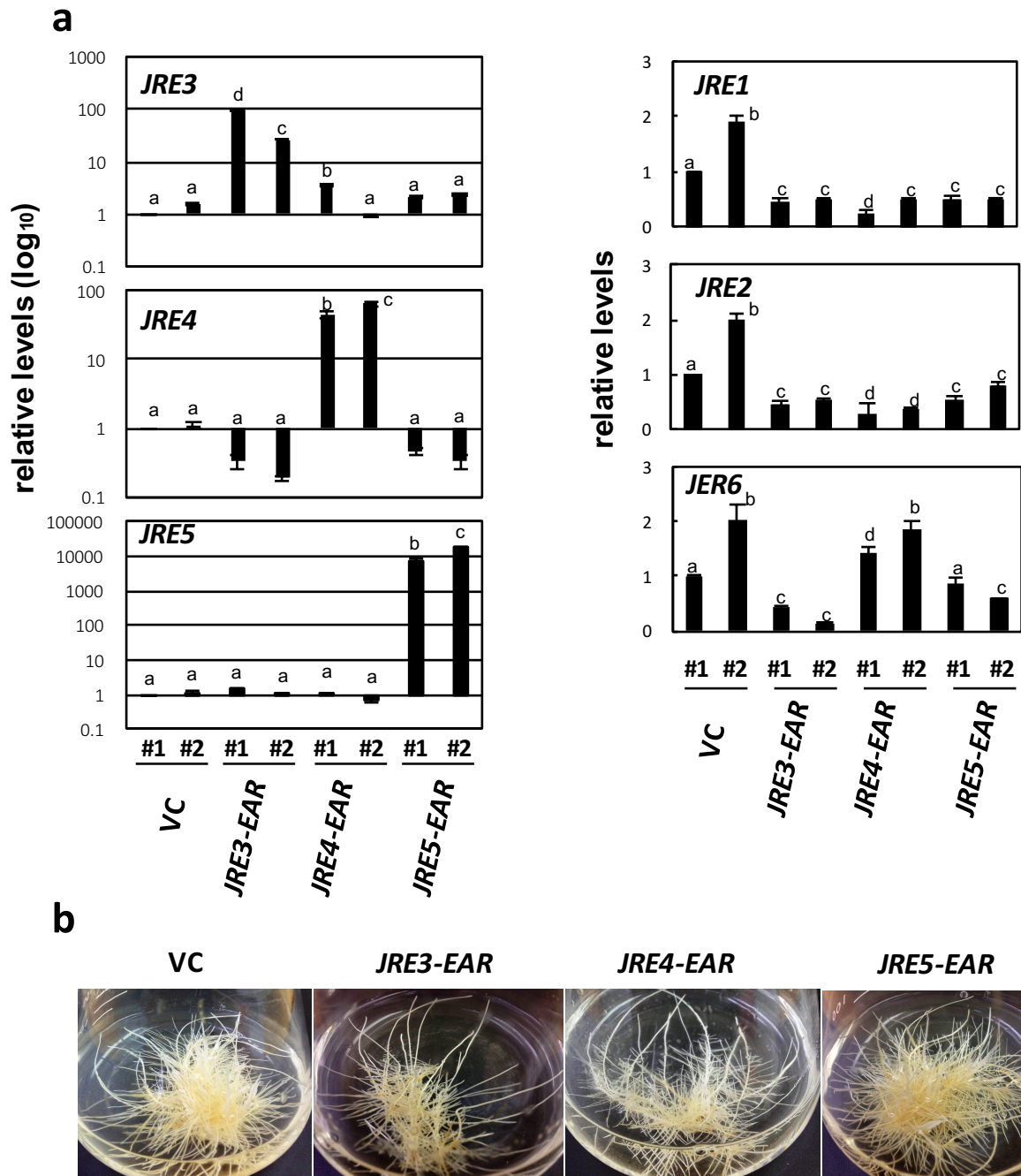


Figure 8. Expression levels of *JRE* genes in transgenic *JRE*-EAR hairy root lines

(a) The hairy root lines were treated by 100 mM MeJA for 24 h. Expression levels were analyzed by qRT-PCR and are shown relative to levels in a vector control line VC #1 for each *JRE* gene. Significant differences at $P < 0.05$ among the lines were determined by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Tukey-Kramer test and are indicated by different letters.

(b) Characteristics of transgenic *JRE*-EAR and vector control (VC) hairy root lines cultured in liquid media for 7 days.

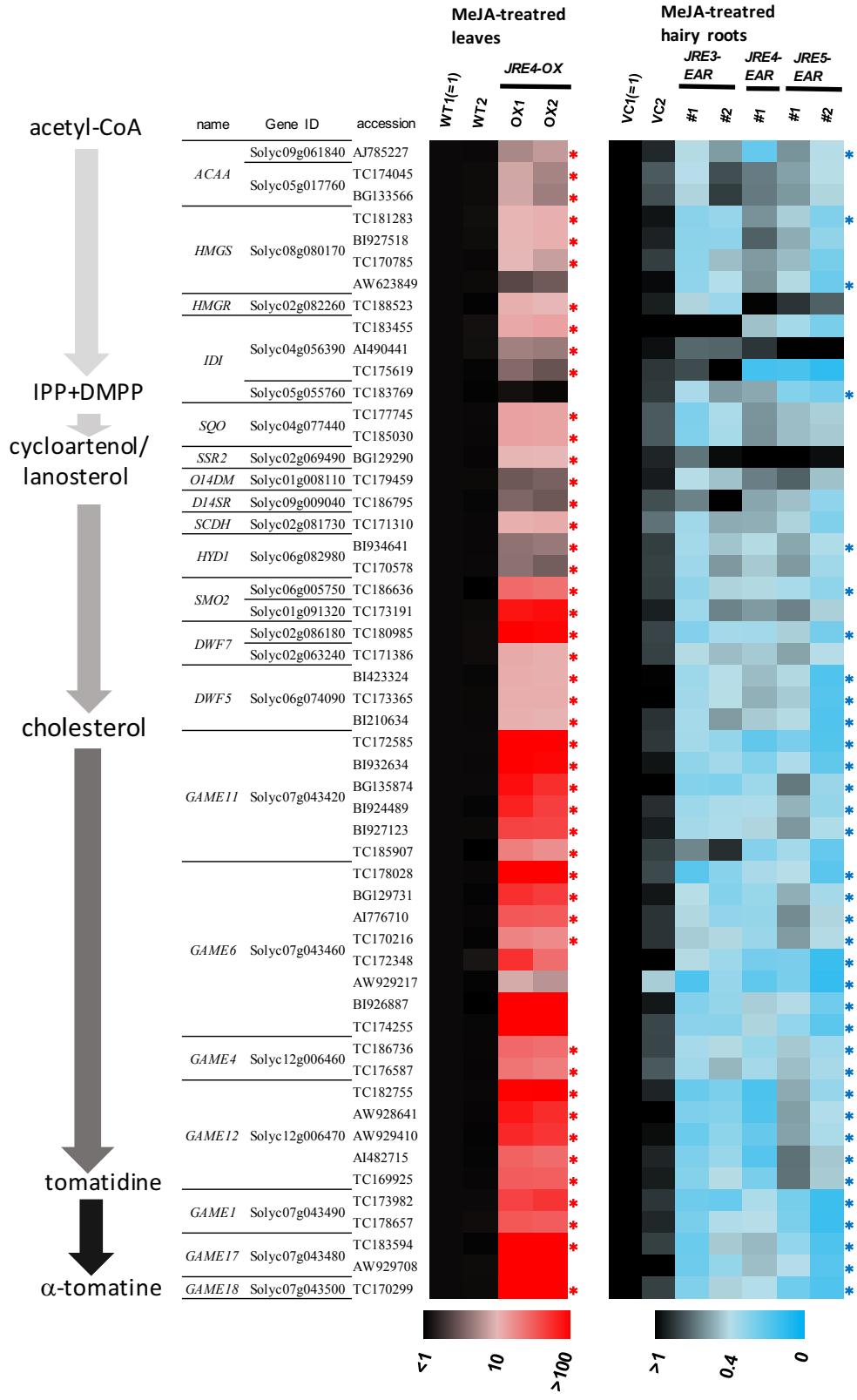


Figure 9. *JRE*-regulated SGA biosynthesis genes identified by cDNA microarray analysis

Probes corresponding to SGA biosynthesis genes up-regulated by *JRE4* overexpression or down-regulated by dominant suppression of *JREs* are shown. Signal intensities relative to those of one of the controls (WT1 or VC1) are represented as heat maps. Probes with $R_{ox} > 5$ and $Q < 0.85$ are marked with red and blue asterisks, respectively. Schematic view of SGA biosynthesis pathway is on the left. ACAA, acetyl-CoA C-acetyltransferase; HMGS, hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA synthase; HMGR, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl CoA reductase; IDI, isopentenyl-diphosphate D-isomerase; SQO, squalene monooxygenase; SSR2, sterol side chain reductase 2; O14DM, obtusifoliol 14a-demethylase; D14SR, D14-sterol reductase; SCDH, sterol-4a-carboxylate 3-dehydrogenase; HYD1, 3b-hydroxysteroid-D8D7-isomerase; SMO2, sterol 4a-methyl oxidase 2; DWF7, sterol C-5 desaturase; DWF5, sterol reductase; GAME, glycoalkaloid metabolism; IPP, isopentenyl pyrophosphate; DMPP, dimethylallyl pyrophosphate.

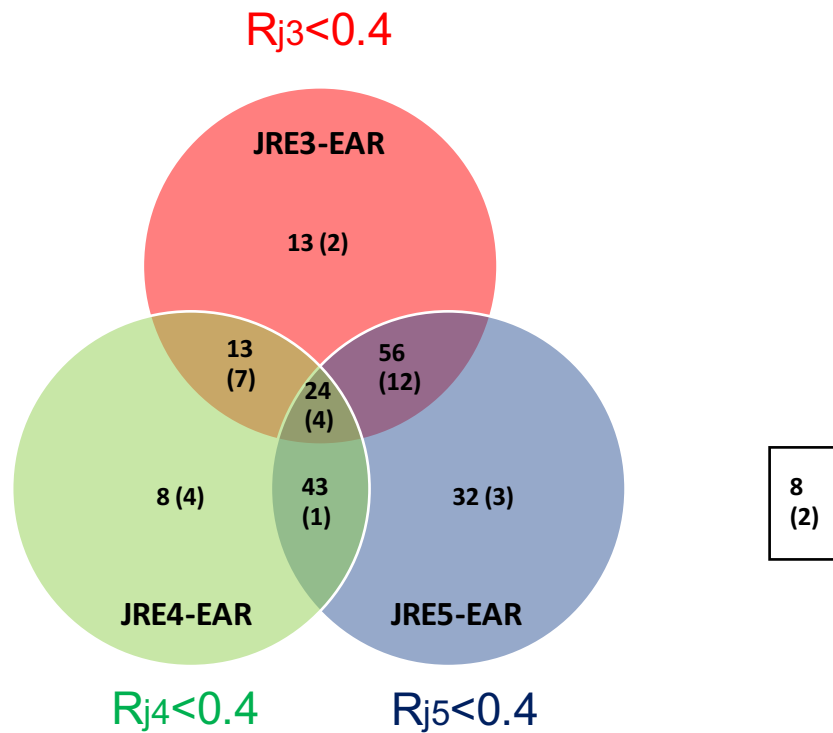
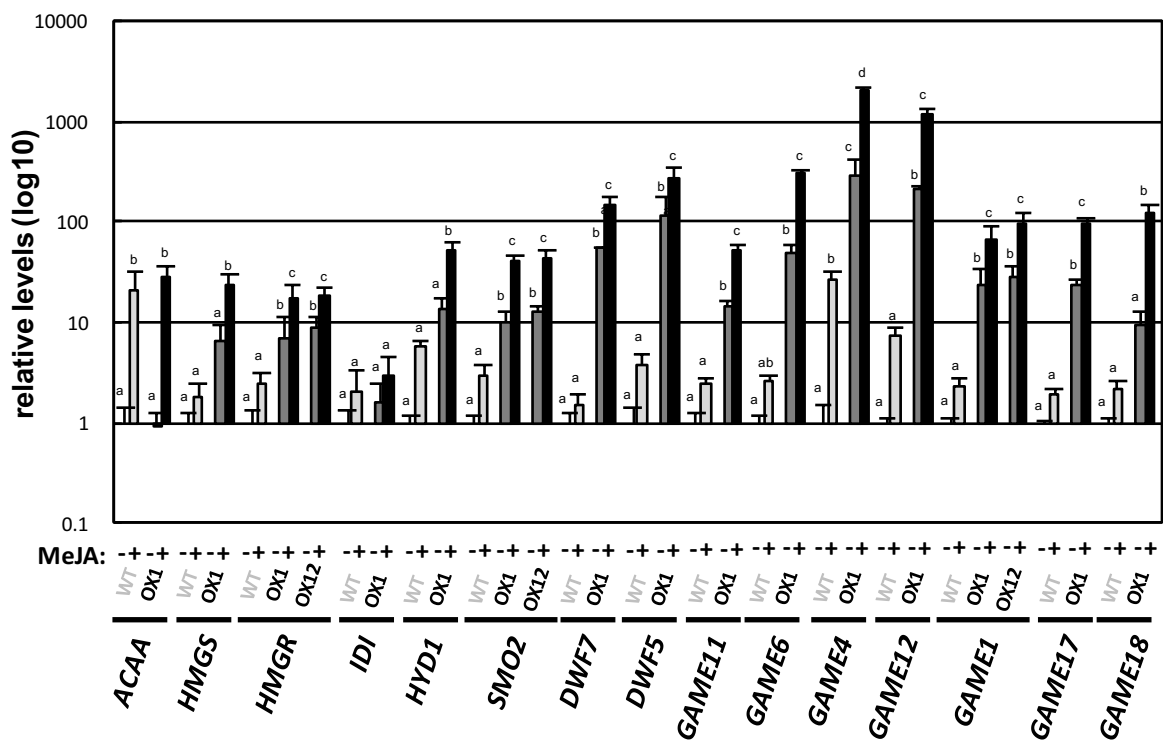


Figure 10. Venn diagram showing numbers of the probes down-regulated by each *JRE-EAR*. All probes with $Q < 0.85$ are divided according to R_j values. Eight probes without R_j values higher than 0.4 are not included in the diagram but in a square. Numbers of SGA biosynthesis gene in each group are bracketed. ($R_{j3} < 0.4$ for JRE3-EAR, $R_{j4} < 0.4$ for JRE4-EAR, $R_{j5} < 0.4$ for JRE5-EAR)

a



b

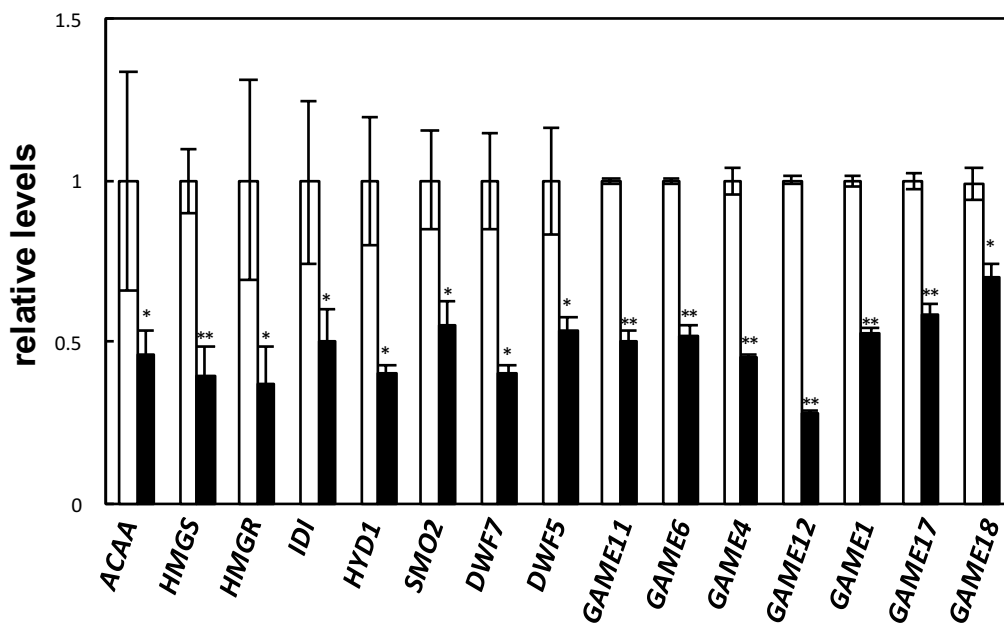


Figure 11. Expression levels of SGA biosynthesis genes in transgenic tomato *JRE4-OX* plant and *JRE4-EAR* hairy root lines

Transcript levels were analyzed by qRT-PCR. The error bars indicate the SD for three biological replicates. Levels are shown relative to the controls. See legend of Fig. 9 for abbreviations of gene names.

(a) Levels in leaves from *JRE4-OX* plant lines treated with MeJA for 24 h.

(b) Levels in hairy roots of *JRE4-EAR* (line #1) treated with MeJA for 24 h.

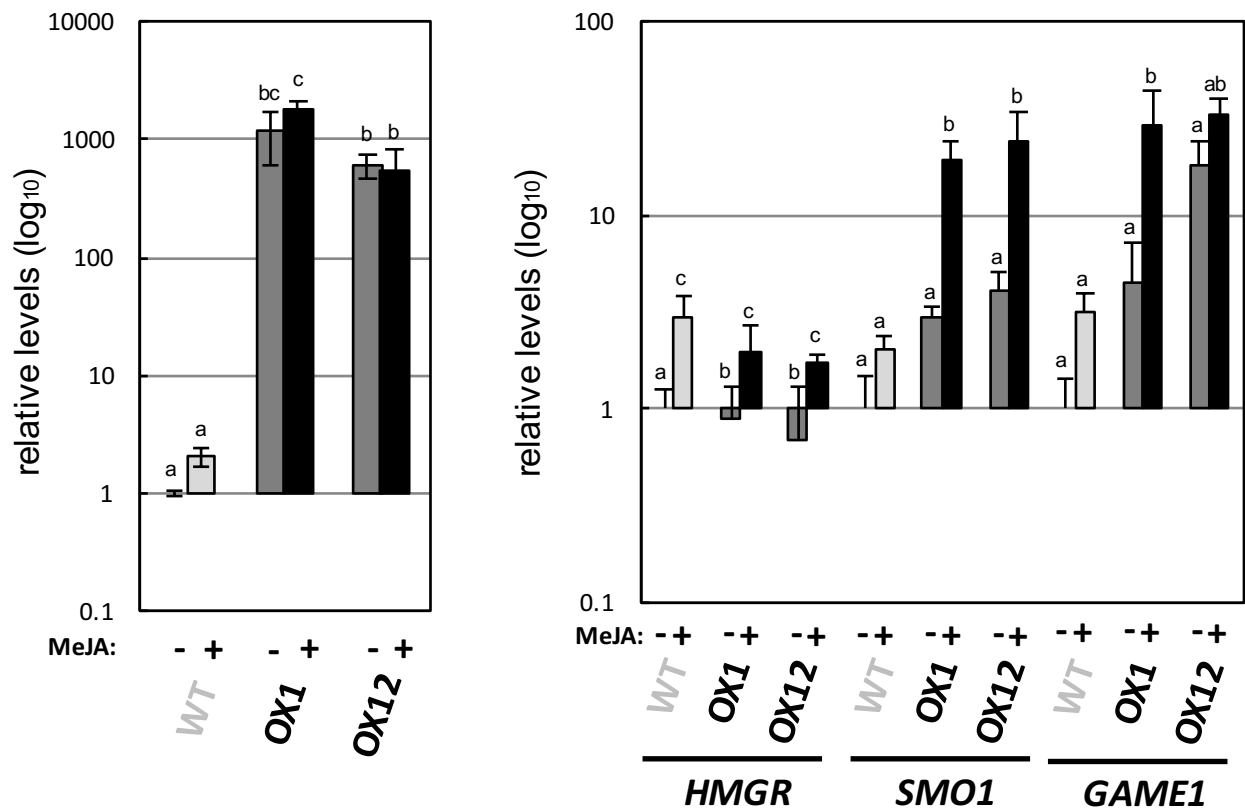


Figure 12. Gene expression in roots of transgenic *JRE4-OX* tomato plants

Transcript levels were analyzed by qRT-PCR. The error bars indicate the SD for three biological replicates. Roots were immersed in 100mM MeJA for 24h for the treatment. Significant differences at $P < 0.05$ among the samples for each gene were determined by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Tukey-Kramer test and are indicated by different letters. (a) Levels of *JRE4*. (b) Levels of *HMGR1*, *SMO1*, and *GAME1*. *HMGR*, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl CoA reductase; *SMO2*, sterol 4a-methyl oxidase; *GAME*, glycoalkaloid metabolism.

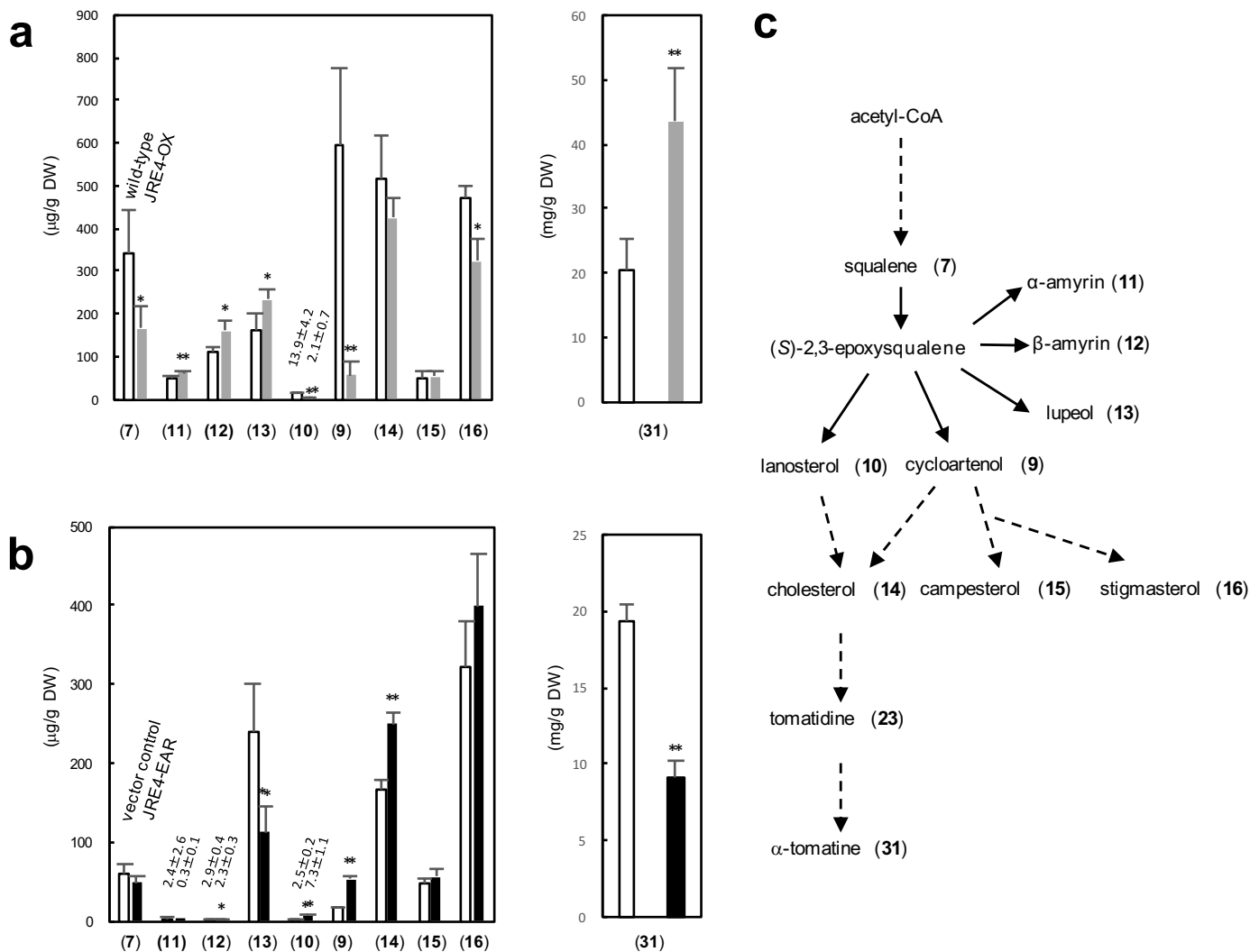


Figure 13. Metabolite levels in transgenic tomato *JRE4-OX* plant and *JRE4-EAR* hairy root lines
 Metabolite levels were analyzed by LC-QTOF-MS for α-tomatine and by GC/MS for others. The error bars represent SD from four (for a) or five (for b) biological replicates.
 (a) Levels in leaves from *JRE4-OX* plants (line OX1) exposed to MeJA vapor for 4 d.
 (b) Levels in hairy roots of *JRE4-EAR* (line #1) treated with MeJA for 4 d.
 (c) Metabolites are schematically indicated in SGA biosynthesis pathway. Number in bucket relates to the chemical structure in Fig. 1 and 2.

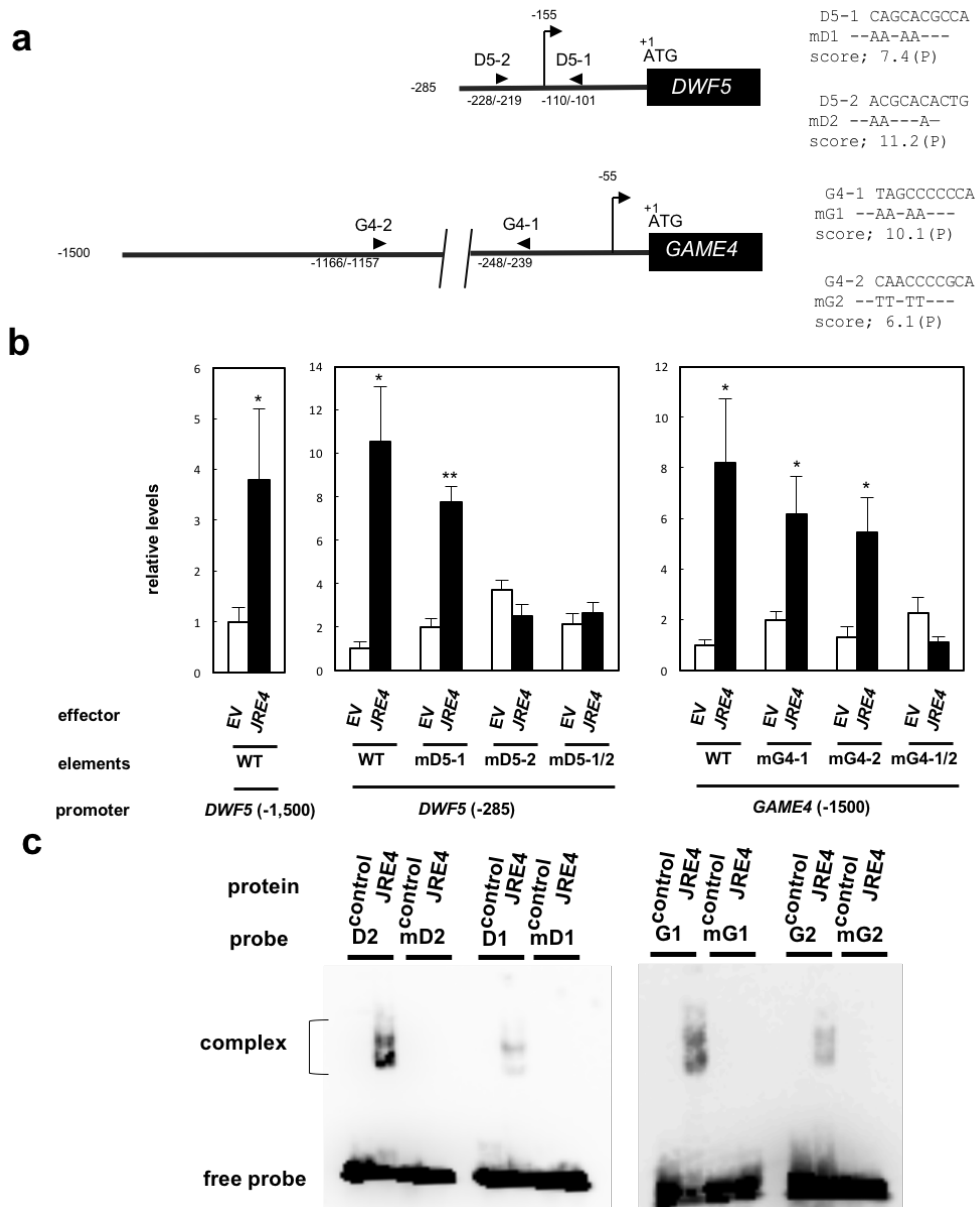


Figure 14. JRE4-mediated activation of *DWF5* and *GAME4* dependent on JRE-binding elements found in the promoter regions

(a) Schematic representation of 5'-flanking regions of *DWF5* and *GAME4*. The positions of JRE-binding elements (arrowheads) and transcriptional start sites (arrows with vertical lines) are shown. On the right, nucleotide sequences of the elements are shown, while only the substituted nucleotides are indicated in mutated versions.

(b) Transient transactivation assays in tomato fruits. *GUS* reporter gene fused with 5'-flanking regions of *DWF5* (-1,500 to 1 or -285 to 1; counted from first ATG) and *GAME4* (-1,500 to 1) or their mutated versions, were delivered into tomato fruits by agroinjection with *JRE4* effector plasmid or empty vector (EV) and *GFP* reference plasmid. Expression levels of *GUS* reporter gene are divided with those of *GFP* reference gene, and are shown as relative values against the values of each wild-type reporter with EV. The bars indicate SD from four independent experiments. Significant differences between EV and *JRE4* effector for each reporter were determined by Student's *t*-test: * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$.

(c) *in vitro* binding of recombinant JRE4 to the predicted elements. Probes were incubated with proteins from empty vector control or recombinant JRE4.

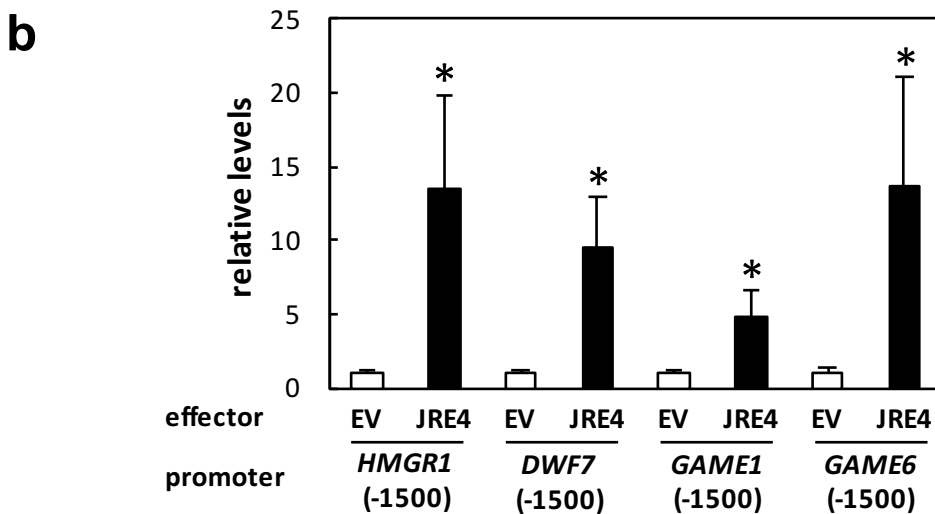
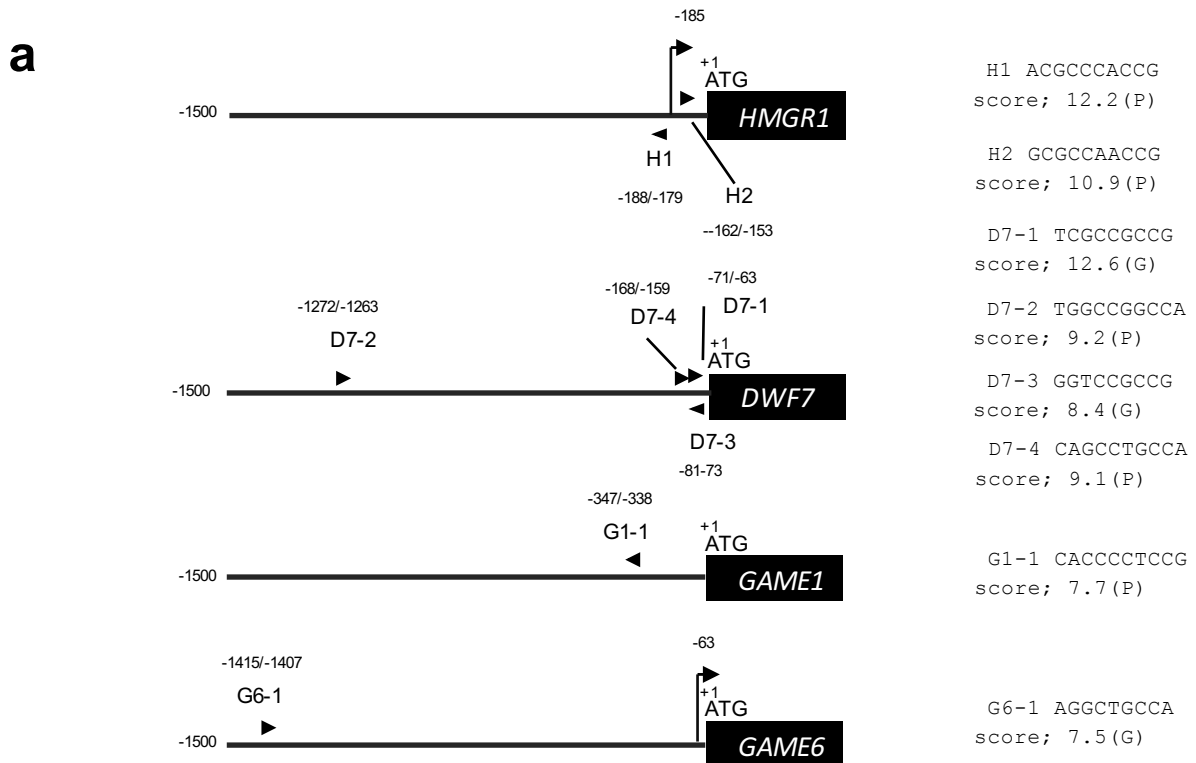


Figure 15. JRE4-mediated activation of SGA genes

(a) Schematic representation of 5'-flanking regions of *HMGR1*, *DWF7*, *GAME1*, and *GAME6*. The positions of JRE-binding elements (arrowheads) and transcriptional start sites (arrows with vertical lines) are shown. On the right, nucleotide sequences of the elements are shown and the RSAT PWM score for each predicted JRE4-binding elements are represented.

(b) Transient transactivation assays in tomato fruits. *GUS* reporter gene fused with 5'-flanking regions of *HMGR1*, *DWF7*, *GAME1*, *GAME6* (-1500 counted from first ATG), were delivered into tomato fruits by agroinjection with *JRE4* effector plasmid or empty vector (EV) and *GFP* reference plasmid. Expression levels of *GUS* reporter gene are divided with those of *GFP* reference gene, and are shown as relative values against the values of each wild-type reporter with EV. The bars indicate SD from four independent experiments. Significant differences between EV and *JRE4* effector for each reporter were determined by Student's *t*-test: **P*<0.05.

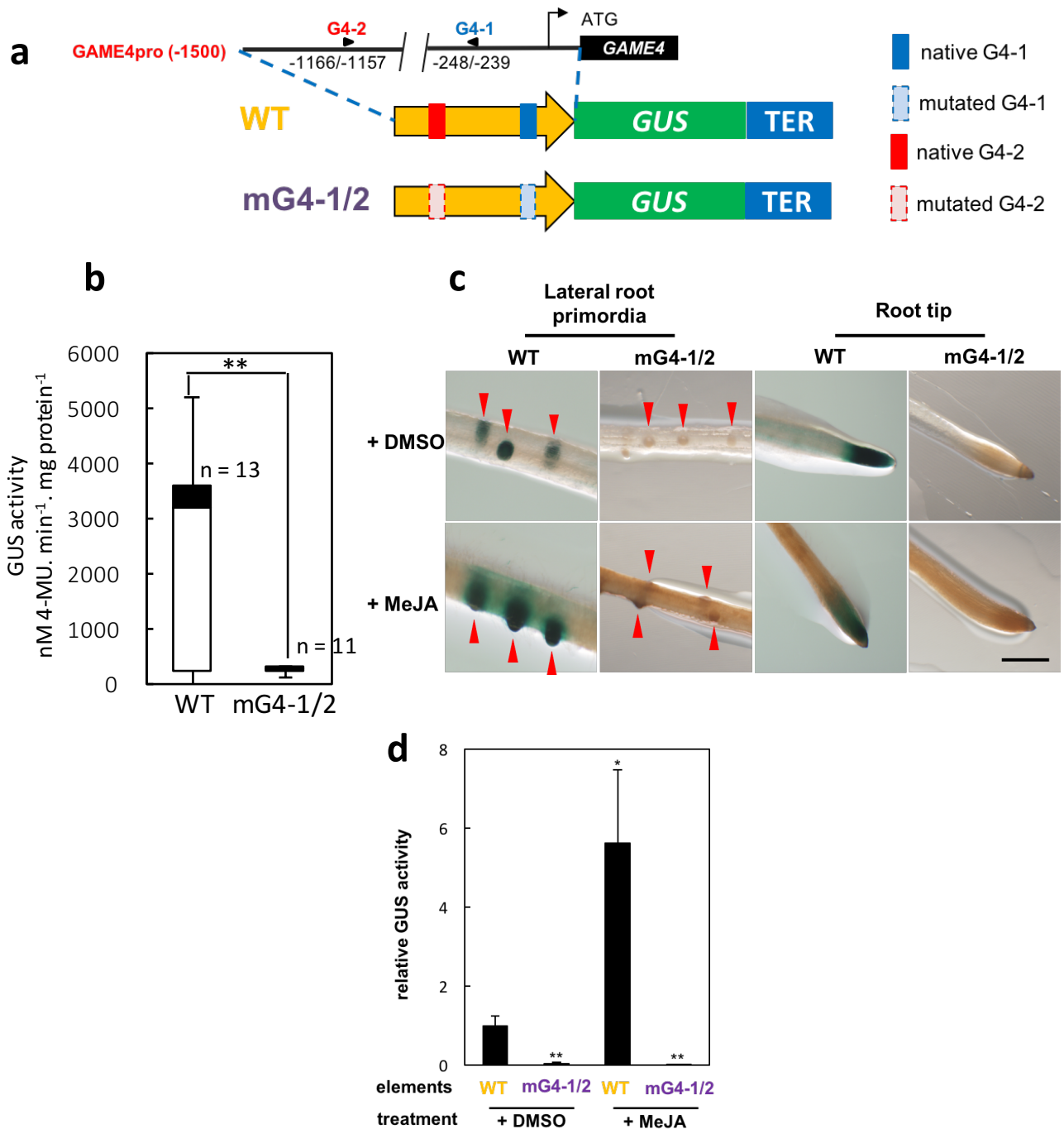


Figure 16. Activation and localization of 5'-flanking regions-driven GUS reporter in transgenic tomato hairy root lines

(a) GAME4-GUS and mGAME4-GUS expression cassettes.

(b) Promoter activity in more than 10 transgenic lines for each construct was determined by GUS activity assay. White- and black-column represent the GUS activity in individual that is distributed in Quartile 1 (25%) and Quartile 3 (75%), respectively. Error bars represent the minimum- and maximum GUS activity in the lowest- and highest-GUS expressers.

(c) Localization of GUS reporter at lateral root primordia and root tip in transgenic GAME4-GUS reporter after MeJA and DMSO treatment. Red arrows indicate the lateral root primordia stained with X-gluc solution. Bar = 1 mm.

(d) Relative GUS activity in GAME4-GUS transgenic lines after MeJA treatment. Gus activity in GAME4-GUS (WT) and mGAME4-GUS (mG4-1/2) transgenic hairy root lines treated with MeJA were compared with that in GAME4-GUS reporter transgenic line treated with DMSO (set as 1). The bars indicate SD from three independent experiments. Significant differences between MeJA-treated and DMSO-treated samples were determined by Student's *t*-test: * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$).

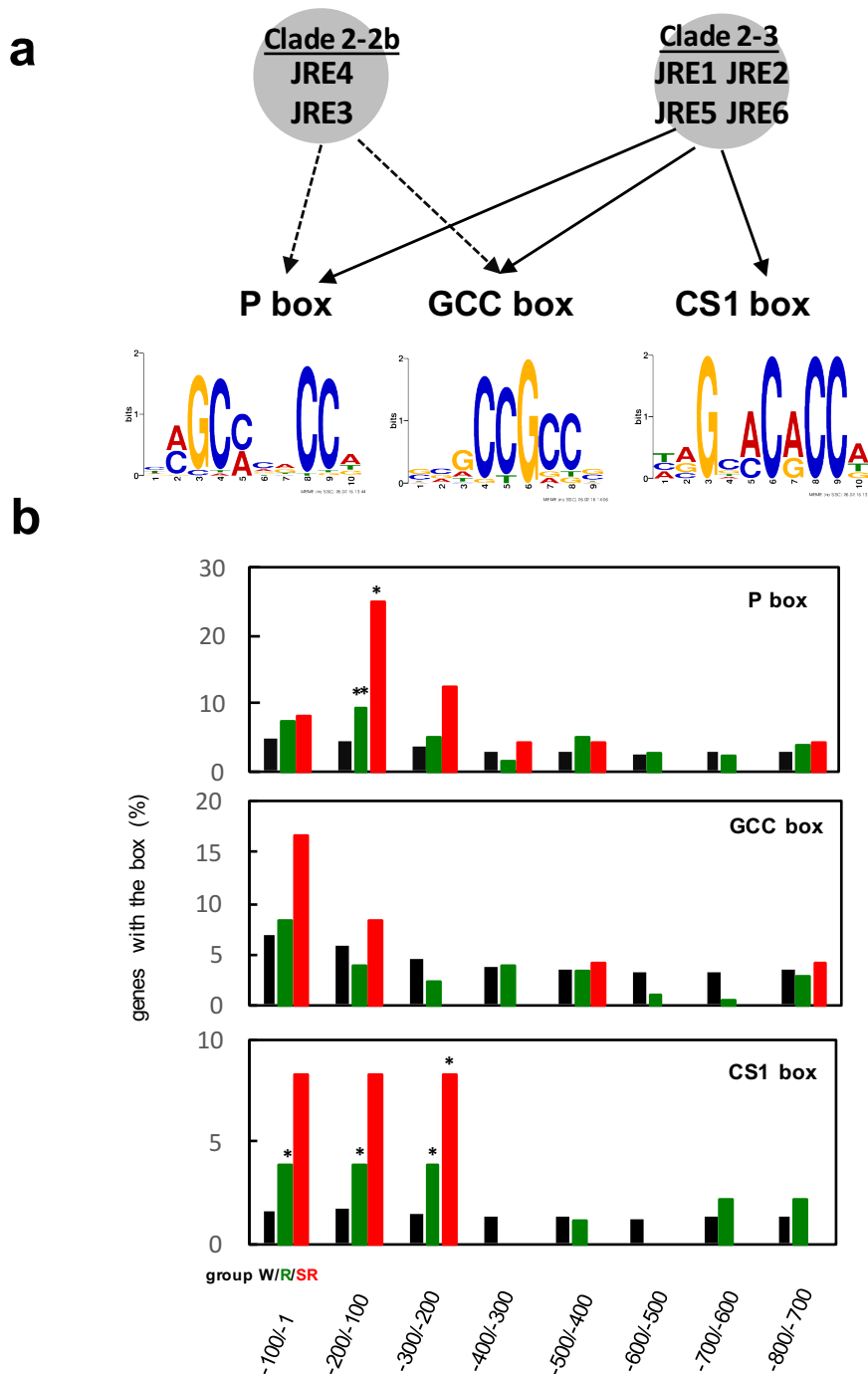
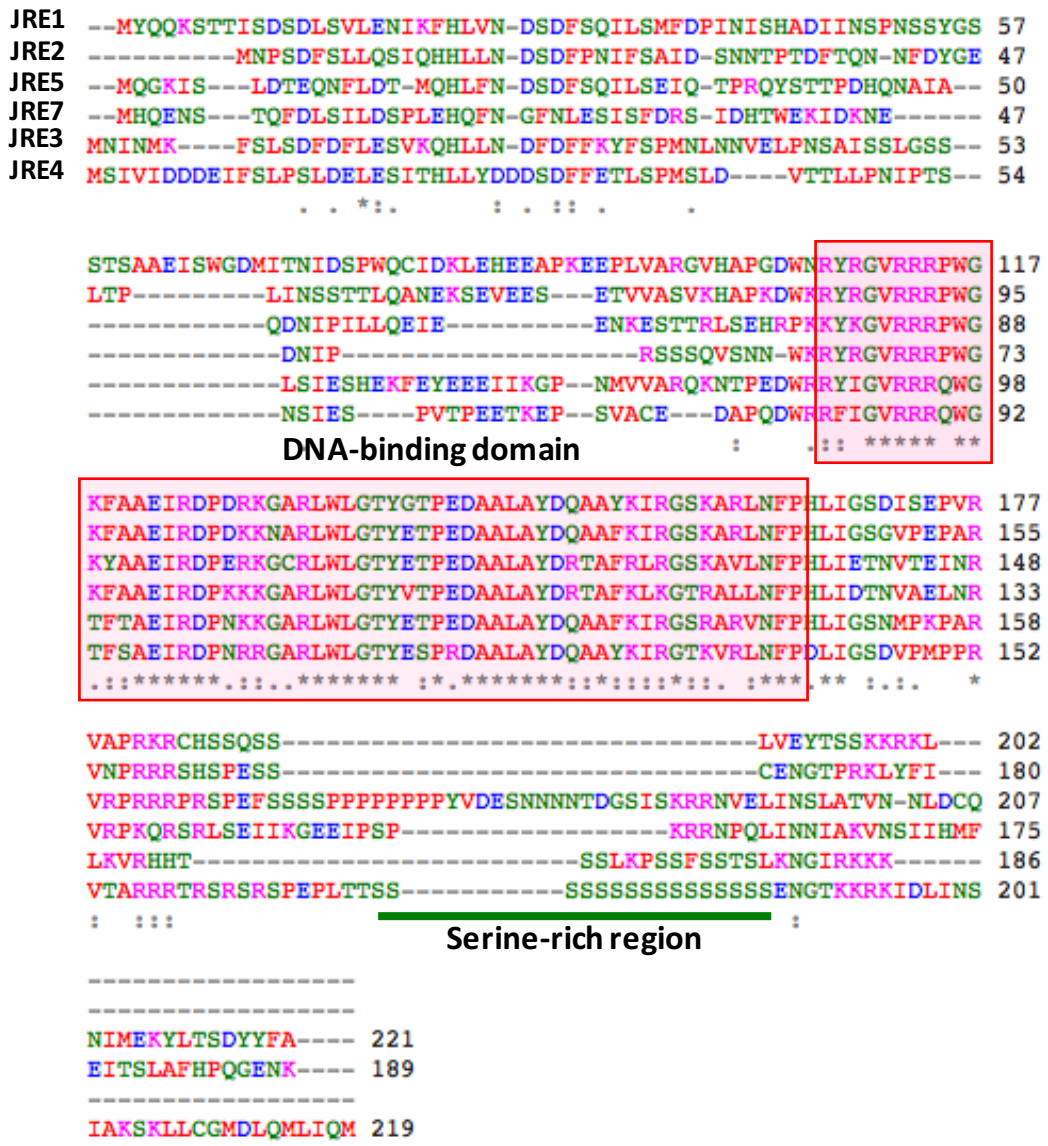


Figure 17. Computational prediction of putative JRE-binding elements in promoter regions of genes regulated by JREs

(a) Presumed binding elements of JREs. The binding of JRE4 to P and GCC boxes was experimentally validated (Shoji et al. 2013), while those for other JREs are based on the assumption that binding specificities are common among the clade members. Sequence logos representing P, CS1, and GCC boxes were generated by WebLogo (Crooks et al. 2004) based on position-specific probability matrices, which were determined using the sequences predicted in the 5'-flanking regions (-300 to -1) of group R genes.

(b) Genes predicted with JRE-binding elements (scores > 7.0) for indicated region in group W (black), R (light blue) and SR (blue). The genes of group R (180 JRE-regulated genes) and of group SR (JRE-regulated 24 SGA biosynthesis genes) are given in **Supplementary Table S3** and **Fig. 9**, respectively. Significant differences of values (shown in %) against those for group W (all 34,725 protein coding genes in tomato genome) were determined by one-sided Fisher's exact test; * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$.



Supplementary figure 1. Multiple sequence alignment of JRE proteins in tomato

Amino acid sequences of JRE transcription factors found in tomato were aligned by ClustalW (Thompson et al. 1994). Amino acids with similar functional group were indicated as the same color and gaps between the multiple alignment were indicated by dash line. Residues shaded by pink box represent the DNA-binding domain of JREs. Green line indicates the serine-rich region specifically found in JRE4. Dot and asterisk represent similar and homologous amino acid found in particular position of JREs.

Table S1 Matrices for P box, CS1 box, and GCC box

Values of position weight matrices used to predict JRE-binding elements in **Fig. 5** and **6** and of position-specific probability matrices used for MEME analysis in **Supplementary Table S8** are included. The weight matrices had been obtained based on DNA-binding experiment using recombinant ORCA3 in Shoji et al. (2013). The probability matrices were generated based on sequences predicted as JRE-binding elements in the 5'-flanking regions (-300 to -1) of group R genes. GCC box, a 7-mer element, is shorter than 10-mer P and CS1 boxes.

position weight matrices		position									
box name	nucleotide	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
P	A	83	81	0	1	79	32	77	9	2	99
	C	97	100	3	100	100	100	15	100	100	2
	G	67	15	100	0	0	36	100	0	9	100
	T	100	0	0	2	0	12	54	5	7	32
CS1	A	100	100	0	39	100	0	11	0	0	100
	C	12	24	0	100	21	100	0	100	100	12
	G	3	79	100	71	0	0	100	0	0	25
	T	34	4	0	64	1	0	0	0	0	38
GCC	A	88	9	10	9	3	14	0			
	C	100	14	100	100	7	100	100			
	G	45	100	2	17	100	5	8			
	T	14	17	5	26	1	21	12			
position-specific probability matrices		position									
box name	nucleotide	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
P	A	0.15625	0.5	0	0.03125	0.40625	0.21875	0.40625	0	0	0.5
	C	0.40625	0.46875	0.0625	0.9375	0.59375	0.5	0.09375	0.96875	0.9375	0.03125
	G	0.125	0.03125	0.9375	0	0	0.15625	0.34375	0	0.03125	0.21875
	T	0.3125	0	0	0.03125	0	0.125	0.15625	0.03125	0.03125	0.25
CS1	A	0.3125	0.5	0	0.125	0.6875	0	0.6875	0	0	0.5625
	C	0.3125	0.1875	0	0.5625	0.3125	1	0	1	1	0
	G	0	0.3125	1	0.1875	0	0	0.3125	0	0	0.1875
	T	0.375	0	0	0.125	0	0	0	0	0	0.25
GCC	A	0.272727	0.181818	0	0	0	0.090909	0			
	C	0.409091	0.045455	0.954545	0.909091	0	0.818182	0.818182			
	G	0.272727	0.636364	0.045455	0	1	0.090909	0.090909			
	T	0.045455	0.136364	0	0.090909	0	0	0.090909			

Table S2 Transcript levels of *JRE* genes and SGA biosynthesis genes in tomato tissues. Values used to draw heat maps in **Fig. 7** are included. Values used as references are in gray.

Experiment	organ	<i>JRE</i> genes						SGA biosynthesis genes		
		<i>JRE1</i>	<i>JRE2</i>	<i>JRE3</i>	<i>JRE4</i>	<i>JRE5</i>	<i>JRE6</i>	<i>HMGR</i>	<i>SMO2</i>	<i>GAME1</i>
a; tomato organs	flower	0.083429	0.041808	0.318882	10.35039	0.794887	0.278367	8.227297	0.947391	0.578763
	leaf	0.082189	0.033217	0.250233	8.372414	0.315435	0.137625	1	1	1
	stem	0.040959	0.022219	0.065472	2.35766	0.123873	0.045245	1.534438	0.922072	0.451969
	root	0.199191	0.078051	0.265529	0.522541	0.257967	0.408984	2.090229	0.790903	0.496819
b; fruit developmental stages	stage									
	green (-5mm)	2.297509	13.08707	1.945406	31.34299	2.51415	0.727022	0.659754	1	1
	green (-7.5mm)	3.605178	18.12703	3.340516	16.68027	5.579248	1.274622	0.607097	0.510506	0.339151
	green (-10mm)	2.01401	7.727867	2.265879	14.32111	3.580276	2.042123	1	0.264255	0.167241
	green (-12mm)	0.840938	3.605178	3.784417	9.781604	5.205622	1.494922	0.574349	0.225313	0.083043
	green (-15mm)	0.627286	2.281639	3.317442	7.516552	4.790149	1.765492	0.864537	0.223756	0.062068
	breaker (Br)	0.730383	3.630254	6.190565	7.26051	9.781601	3.317439	0.072293	0.248273	0.042986
	Br+2d	0.368585	0.641744	1.790138	1.569245	3.387147	0.702257	0.129408	0.07911	0.014579
	Br+4d	0.858607	1.986282	4.112658	3.410707	4.469367	2.234683	0.054409	0.115023	0.025737
	Br+10d	0.747461	0.876648	4.000197	4.141263	8.815673	1.945404	0.061214	0.129408	0.029564
c; time course of MeJA-dependent induction	time (h)									
	0	0.036141	0.058305	0.04982	19.60129	0.235849	1.528742	1	1	1
	0.5	1.12638	1.982222	3.717122	21.43408	0.300988	3.582051	0.726667	1.651079	1.027304
	1	0.493462	1.238889	1.443543	30.73955	1.907755	5.130776	1.19	2.453237	1.542662
	4	0.37546	0.820764	1.172878	62.70096	10.88798	7.618728	4.803333	5.381295	1.962457
	24	0.13302	0.255676	0.559373	100	3.716678	8.542967	9.586667	16.07194	4.1843

Table S5. JRF-regulated genes	
Genes included in Table S1 (red), S2 (blue), or both (purple) are listed in order of Gene ID. SGA biosynthesis genes are highlighted in yellow.	
Description	Gene ID
Cytochrome P450	Solyc02g024700
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g024710
Olefinolol 14.alpha.-demethylase	Solyc02g024712
Beta-1.3-galactanase	Solyc02g024825
Sarcosine transcription factor family protein	Solyc02g024826
Peptidyl prolyl cis-trans isomerase	Solyc02g024990
Potassium sodium hyperpolarization-activated cyclic nucleotide-gated channel 4	Solyc02g024991
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g024995
Receptor-like kinase	Solyc02g024998
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g024999
Multidrug resistance protein ABC transporter family	Solyc02g025004
Glucose transporter 8	Solyc02g025006
TEA2	Solyc02g025007
Steroid 4.alpha.-methyl-oxidase 2 (SMO2)	Solyc02g025012
Methylcrotonate isomerase glutathione S-transferase	Solyc02g025013
Dihydroflavonol 4-reductase family	Solyc02g025017
Transporter major facilitator family	Solyc02g025022
Glucose transporter 8	Solyc02g025026
Calmodulin-binding protein	Solyc02g025040
bHLH transcription factor	Solyc02g025040
NAC domain protein	Solyc02g025048
Helix-loop-helix DNA-binding transcription factor	Solyc02g025050
Cytochrome P450	Solyc02g025052
Fructose-1,6-bisphosphate aldolase	Solyc02g025054
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g025110
Cinnamyl alcohol dehydrogenase-like protein	Solyc02g025130
2-oxoglutarate-dependent dioxygenase	Solyc02g025140
2-oxoglutarate-dependent dioxygenase	Solyc02g025140
Steroid C-5 desaturase (DWF7)	Solyc02g025142
Steroid side chain reductase (SRSD2)	Solyc02g025145
Chlorophyll a/b binding protein	Solyc02g025146
Lipase-like	Solyc02g025150
LRP receptor-like serine/threonine-protein kinase FE1.1	Solyc02g025150
Steroid 4.alpha.-carboxylase 1,4-dihydroxylase	Solyc02g025152
Hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl CoA reductase (HMGIR)	Solyc02g025202
Hemochromatosis type III-like protein	Solyc02g025202
Steroid C-5 desaturase (DWF7)	Solyc02g025610
Calmodulin-like protein	Solyc02g025690
Proline dehydrogenase	Solyc02g025692
Cytochrome P450	Solyc02g025694
Galactosyltransferase-like protein	Solyc02g025694
Glucose-6-phosphate 1,4-dihydroxylase	Solyc02g025698
Proteinase inhibitor II	Solyc02g025698
Retinol dehydrogenase 12	Solyc02g025700
Periodic protein-binding LysM domain-containing protein	Solyc02g025700
UDP-glucosyltransferase family 1 protein	Solyc02g025710
Aquaporin-like protein	Solyc02g025710
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g025712
MN3-like protein	Solyc02g025716
Putative lyase	Solyc02g025720
Peptide transporter	Solyc02g025730
Pod polypeptide	Solyc02g025730
Whitefly-induced gp91-phos	Solyc02g025730
Aquaporin	Solyc02g025740
Phospholipid diacylglycerol acyltransferase	Solyc02g025750
Hydrolase	Solyc02g025750
Mitochondrial transcription termination factor	Solyc02g025750
Peptide transporter	Solyc02g025750
Pyruvate kinase	Solyc02g025750
Carboxyl methyltransferase	Solyc02g025750
Isopenicillin-N-diphosphate delta-isomerase (IDI)	Solyc02g025750
Tubulin alpha-2 chain	Solyc02g025750
Erg28 like protein	Solyc02g025750
Serine threonine kinase receptor	Solyc02g025750
Squalene monooxygenase	Solyc02g025750
Cytochrome P450	Solyc02g025750
Receptor-like kinase	Solyc02g025750
Mitogen-activated protein kinase 9	Solyc02g025750
Nodulin-like protein	Solyc02g025750
Peptide transporter	Solyc02g025750
Solute carrier family 15 member 4	Solyc02g025750
Solute carrier family 15 member 4	Solyc02g025750
Peptide transporter	Solyc02g025750
Peptide transporter	Solyc02g025750
Expansion 12	Solyc02g025750
Mitogen-activated protein kinase 15	Solyc02g025750
Pyrimidine 5Nucleoside diphosphate kinase	Solyc02g025750
Primary amine oxidase	Solyc02g025750
Oxioxyproline-Phos/Phen1 domain-containing protein	Solyc02g025750
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g025750
Acetyl-CoA C-acetyltransferase (ACA)	Solyc02g025750
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g025750
N-myristoyltransferase	Solyc02g025750
Calmodulin-binding heat-shock protein	Solyc02g025750
Chalcone synthase 2	Solyc02g025750
F-box protein PPD-B1	Solyc02g025750
Fructose hydrolase	Solyc02g025750
Isopenicillin-N-diphosphate delta-isomerase (IDI)	Solyc02g025750
Steroid acyltransferase 1	Solyc02g025750
Steroid 4.alpha.-methyl-oxidase 2 (SMO2)	Solyc02g025750
Genomic DNA chromosome 3 P1 clone MHL12	Solyc02g025750
Austin-regulated protein	Solyc02g025750
LRP receptor-like serine/threonine-protein kinase FE1.1	Solyc02g025750
UDP-sugar pyrophosphorylase	Solyc02g025750
Austin-responsive family protein	Solyc02g025750
Non-specific lipid transfer protein	Solyc02g025750
Nitrate transporter	Solyc02g025750
Acid phosphatase	Solyc02g025750
Acid phosphatase	Solyc02g025750
Ethylene responsive transcription factor 2a	Solyc02g025750
GDSL esterase/lipase 5	Solyc02g025750
Aquaporin	Solyc02g025750
Seed specific protein	Solyc02g025750
Steroid reductase (SRD5A)	Solyc02g025750
Aquaporin	Solyc02g025750
Ethylene oxidase DcHs1 DcHs7 isomerase	Solyc02g025750
Calmodulin-like protein	Solyc02g025750
Leucine-rich repeat receptor-like protein kinase PPP2R2	Solyc02g025750
Sensory-associated protein	Solyc02g025750
SRKase	Solyc02g025750
CONSTANS-like protein	Solyc02g025750
Subtilisin-like serine protease	Solyc02g025750
Rosette regulated protein DDFTR10	Solyc02g025750
Cellobiose synthase family protein	Solyc02g025750
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g025750
GAME11	Solyc02g025750
GAME5	Solyc02g025750
GAME17	Solyc02g025750
GAME1	Solyc02g025750
GAME18	Solyc02g025750
CONSTANS-like zinc finger protein	Solyc02g025750
Aubinergalactin protein	Solyc02g025750
Expansion B1	Solyc02g025750
Xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase 7	Solyc02g025750
Heme-binding protein 2	Solyc02g025750
Cytochrome P450	Solyc02g025750
Cytochrome P450	Solyc02g025750
Aquaporin	Solyc02g025750
Fatty acid oxidation complex subunit alpha	Solyc02g025750
Acyltransferase-like protein	Solyc02g025750
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g025750
Austin responsive SAUR protein	Solyc02g025750
Hydroxy-methylglutaryl CoA synthase (HMGCS)	Solyc02g025750
MYB transcription factor	Solyc02g025750
Gluconase 5-transferase	Solyc02g025750
Xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase 12	Solyc02g025750
Dichalid-stenil reductase	Solyc02g025750
Alcohol dehydrogenase zinc-containing	Solyc02g025750
Acetyl-CoA C-acetyltransferase (ACA)	Solyc02g025750
Steroid 3-beta-glucosyltransferase	Solyc02g025750
1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase 2	Solyc02g025750
POF family domain containing protein	Solyc02g025750
POF family domain containing protein	Solyc02g025750
Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate 3-phosphatase	Solyc02g025750
Major allergen Mal d 1	Solyc02g025750
Light regulated protein-like protein	Solyc02g025750
Serine/threonine-protein kinase receptor	Solyc02g025750
RING finger protein 5	Solyc02g025750
Expressed protein	Solyc02g025750
Squamosa promoter binding protein 15	Solyc02g025750
Peroxidase	Solyc02g025750
F-box-LRR-repeat protein	Solyc02g025750
Ethylene-responsive nucleoside synthase	Solyc02g025750
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g025750
1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase oxygenase	Solyc02g025750
Was synthase isoform 3	Solyc02g025750
Blue copper protein	Solyc02g025750
Austin response factor 17	Solyc02g025750
UDP-glucosyltransferase	Solyc02g025750
UDP-glucosyltransferase	Solyc02g025750
NBS-LRR	Solyc02g025750
Semina specific protease 1b	Solyc02g025750
Exocyst complex protein EXO70	Solyc02g025750
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g025750
GAME3	Solyc02g025750
GAME12	Solyc02g025750
Germinic-D synthase	Solyc02g025750
Proline-rich protein	Solyc02g025750
Glucoyltransferase	Solyc02g025750
UDP-glucosyltransferase 1-4	Solyc02g025750
Transcription factor CYCLOIDEA	Solyc02g025750
Cellular cell-delimiting protein, helical	Solyc02g025750
Ulk4 known protein	Solyc02g025750
Cytochrome P450	Solyc02g025750
Heat shock protein 4	Solyc02g025750
Exonuclease-like	Solyc02g025750
Gibberellin-regulated protein 2	Solyc02g025750
UDP-D-glucosyltransferase 4-epimerase	Solyc02g025750
Putid extension like protein	Solyc02g025750
AMVdr dehydrogenase	Solyc02g025750

Table S7 SGA levels in transgenic tomato *JRE4-OX* plant and *JRE4-EAR* hairy root lines.

Metabolite levels were analyzed by LC-QTOF-MS. The levels were calculated based on the assumption that all SGAs exhibit the same molar response as α -tomatine. Levels of α -tomatine (denoted with asterisk) are shown in **Fig. 4** as well. SGAs were extracted from leaves of *JRE4-OX* (line OX1) and wild-type plants exposed to MeJA vapor for 4 d and hairy roots of *JRE4-EAR* (line #1) and vector control line #1 treated with MeJA for 4 d. SGAs with bracketed numbers are schematically indicated in the metabolic pathway in **Supplementary Figure S5**.

SGA levels in leaves from plants exposed to MeJA vapors

Peak ID	retention time (min)	<i>m/z</i>	annotation	wild type		<i>JRE4-OX</i> line OX1	
				average (n=4)	SD	average (n=4)	SD
P_0132_1136	4.9369	1004.542	tomatidine dihexoside dipentoside isomer	0.21	0.08	0.59	0.11
P_0132_1154	4.3122	1034.552	α -tomatine isomer (31)	0.04	0.08	0.17	0.12
P_0132_1155	4.8078	1034.551	α -tomatine (31) *	20.46	4.71	43.47	8.42
P_0132_1163	4.2479	1032.53	dehydrotomatine isomer #1 (34)	0.07	0.08	0.11	0.15
P_0132_1160	4.7104	1032.536	dehydrotomatine isomer #2 (34)	2.80	0.61	4.15	0.38
P_0132_1173	4.7612	1064.561	tomatidine tetrahexoside	0.32	0.09	0.59	0.13
P_0132_1178	4.0942	1050.546	hydroxytomatine isomer #4 (32)	0.00	0.00	0.15	0.18

SGA levels in hairy roots treated with MeJA

Peak ID	retention time (min)	<i>m/z</i>	annotation	vector control line #1		<i>JRE4-EAR</i> line #1	
				average (n=5)	SD	average (n=5)	SD
P_0102_1782	4.9468	1004.537	tomatidine dihexoside dipentoside	0.12	0.01	0.00	0.00
P_0102_1807	4.1947	1030.522	didehydrotomatine isomer #1	0.76	0.19	0.00	0.00
P_0102_1777	4.3725	1030.519	didehydrotomatine isomer #2	0.09	0.05	0.00	0.00
P_0102_1801	4.2519	1032.535	dehydrotomatine isomer #1 (34)	1.82	0.26	0.09	0.13
P_0102_1802	4.7434	1032.535	dehydrotomatine isomer #2 (34)	2.90	0.17	1.31	0.19
P_0102_1793	4.3404	1034.552	α -tomatine isomer (31)	0.82	0.23	0.06	0.08
P_0102_1794	4.8356	1034.551	α -tomatine (31) *	19.32	1.14	9.10	1.04
P_0102_1815	3.8955	1050.546	hydroxytomatine isomer #1 (32)	0.12	0.11	0.22	0.02
P_0102_1818	3.9521	1050.545	hydroxytomatine isomer #2 (32)	1.27	0.08	0.60	0.06
P_0102_1813	4.027	1050.547	hydroxytomatine isomer #3 (32)	0.72	0.06	0.30	0.03
P_0102_1816	4.0961	1050.546	hydroxytomatine isomer #4 (32)	0.57	0.61	0.19	0.14
P_0102_1819	4.2015	1050.544	hydroxytomatine isomer #5 (32)	0.19	0.15	0.11	0.02
P_0102_1817	4.3192	1050.546	hydroxytomatine isomer #6 (32)	0.69	0.15	0.44	0.27
P_0102_1838	4.792	1064.562	tomatidine tetrahexoside	0.41	0.04	0.15	0.04
P_0102_1833	4.7294	1090.537	acetoxydehydrotomatine	0.11	0.01	0.00	0.00

Table S8 Top 10 sequences retrieved by MEME analysis.

The 5'-flanking regions (-1,500 to -1) of group R and SR genes were used as queries. Top 10 sequences retrieved are included. The match scores, which were calculated using position-specific probability matrices, represent similarities of the sequences to each box. The scores range from 0 (no similarity) to 1 (exactly same). The scores 0.5 or higher are highlighted in yellow. The orientations of the alignments are denoted with the scores.

				match score		
rank	e-value	sequence logo	motif	P box	CS1 box	GCC box
to						
1	1.50E-52		[CT][CT][TC]C[TC]C[TC]C[TC]C	0.610 +	0.518 +	0.398 +
2	2.60E-19		[TC]TT[CT]TTCT[TC][CT]	0.376 +	0.403 -	0.311 +
3	3.00E-09		[GC]GG[CA][GA]G[GC][GA]G	0.580 -	0.507 -	0.573 -
4	3.50E-02		C[TC]C[GC]C[ACT]C[GAT][CA]C	0.615 +	0.578 +	0.444 +
5	9.60E-02		[CAT][AC]AC[AG]CAC[CA]C	0.623 +	0.644 +	0.370 +
6	3.30E+03		AAAAA[AG]AAAA	0.315 +	0.355 +	0.139 +
7	6.20E+05		GGACGG[TG]GGA	0.474 -	0.403 -	0.455 -
8	3.40E+04		C[CAT]C[CG]ACC[TA][ACT]C	0.458 +	0.457 +	0.459 +
9	7.50E+01		[TA]GG[AT]CCC[AC][CA]	0.466 +	0.537 +	0.436 +
10	1.00E+06		[AG]AGA[GA]AGAGA	0.471 -	0.391 +	0.328 -
group SR						
rank	e-value	sequence logo	motif	P box	CS1 box	GCC box
1	1.40E-12		[AG][GC]G[GA][AT]G[GA]G[GA]G	0.553 -	0.452 -	0.427 -
2	2.60E-02		G[GA]GGGG[CG][GT]A	0.641 -	0.527 -	0.581 -
3	1.20E-01		C[TA]CT[CG]TC[CT][CA]	0.482 +	0.400 +	0.367 +
4	5.90E+02		C[TC]CC[AT][TC][TC]CCC	0.550 +	0.469 +	0.381 +
5	2.10E+04		TCCGG[CA]GGG[GA]	0.444 -	0.429 -	0.518 -
6	4.00E+04		[GT]GG[GA]GCT[GT][CG][GC]	0.484 -	0.530 -	0.497 -
7	4.90E+04		[CA][TC][GC]CC[CT]ACC	0.652 +	0.594 +	0.460 +
8	7.40E+04		AGGGGGG	0.464 -	0.439 -	0.502 -
9	1.30E+05		GAGCCGC	0.380 +	0.348 +	0.598 +
10	2.20E+05		GAA[AG]AGG[AG][GA]G	0.409 -	0.337 -	0.359 -

Table S9 Oligonucleotide primers used for qRT-PCR analysis.

Gene name	Gene ID or accession	forward or reverse (F or R)	sequences (5' to 3')
<i>ACAA</i>	Solyc09g061840	F	GGTGCTGGACTAGAGTTCATGACAG
		R	GGGCTTGTGCAAAGCATC
<i>HMGS</i>	Solyc08g080170	F	CAATGTCGGATGCAGCCTAC
		R	GGATTCAAAGGGGGCCAGG
<i>HMGR</i>	Solyc02g082260	F	GAGCAGCTAATTATCGAGGAAG
		R	GGCAGGTTGCTGTGGAAC
<i>IDI</i>	Solyc04g056390	F	GTTGTGATAGCATCCTTCTGC
		R	CCGATTATACAGCACAAACAGC
<i>DWF7</i>	Solyc02g086180	F	ATACCGTCGGAGATGGAGG
		R	GCCAATGTAGTTACGGAGCC
<i>SMO2</i>	Solyc06g005750	F	AGTGTCCAGTGTGCGTGTG
		R	GAACCAACTGAGACTCCGC
<i>DWF5</i>	Solyc06g074090	F	TCTGCTTGGGCGTTTCTTC
		R	CCAAACCACCCTGCCTTTTC
<i>HYD1</i>	Solyc06g0829080	F	TGGCATCTCATCCGTAAGTGG
		R	CCACCAGCACATGAGTACCC
<i>GAME1</i>	Solyc07g043490	F	TTGCCGGATGTTCCATGATCG
		R	CTAATGAAGAAACAGCGTCCTGG
<i>GAME4</i>	Solyc12g006460	F	ACCTGTTGCTCTTATGTCTGTC
		R	CCTCTTGTTCCTCTTTGGCTT
<i>GAME6</i>	Solyc07g043460	F	CTACTTTGTATGGTGGCGTCC
		R	GGTGCAATGGCATGGGTTTAG
<i>GAME11</i>	Solyc07g043420	F	TCCTTCCCTATAAATGGCCCTC
		R	GAGAGAAGATCCGCCATTGAC
<i>GAME12</i>	Solyc12g006470	F	GCGGAGGGTTCTTATGTCTATG
		R	GCTTCAATAAGACGAGGCTCAC
<i>GAME17</i>	Solyc07g043480	F	GCCATCTCCGACAACCTTCTC
		R	GTTGCCTAGCTTCACGGTTAG
<i>GAME18</i>	Solyc07g043500	F	ATTTGTAACGCATTGTGGTTGG
		R	CTTGGGACCTCAACAGCTAC
<i>JRE1</i>	Solyc1g090300	F	CGATAGGAAAGGTGCTAGGC
		R	AGCCACGAATCTTATAAGCG
<i>JRE2</i>	Solyc1g090310	F	AGACAGTGGTGGCAAGTGTG
		R	CATTTTTCTTATCCGGATCC
<i>JRE3</i>	Solyc1g090320	F	CGCTACTACCATATTAGGTC
		R	GTGCTATCTCAAGTTTAGGTAGCTC
<i>JRE4</i>	Solyc1g090340	F	TGTTTCCTCCGGTGTTACGG
		R	CGATTTTTTCGAACTCTTTCC
<i>JRE5</i>	Solyc1g090370	F	GATCATCAAACCGCATCGC
		R	ATTTTTTCGGCCTATGCTC
<i>JRE6</i>	Solyc5g050790	F	ACGCGGCATTGGCTTATGATC
		R	TCAGCTCAGCAACATTCGTGTC
<i>EF1 α</i>	Solyc05g005060	F	AAGCCTGGTATGGTTGTGAC
		R	CACCAGGGAGTGCCTCCTGG
<i>GUS</i>	AF485783	F	CTTTGATCGCGTCAGCGCCGTCG

	(for used template)	R	CGAAGTTCATGCCAGTCCAGCG
<i>GFP</i>	AB289767	F	CAAGATCCGCCACAACATCGAGG
	(for used template)	R	CTGGGTGCTCAGGTAGTGGTTGTC

Table S10 Sense and anti-sense oligonucleotides for probes used in EMSA. Sense oligonucleotide labelled with biotin at 5' end were commonly used to generate all the probes. Substituted nucleotides for mutant probes are underlined.

Probe name	sense or antisense (S or AS)	Sequence (5' to 3')
(for all)	S (labelled with biotin)	Biotin-ACACCGAGG
G1	AS	NNNNNNNNTAGCCCCCANNNNCCTCGG
mG1	AS	NNNNNNNNTA <u>AAACA</u> ACCANNNNCCTCGG
G2	AS	NNNNNNNNCAACCCCGCANNNNCCTCGG
mG2	AS	NNNNNNNNCATT <u>CTT</u> GCANNNNCCTCGG
D1	AS	NNNNNNNNCAGCACGCCANNNNCCTCGG
mD1	AS	NNNNNNNNCATT <u>ACTT</u> CANNNNCCTCGG
D2	AS	NNNNNNNNACGCACACTGNNNNCCTCGG
mD2	AS	NNNNNNNNACA <u>AAACA</u> ATGNNNNCCTCGG

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