Dynamic floral scent profile of *Epiphyllum oxypetalum* and the cytosolic biosynthesis of

trans-Geraniol through mevalonate pathway

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Summary

· *Epiphyllum oxypetalum*, a renowned ornamental species in Cactaceae, unveils its attractive fragrance during its infrequent and rapid night blooming. However, the nature of this floral scent remains unexplored.

· Employing GC-MS, transcriptome and biochemical assay, we systematically characterized the composition, emission dynamics and biosynthesis of *E. oxypetalum* floral scent.

· Composition of the floral scent was highly dynamic, with 72.54% trans-Geraniol, 12.96% benzyl alcohol and 3.75% methyl salicylate at full bloom. From 22:00 to 05:00 the following day, the strong scent was primarily released from petals and sepals. Proved by inhibitor assay, the precursors for the dominant scent volatile trans-Geraniol are derived from amyloplast degradation and mevalonate (MVA) pathway. Together with the cytosol-localized geraniol pyrophosphate synthase *EoGDPS* and geraniol synthase *EoTPSa1*, we proved an uncanonical cytoplasmic biosynthesis route for monoterpene volatiles in *E. oxypetalum* petal.

· Our study on the dynamic floral scent profile and its biosynthesis posed the first detailed analysis of cactus floral scent. These results laid foundation for novel perfume development and future inquiries on specialized pollination coevolution in Cactaceae.

Key words: floral scent, VOCs, emission dynamics, transcriptome, terpene biosynthesis.

1. Introduction

Angiosperm flowers emit a diverse and complex bouquet of volatile organic compounds (VOCs), which consist primarily of terpenoids, amino-acid derived aromatics and fatty-acid derivatives (Dudareva et al., 2013). Since the first report of orchid scent in 1966 (Dodson & Hills, 1966), thousands of compounds have been identified as floral VOCs by gas chromatography mass spectroscopy (GC-MS) and related techniques (Knudsen *et al.*). The composition and emission patterns of floral VOCs exhibit considerable spatial and temporal variability (Zhang *et al.*, 2022), giving rise to distinct and characteristic fragrance across different species (Knudsen *et al.*) ·(Parachnowitsch *et al.*, 2012). Floral VOCs play a crucial role in plant-insect interactions (Sachse & Galizia, 2003; Heiling, 2004; Eltz *et al.*, 2005), including pollinator attraction (Tan & Nishida, 2007) and nectar repellent, thereby significantly contributing to plant reproduction and evolution (Raguso, 2008). Furthermore, floral VOCs hold immense importance in the cosmetic and fragrance industries, creating substantial economic value (Chen & Viljoen, 2010).

From a biosynthetic perspective, terpenoids constitute the most abundant group of floral VOCs, with more than 40,000 different compounds documented (Abbas *et al.*, 2017). They are typically synthesized through two distinct pathways, i.e., the cytosol-localized mevalonate (MVA) pathway and the plastid-localized 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol-4-phosphate (MEP) pathway (Muhlemann *et al.*, 2014), Both pathways synthesize the fundamental C_5 building blocks for terpenoid biosynthesis, namely isopentyl pyrophosphate (IPP) and dimethylallyl pyrophosphate (DMAPP). These building blocks are subsequently condensed repeatedly by prenyltransferases into isoprenoid pyrophosphates of varying lengths (Chang *et al.*, 2006). Finally, terpene synthases (TPSs) catalyze the conversion of these pyrophosphates into the corresponding terpene skeletons (Chen *et al.*, 2011). The biosynthesis of terpenoids is predominantly governed by TPSs utilizing the Class-I mechanism, characterized by conserved Mg^{2+} or Mn^{2+} binding DDxxD and NSE/DTE motifs (Christianson, 2017). This mechanism, along with subsequent modifications, enables the diverse rearrangement of terpenoids, resulting in their remarkable structural diversity (Qiao *et al.*, 2021).

In higher plants, the MEP pathway generally provides substrates for monoterpenes (C_{10}) and diterpenes (C_{20}) production, while the MVA pathway supplies substrates for sesquiterpene (C_{15})

and triterpene (C_{30}) biosynthesis. However, emerging evidence suggests that metabolic crosstalk

between the two terpenoid biosynthesis pathways occurs more frequently than currently

established. For instance, studies using isotope-labeled precursors have indicated that the MEP

pathway may participate in sesquiterpene formation in cotton seedlings (Opitz *et al.*, 2014).

Similar metabolic crosstalk has been observed in snapdragon flowers, where the MEP pathway

provides C_5 precursors for both monoterpene and sesquiterpene biosynthesis (Dudareva *et al.*,

2005). While most ultrastructural studies have demonstrated the plastid localization of

monoterpene-producing TPSs, there have been a few cases suggesting cytosolic monoterpene

biosynthesis utilizing C_5 precursors derived from the MEP pathway (Schuhr *et al.*, 2003;

'Dynamic pathway allocation in early terpenoid biosynthesis of stress-induced lima bean leaves',

2006; Gutensohn *et al.*, 2013; Opitz *et al.*, 2014; Mendoza-Poudereux *et al.*, 2015), However,

documentation of cytosol-localized monoterpene biosynthesis remain limited in the literature.

Previous studies have reported floral VOC emission patterns in several cactus species, such

as *Selenicereus grandiflorus* and *Pilosocereus arrabidae*, etc.(Kaiser & Tollsten, 1995), the

emission dynamics of floral VOCs in *E. oxypetalum* and the underlying molecular mechanisms

remain unexplored. Considering the impressive rhythm of blooming that *E. oxypetalum* displays,

in-depth researches on synthesis of its flower fragrance can contribute to our comprehension of the

rapid production of aroma compound in plants and the physiological transformations that take

place during flowering. This research can also stimulate ideas for genetic editing-based breeding.

Furthermore, it has the potential to offer substantial economic benefits by facilitating the

development of new spices and essences, thereby providing a competitive advantage to related

industries. In this study, leveraging the excellent germplasm resources, we firstly unveiled a

remarkable physiological phenomenon in *E. oxypetalum* flowers, demonstrated that the explosive

emission of flower fragrance was predominantly composed of monoterpenoids, which were

synthesized within the cytoplasm of the petals during the flowering stage, contrary to the

previously accepted notion.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Plant materials and chemicals

Plant materials of *E. oxypetalum* were collected from 5-years old cottage seedlings at the *E. oxypetalum* planting demonstration base of Sichuan Yuanlan Agricultural Development Co., Ltd. in Zizhong, Sichuan, China (29°40′N, 104°45′E). The seedlings were grown under semi-natural conditions with soil enriched with pine needle mulch soil. To aid in the development of healthy flowers, a specialized phosphate-potash-amino acid mixture was applied as a foliar fertilizer before bud formation. Shade roofs were used during the summer to protect plants from excessive sunlight, which could potentially cause sun scorching and negatively impact flower formation. For RNA-seq, qRT-PCR molecular cloning and biochemical experiments, Samples from various parts of the flowers were collected in September, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. The materials used for SPME-GC/MS were collected into glass headspace bottles, immediately frozen and stored in dry ice. Floral scent volatile samples for DHC-GC/MS were collected in October with headspace adsorption.. All chemical reagents used were purchased from Aladdin.

2.2 Floral VOC collection and GC-MS analysis

For *in situ* VOC collection, the floral scent *E. oxypetalum* was sampled hourly from 19:00 p.m. to 7:00 a.m. the following day using a push-pull headspace sampling system. Briefly, precleaned (120°C for 1h) polyethylene terephthalate (PET) bags (35 × 43 cm) were securely attached to the pedicel to enclose the flower. Filtered air was circulated through the bag at a flow rate of 1,000 ml min^{-1} using a battery-operated pump connected to Teflon tubing. The incoming air was purified by an activated charcoal filter to remove particles and VOCs, and a coper tube coated with potassium iodide to scrub for ozone. Air was sucked out of the bag at a flow rate of 200 ml min^{-1} through a stainless-steel adsorbent cartridge. VOCs were collected from three flowers, each

from a different plant. After sampling, cartridges were sealed with Teflon-coated brass caps and

stored at 4℃ until analysis. Blank measurements from empty PET bags were done to characterize

impurities originating from sampling or analysis system.

VOCs trapped in adsorbent cartridges were thermally desorbed (TD100-xr, Markes

International Ltd, Llantrisant, UK) at 250℃ for 10 min and analyzed on a gas

chromatograph-mass spectrometer (7890A GC, 5975C VL MSD, Agilent Technologies, Santa

Clara, California, USA). The VOCs were first cryofocused at -10 ℃ and then injected into

HP-5MS capillary column (30 m × 0.2 mm, film thickness 0.25 μm), using helium as carrier gas at

flow rate of 1.0 ml min^{-1} with temperature program as follows: 40℃, held 1 min; raised at 5℃

min^{-1} to 210℃, raised at 20℃ min^{-1} to 250℃, held 8 min.

For flower organ VOC extraction, VOCs were sampled using SPME fiber (SUPELCO

57328-U, PDMS) for 40 min at 50 ℃. VOCs adsorbed by SPME fibers were thermally desorbed

at 230 ℃ before analyzed on a gas chromatograph-mass spectrometer (SHIMADZU

GCMS-QP2010). Helium was used as carrier gas at flow rate of 1.0 ml min^{-1} using temperature

program as follows: 50 ℃, held 3 min; raised at 6 ℃ min^{-1} to 200 ℃, raised at 10 ℃ min^{-1} to

240 ℃, held 6 min.

Chromatograms were analyzed using PARADISe v.6.0.1 (Quintanilla-Casas *et al.*, 2023).

Compounds were identified using pure standards when available, or tentatively identified using

NIST17 library. VOCs were categorized into the following classes: terpenoids; fatty-acid

derivatives; benzenoids alcohols and others which do not fall within the aforementioned categories.

The VOC concentrations in blanks were subtracted from those in the samples.

2.3 Inhibitor assay for MVA and MEP pathways

In the inhibitor experiment, we administered 100μM solution of inhibitors (fosmidomycin for

MEP or mevinolin for MVA (Dudareva *et al.*, 2005)) by uniformly injecting 1ml of the solution

into the junction of petals and perianth tubes at three specific time points: Stage2, Stage3, and

Stage4. The control group received H$_2$O through injection. The needle was inserted into the cavity

at the center of the flower during injection, and approximately 0.1ml of liquid droplets was

injected per insertion. Throughout the experiment, the chosen inhibitors did not cause any

noticeable effects on the appearance of the flowers. For MVA inhibitor assay, lactone hydrolysis

were done following previous report (Kita *et al.*, 1980).

2.4 RNA-seq and analysis

Total RNAs were extracted from *E. oxypetalum* petal using improved hexadecyl trimethyl

ammonium bromide (CTAB) method. Three replicates of DNBSEQ RNA-seq libraries were

prepared and quality-checked from petal at each sampling stages: pre-Bloom (9:00 a.m.),

Blooming (S06) and post-Bloom (S13). These nine libraries were sequenced using the

MISEQ-2000 platform by BGI, resulting in 150 bp paired-end reads. Subsequently, the raw

sequencing reads underwent quality control and cleaning (Bolger *et al.*, 2014), involving the

removal of adaptors, ambiguous N-containing reads, and low-quality reads. The resulting clean

data were then *de novo* assembled into transcripts using Trinity (Grabherr *et al.*, 2011; Haas *et al.*,

2013).

For sequence annotation, all assembled transcripts were compared to NCBI Nr, swiss-prot,

GO (The Gene Ontology Consortium *et al.*, 2023) and KEGG databases (Kanehisa & Goto, 2000)

with E-value threshold at $1e^{-5}$ for BLAST operations (Altschul *et al.*, 1990). Pfam protein database

(Mistry *et al.*, 2021) was searched using HMMER program (Eddy, 2011) with E-value threshold

set at $1e^{-5}$. Annotation integration and functional categorization by GO terms was performed by

Trinotate (Duarte *et al.*, 2021). Later, abundance estimation and TMM (Trimmed mean of

M-values) was calculated by RSEM (Li & Dewey, 2011). A false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.01 and

absolute value of $\log_2$ratio$\geq$2 was used to identify differentially expressed genes with DESeq2

(Love *et al.*, 2014). GO term enrichment was implemented by GOseq R package (Young *et al.*,

2010) based on Wallenius non-central hyper-geometric distribution. MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004),

ModelTest-NG (Darriba *et al.*, 2020), RAxML-NG (Kozlov *et al.*, 2019) and iTOL (Letunic &

Bork, 2021) were used for sequence clustering.

2.5 QRT-PCR for genes responsible for trans-Geraniol synthesis

Specific primers for qRT-PCR were designed with NCBI. Total RNAs were extracted from *E.*

oxypetalum petals with Sangon biotech Plant Total RNA Isolation Kit (Sangon company,

https://www.sangon.com). Full-length cDNA was then reverse transcribed using Takara Prime

Script™ RT reagent Kit (Perfect Real Time) (https://www.takarabiomed.com.cn). qRT-PCR was

performed with Takara. RR430B TB Green Fast qPCR system, using independent RNA

preparations as biological replicates. Ubqln gene transcripts were used as control. The relative

expression levels of target genes were calculated by $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$. The specificity of each primer pair was

verified by agarose gel electrophoresis, melting curve analysis and sequence homology with local

script. All relevant primer sequences were given in Table 3.

2.6 Cloning of *EoTPSa1* and *EoGDPS* cDNA

183 On the basis of the transcriptome data, the primers were designed to amplify sectional cDNA

184 fragment with Takara PrimeSTAR® Max PCR system. Putative *EoTPSa1* and *EoGDPS*

185 sequence were blasted against transcriptome assembly and aligned by MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004).

186 Structure prediction and molecular docking of *EoTPSa1* were established with Alphafold2

187 (Jumper *et al.*, 2021) and AutoDock (Morris *et al.*, 2009).

2.7 *Escherichia coli* expression and purification of *EoTPSa1*

For *in vitro* enzymatic analysis, cDNA of *EoTPSa1* was amplified and ligated into the

multiple cloning sites of pET-28a expression vector utilizing Takara. In-Fusion Snap Assembly

Master Mix. The construct was later transformed into *E. coli Rosseta-gami 2 (DE3)*. Positive

clones were incubated at 37 ℃ with 200 rpm shaking overnight in LB liquid medium

supplemented with 100 µg/ml kanamycin. After diluted to OD_{600nm} between 0.3 and 0.4, 1mM

isopropyl-β-D thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) was added into culture medium to induce protein

expression. *E. coli* culture was incubated at 37 ℃ for 4 hours and centrifuged at 8000g for 8 min

before extracting total protein with Bacterial Protein Extraction Kit (Sangon). The crude protein

was purified by Ni-NTA spin columns (Sangon) according to manufacturer's instructions. Purified

EoTPSa1 protein was examined by 12.5% (w/v) sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel

electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE).

2.8 The *in vitro* enzyme activity assay of *EoTPSa1*

201 The enzymatic assay was conducted in 0.5ml reaction buffer (50 mM Tris–HCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$,

202 0.1 mM $MnCl_2$) supplemented with 100 µM of geranyl diphosphate. Later, 0.5µg of purified

203 *EoTPSa1* protein was added into reaction buffer. After overlaid with 100µl hexane, the reaction

mixtures were incubated at 21 ℃ for 1 min. Reaction products were extracted by vertexing

vigorously for 10s, keeping on ice for 30, and centrifugation at 12000×g for 30s at 4 ℃ to separate

supernatant hexane. 10μl of the dehydrated hexane supernatant was collected for GCMS analysis.

Product verification and quantification was achieved by comparison with NIST17 library and

authentic standards.

2.9 Subcellular localization assay of EoTPSa1 and EoGDPS

The protocol for transient gene expression in *N. benthamiana* was conducted according to

established procedures. In brief, both pSuper1300-EoTPSa1 and pSuper1300-EoGDPS were

constructed by Takara. In-Fusion Snap Assembly Master Mix and transformed into the

Agrobacterium strain GV3101. The *Agrobacteria* strains were cultured overnight in LB until their

OD_{600} reached 0.6. They were then collected and resuspended in induction medium (LB, 100 mM

acetosyringone) with their OD_{600} adjusted to 0.4. Transfection was carried out using a 1 ml

needle-less syringe into the leaves of one-month-old *N. benthamiana* plants. Following infiltration,

the plants were kept in the dark for 24 hours.

2.10 Transmission electron microscopy assay

E. oxypetalum petal samples were prefixed with a 3% glutaraldehyde. Tissues for TEM

examination was then postfixed in 1% osmium tetroxide, dehydrated in serial acetone, serial

infiltrated and embedded with Epox 812 resin. The semithin sections were stained with methylene

blue. Ultrathin sections were cut with diamond knife and stained with uranyl acetate and lead

citrate. Sections were examined with JEM-1400-FLASH Transmission Electron Microscope

(JEOL Ltd.).

2.12 Biochemical characterization of the acetyl-CoA generating metabolic pathway

The samples were collected from petals on T01-T08 (9:00 a.m. the day before bloom; 9:00

p.m. the day before bloom; 9:00 a.m.; 12:00 p.m.; 7:00 p.m.; 0:00 a.m. the next day; 9:00 a.m. the

next day; 12:00 p.m. the next day). The biochemical experiments were conducted using reagent

kits purchased from Sangon Biotech company: reducing sugar (D799393), triglyceride (D799795),

free fatty acids (D799793), and acetyl-CoA (D751001). Amylum and soluble polysaccharides

were separated via centrifugation at 10krpm for 10 minutes after the homogenization. Amylum

232   was washed with ddH$_2$O, while soluble polysaccharides were precipitated using 80% ethanol

233   afterwards. Both components were then tested with the Amylum Content Assay Kit (D799325).

234   Absorbance in each well was measured at a wavelength of required using an Agilent BioTek

235   Synergy H1 Multimode Reader.

3. Results

3.1 The dynamic scent composition of *E. oxyptalum*

Unlike many other plant species that bloom gradually over an extended period, *E. oxypetalum* flowers rapidly transform into magnificent, fully opened flowers (Fig. 1a, Video S1). The flowers typically open after 20:00 local time, and reach their full bloom after around 23:00, within a short period of 3 hours (Fig. 1b). We sampled a total of 13 stages of floral VOCs sample from 19:00 to 07:00 the next day with the dynamic headspace collection technique, covering entire scent emission which increase simultaneously with flower opening shortly after sunset (Fig. 1c, 1f). In total, we identified 49 compounds, including 26 terpenoids, 5 fatty acid derivatives and 18 benzenoids VOCs. Of all these VOCs, 3 particular VOCs were detected with highest content, namely trans-Geraniol, Benzyl alcohol and Methyl salicylate. At 02:00 local time (Stage 08) when *E. oxypetalum* flower reaches highest emission, these 3 VOCs constitutes 90.25% of total detected volatile emission (trans-Geraniol, 72.54%; Benzyl alcohol, 13.72%; Methyl salicylate, 4.55%, , Table 1, 2, Fig. 1d). Multivariate OPLS-DA statistics also identified them as best variables separating blooming and non-blooming VOC composition (Fig. 1e). Therefore, we identified these as major *E. oxypetalum* floral scent VOCs.

Significant volatile content and composition were observed at each stage (Fig. 1d). From 20:00 to 02:00 (stage 03 and 08), emission rate of scent volatiles increased 47 times in a short 6 hours, with peak emission rate of 165.45 μg/flower/h at 02:00 (Stage 08). Initially, esters constitute the dominant VOCs, accounting for 92.46% of the total emission shortly after the initiation of scent emission at 21:00 (Stage 03). Terpenoids began to emit at 20:00. (Stage 04), gradually becoming the dominant VOC class at 01:00 (Stage 07), constituting 81.33% of the total emission. Concurrent with the terpenoid emission increase, benzenoid alcohols gradually surpassed benzenoid esters as the primary benzenoid VOCs, reaching their peak emission at 03:00 (Stage 09), slightly after the terpenoid peak. Subsequently, the flowers gradually start to wither, and decrease of terpenoids and benzenoid alcohols VOCs emission is observed. However, starting from 05:00 (Stage 11), esters again constituted the majority of VOCs till the flower fully withers (Fig. 1g). Interestingly, both trans-Geraniol and benzyl alcohol displayed a single-peak emission pattern, while methyl salicylate exhibited unusual two peaks (Fig. 1g), indicating the potential

265 competition for substrate allocation within the benzenoid biosynthesis pathway.

3.2 The floral scent is mainly emitted from petal and sepal of *E. oxypetalum*

To locate the predominant site for floral VOC biosynthesis and emission, we analyzed
volatile profiles of five organs, namely petal, sepal, floral tube, stamen and pistil (Fig. 2a) at three
flower developmental stages: pre-Bloom (S1), Blooming (S8) and post-Bloom (S13) using solid
phase micro-extraction. In total, 92, 105, 77, 82 and 72 peaks were detected in respective tissue
samples. Composition of almost all tissues at pre-Bloom and post-Bloom, as well as Blooming
stages of stamens and perianth tubes showed high similarity; Sepals and petals at Blooming
clustered away from pre-/post-Bloom samples, while pistils at Blooming grouped separately (Fig.
2b). Indeed, At Blooming stage, Both Petal and Sepal samples showed higher trans-Geraniol (Fig.
2c) and Benzyl alcohol (Fig. 2d) dry-weight based content than perianth tube and stamen.
interestingly, pistil showed excessively high Methyl salicylate content unseen in all other tissues
(Fig 2e). However, due to pistil's tiny contribution total flower (Fig. 2f), its contribution to total
VOCs emission is considerably small (Fig. 2g). All tested samples showed abundant small fatty
acid derivatives, mostly hexanal, which is indicator for tissue damage caused by freezing (Fig. 2g).
Therefore, our results identified Petal and Sepal as major VOCs emission site during *E.*
oxypetalum blooming.

3.3 A cytosol-localized subfamily-a terpene synthase is responsible for trans-Geraniol biosynthesis

Since trans-Geraniol was found to be the most dominant component of *E. oxypetalum* floral
scent, our subsequent analyses focused on its biosynthesis. A total of 242.13 million reads were
generated from 9 libraries, resulting in the assembly of 164,996 unigenes and 299,340 transcripts.
The average contig N50 was 2,339 bp. During the BLAST analysis with the sprot and nr database,
we found that 64.20% of the transcripts were annotated. Additionally, 45.52% of the transcripts
were tagged by GO with an E-value threshold of 1e-5 for all BLAST operations. TMM values
were utilized for gene expression quantification.

To identify the terpene synthases (TPS) responsible for trans-Geraniol biosynthesis, we
extracted transcripts annotated with Pfam TPS models (PF01397.2, PF03936.19, PF19083.3) A

total of 84 nonredundant peptides from 23 unigenes were identified as putative TPSs, with eight of them were detected with the significant high expression (Fig. 3a). Sequence clustering analysis on these 23 putative TPSs from *E. oxypetalum* and 342 TPS sequences from 9 other species yield 7 subfamilies, with 17 *E. oxypetalum* TPSs belonging to subfamily-a, 1 TPS to subfamily-b, 1 to subfamily-c, 1 to subfamily-e and 3 to subfamily-g (Fig. 3c). Out of all the putative TPSs identified, the transcript *DN1377.2.1.2* from subfamily-a exhibited significantly higher expression levels. Compared to both the pre-Bloom and post-Bloom stages, this particular transcript, designated as *eoTPSa1*, exhibited approximately a 63-fold up-regulation during the Blooming stage, coincided with the peak emission of trans-Geraniol during full bloom.

The predicted protein sequence of *eoTPSa1* has an Open Reading Frame (ORF) of 1638 bp, resulting in a protein with 545 amino acids and a molecular weight of 63.29 kDa. Alignment of this protein with other functionally validated geraniol synthase (GES) revealed the presence of conserved Aspartate-rich DDxxD and NSE/DTE motifs, which are important for the magnesium-dependent prenyl diphosphate ionization in class-I mechanisms for terpene synthases. Additionally, a DxDD-like motif, commonly observed in class-II terpene synthases, was also identified (Fig. 3d). Protein structure prediction indicated the characteristic α-β domain structure of monoterpene synthases. The amino acid residue Asp^{294}, Asp^{298}, Asn^{440} and Glu^{448} are in the correct conformation for the binding of magnesium ions (Fig. 3b). The alpha helixes in the α domain form a porous pocket for substrate binding and enable water quenching of carbon cation intermediates for trans-Geraniol formation. The validity of this structure was confirmed through molecular docking simulations. The catalytic ability of *EoTPSa1* has been verified through an *in vitro* enzymatic assay using geraniol pyrophosphate as the substrate (Fig. 4).

Additionally, *EoTPSa1* is predicted to be localized in the cytosol, alongside the highly expressed geranyl pyrophosphate synthase in *E. oxypetalum*, namely *EoGDPS*. This finding distinguishes *EoTPSa1* from other characterized geraniol synthases that are typically transported into plastids. We further validated the cytosol localization of *EoTPSa1* and *EoGDPS* through *Nicotiana* transient expression system. We detected strong GFP signals in the cytosols of transformed leaf epidermis for all *EoTPSa1*-GFP, *EoGDPS*-GFP and pure GFP constructs, suggesting an absence of N-terminus transport peptide activity (Fig. 5). These results posed a

special cytosol localized geraniol synthase unseen in previous literature, indicating an uncanonical cytosol-localized monoterpene synthesis route for monoterpene in the night blooming *E. oxypetalum* flowers.

3.4 MVA pathway mainly provides precursors for trans-Geraniol biosynthesis

Next, to validate this cytosol-localized monoterpene biosynthesis, we investigated the biosynthetic origin of trans-Geraniol precursors, namely IPP and DMAPP. Indeed, homologous genes from the MVA pathway experienced upregulation at blooming stage, contrary to the uniformly low expression of MEP pathway genes across all three time points. The *HMG* gene, which encodes a putative hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA reductase and acts as the rate-limiting enzyme of MVA pathway, experienced a 69-fold upregulation at Blooming stage compared to the pre-Bloom stage (TMM 35.89 vs 2463.66). Another gene, *MVAD*, which encodes a putative diphosphate-mevalonate decarboxylase, also exhibited a two-fold upregulation (Fig. 6a). Next, we blocked the MVA and MEP pathways with specific inhibitors: mevinolin for MVA and fosmidomycin for MEP, respectively. Interestingly, Mevinolin treated flowers clustered independent of both Fosmidomycin-treated and control group (Fig. 6b, c). indeed, the major scent volatile trans-Geraniol decreased by an average of 83.38%, comparing mevinolin-treated to control groups. In contrast, fosmidomycin-treated flowers showed a slight increase of 8.44% in trans-Geraniol emission, possibly due to the blockage of metabolic flow intended for sesquiterpene production (Fig. 6d). Shift of volatile composition toward a benzenoid-dominated blend is observed, indicating disrupted metabolic flow caused by mevinolin's inhibition of *HMG* and carbon flow towards benzenoid biosynthesis pathways (Fig. 6f). Collectively, these findings demonstrate that the MVA pathway is a major, if not the sole, contributor of IPP and DMAPP for trans-Geraniol biosynthesis. Also, these results confirm the presence of an uncanonical cytosol-localized geraniol synthase in the night blooming of *E. oxypetalum.*

3.5 Amyloplast provides carbon source for floral VOCs biosynthesis

To investigate the biological sources of trans-Geraniol synthesis catalyzed by the MVA pathway in *E. oxypetalum*, expression pattern of homologous genes from starch degradation, glycolysis along with triglyceride degradation and β-oxidation were determined (Fig. 7a).

Generally, the identified genes showed higher, if not constant expression at pre-Bloom stage than

Blooming and post-Bloom stage. The beta amylase *BAM*, which catalyzes initial step of starch

degradation, showed 6.8 times upregulation at full-Bloom. This is in concord with the constant

decreased starch (Fig. 7b) and elevated reducing sugar (Fig. 7c) and pyruvate (Fig. 7d) content

detected in petal before blooming. in great contrast, both triglyceride and free fatty acid showed

almost undetectable content, while accumulated acetyl-CoA (Fig. 7e), the direct substrate for

MVA pathway, were gradually used up by the active metabolism at the day of flowering. TEM

images also suggest disappeared amyloplast at Blooming (Fig. 8). Together, our results suggest

starch granule from amyloplast provides carbon source for floral VOCs.

4. Discussion

4.1 Explosive floral VOCs emission functions in pollinator adaption

Composition of plant volatiles is highly dynamic and context dependent, especially for active physiological processes such as flowering and stress response (Farre-Armengol *et al.*, 2013). Floral VOCs emission generally coincides with flower opening. For slow-blooming flowers such as rose and petunia that last for several days (Oyama-Okubo *et al.*, 2005), circadian oscillation is commonly observed (Fenske & Imaizumi, 2016). An interesting case of *Lonicera japonica* (Caprifoliaceae) flower, which blooms twice during two consecutive days, reaches emission peak with different VOC composition at each blooming (Feng *et al.*). These variations are greatly results of different pollination strategies and adaptation to local environments.

Strong scent and impressive flowers are widely distributed across Cactaceae (Kaiser & Tollsten, 1995). This family can be recognized by very fleshy stems and fruits, both adaptive traits to the ancestral succulent biome. Its adaptation to dry conditions probably first evolved in the central Andeans (Hernández-Hernández *et al.*, 2014), and subsequently diversified into numerous biomes across the Americas and some part of Asia and Africa (Barthlott *et al.*, 2015). The *E. oxypetalum* flowers, which are native to central America jungles, has broad leaf-like stems with huge white flowers. The night blooming and explosive scent emission maybe a legacy of drought adaptation, where scorching sun during the day discourage pollinator activity and easily destroy soft floral tissue without cuticle wax protection (Wang *et al.*, 2020).

Cactaceae flowers evolved hypanthium, long floral tube and diverse floral scent as key innovations, allowing greater pollinator diversity (Patiny, 2012). The scent of nocturnal Cacti flowers reaches two extremes, with moth-pollinating flowers emits delighting terpene- or aromatics- rich aromas, and bat-pollinating flowers emits sulfur-containing leek-like odor. These nocturnal flowers generally are white or greenish, and open during one night only (Kaiser & Tollsten, 1995). Bee pollination is probably plesiomorphic for Cactaceae species, while several bee-to-moth or -bird shifts have been proposed especially in Cactoideae (Patiny, 2012). Hawkmoth adores the pleasing aroma of terpenoids VOCs, such as linalool (Miyake *et al.*, 1998) or trans-Geraniol of *E. oxypetalum*. These evidences provides yet another case for possible

co-evolution between nocturnal cacti and its moth pollinators using specific volatiles as identifier.

4.2 Cytosolic trans-Geraniol synthesis shows metabolism plasticity

The MEP pathway is commonly believed to provide C_5 precursors for monoterpene volatile

biosynthesis (Piel *et al.*, 1998; Dudareva *et al.*, 2005). Together with plastid-localized GPP

synthase and geraniol synthase (Simkin *et al.*, 2013), plastid are thought as the canonical synthesis

hub for monoterpene VOCs of various species and tissues (Schuhr *et al.*, 2003). Previous transient

expression experiments suggest geraniol biosynthesis capacity of different subcellular

compartments is influenced by local geranyl diphosphate availability (Dong *et al.*, 2016).

Correspondingly, almost all characterized geraniol synthases in TPS family are plastid localized

(Chen *et al.*, 2016; Abbas *et al.*, 2019; Zhao *et al.*, 2020), except for one from *Lippia dulcis*

located in both cytosol and plastid, which is proved with reduced activity in *Nicotiana* system

(Dong, 2013). Though metabolic crosstalk also exists between MVA and MEP pathways (Koley *et*

al., 2020), MEP pathway usually takes central stage for monoterpene biosynthesis under most

scenarios.

However, in *E. oxypetalum* petal, our results showed clear MVA dominance and cytosolic

localization of monoterpene volatiles biosynthesis in petal. Both transcriptomic evidence and

pathway inhibitor assay proved MVA pathway provides most direct precursors for monoterpene

biosynthesis, while the unique cytosol-localized *EoTPSa1* is identified as the gene responsible for

the predominant monoterpene volatile trans-Geraniol biosynthesis. The dramatic strong VOCs

emission indicates high local GPP content and high synthase activity. interestingly, unlike geraniol

synthases identified in other species, the biochemically validated *E. oxypetalum* geraniol synthase

is clustered into TPS-a clade. Previous study divided the TPS family into 7 subfamilies from

TPS-a to TPS-h, each with different presumed function (Chen *et al.*, 2011). Generally, subfamily-a

TPSs are generally thought to catalyse sesquiterpene formation in cytosol. This unusual clustering

suggests possible sequence deletion and possible neofunctionalization event during its

evolutionary history.

4.3 Subcellular structure might participate in the explosive scent emission

Volatile production is usually linked with certain cells or compartments like secretory cells or

resin ducts (Ghissing & Mitra, 2020). However, these specialized tissue-scale cavities were not

observed in *E. oxypetalum* petal. On the other hand, besides the disappeared amyloplast that

function as carbon source during flowering, an unexpected irregular oval body is discovered in

TEM images (Fig. 8). We first suspected this oval shape as lipid body, the storage subcellular

structure that were usually observed in seeds, to work synchronously with amyloplast in providing

carbon source and reducing power for volatile synthesis. However, electron density and

quantification of triglyceride dictates otherwise. The greater electron density and greyish

appearance under TEM is similar to protein bodies, a membrane-bound structure which stores

protein for further use. This unknown structure might hold answers to the explosive volatile

emission, as sudden release of stored enzymes can initiate metabolism all of sudden.

Unfortunately, since no specific staining protocol is viable for protein body, and no transformation

protocol has been developed for *E. oxypetalum* plants for fusion protein *in vivo* expression. The

exploration for the functionality of this unknown structure will be our next task.

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Competing interests

None declared

Author contributions

Yiyang Zhang, Yuhan Zhang, LT and QS designed the experiments. Yiyang Zhang and Yuhan Zhang quantified VOCs content with GCMS. YiYang Zhang analyzed GCMS and transcriptome data. Yuhan Zhang and QT performed molecular cloning, enzymatic assay and localization studies. LW performed biochemical quantifications. Yiyang Zhang plot the figures and wrote the manuscript. Yuhan Zhang, QS, TL and HX revised the manuscript. WT provided germplasm used in the current study. Yiyang Zhang and Yuhan Zhang contributed equally to this work.

Data Availability

We will upload the sequence information after receiving the article.

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Fig. 1. Temporal patterns of flower opening and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) emission dynamics in *Epiphyllum oxypetalum*

(a): Time-lapse pictures showing rapid flowering of *E. oxypetalum* flower

(b): flower openness across the 13 VOC-sampling stages.

(c): Emission rate of total floral VOCs across the 13 VOC-sampling stages.

(d): VOC emission rate of trans-Geraniol, Benzyl alcohol, Methyl salicylate and total

emission across all sampled stages.

(e): VIP value of top 20 VOCs from OPLS-DA analysis. The 3 major VOCs with VIP

values higher than threshold were colored in brighter red.

(f): PCA clustering of floral VOC content. Dots were shaped and colored according to

sampling stages, time tags inside arrow rings corresponds to sampling time of nearby

dots.

(g): Relative concentration of terpenoids, fatty-acid derivatives, benzenoid alcohols,

esters and other VOCs across all sampled stages.

Fig. 2. Emission patterns of five floral tissues at pre-Bloom, Blooming, and post-Bloom

(a): Schematic diagram of *E.oxypetalum* tissue longitudinal section. The 5 sampled tissues are colored differently.

(b): PCA clustering of volatile organic compound (VOC) content of peal, sepal, floral

tube, stamen and pistil at pre-Bloom, Blooming and post-Bloom.

(c-e): Dry weight based content of trans-Geraniol, Benzyl alcohol and Methyl

salicylate of 5 floral tissues at Blooming stage.

(f): Dry weight of 5 sampled tissues at Blooming stage.

(g): Relative content of 5 major classes VOCs detected at Blooming stage, not

adjusted by dry mass.

Fig. 3. Identification of the terpene synthase responsible for trans-Geraniol biosynthesis

(a): Expression patterns of 8 terpene synthases identified with significant expression at pre-Bloom, Blooming and post-Bloom, each block is colored according to TMM value.

(b): Structure prediction and molecular docking result of EoTPSa1. Protein structure

is colored according to domain architecture and catalyzing motifs. Residues of Asp^{294},

Asp^{298}, Asn^{440} and Glu^{448} were shown.

(c): Clustering of identified *Epiphyllum oxypetalum* TPSs with TPSs from other

species. The major TPSs in *E. oxypetalum* petal are marked with dashed line

(d) Protein alignment of *EoTPSa1* and GESs from other 6 species, protein sequence

around DxDD, DDxxD and NSE/DTE motifs were colored according to amino acid

properties. Subcellular localization predicted with signal P 6.0 were also given.

Fig. 4. Biochemical characterization of EoTPSa1 as trans-Geraniol synthase.

(a): TIC comparison between active enzyme and inactive control from 14.5 min to 20min RT, showing huge trans-Geraniol peak at 19.045 RT.

(b): MS detail of trans-Geraniol peak (RT 19.045) catalyzed with *EoTPSa1*.

(c): MS detail of pure trans-Geraniol standard.

Fig. 5. Subcellular localization of EoTPSa1 and EoGDPS

(a-c): Subcellular localization of EoTPSa1-GFP, EoGDPS-GFP and pure GFP control. Confocal image was taken at AF488 green band to show GFP fluorescence, and AF568 red band to show chloroplast autofluorescence.

Fig. 6. Pathway preference of trans-Geraniol biosynthesis in *Epiphyllum oxypetalum* petal

(a): Expression pattern of MVA and MEP pathway genes at pre-Bloom, Blooming and post-Bloom, each block is colored according to TMM value.

(b): PCA clustering of volatile organic compound (VOC) content of petals with mevinolin, fosmidomycin and blank treatment at Blooming. Dots were shaped and colored according different treatments.

(c): VIP value of top 20 VOCs from OPLS-DA analysis. VOCs with VIP values

higher than threshold were colored in brighter red.

(d-g): VOC content of trans-Geraniol, Benzyl alcohol, Methyl salicylate and Ethyl

salicylate in petal of mevinolin, fosmidomycin and blank treatment.

Fig. 7. Carbon source for trans-Geraniol biosynthesis in *Epiphyllum oxypetalum*

petal

(a): Expression pattern of starch degradation, glycolysis and β-oxidation pathway

genes at pre-Bloom (T03), Blooming (T06) and post-Bloom (T07), each block is

colored according to TMM value.

(b-g) Concentration of starch, reducing sugar, pyruvate, acetyl-CoA, free fatty acid

and triglyceride in petal at T01-T08.

Fig. 8. TEM of *Epiphyllum oxypetalum* petal at pre-Bloom and Blooming stage

(a,b): TEM images of the petals of *E. oxypetalum* at pre-Bloom and Blooming stage.

W, C, U, S represent cell wall，cytosol，unknown structure and starch granule

respectively.

682   **Table 1.** Absolute emission rate of eight highest scent VOCs across 13 sampling Stages during *E. oxypetalum* flowering

VOC (μg/h)	trans-Geraniol	Benzyl alcohol	Methyl salicylate	trans-Citral	Benzyl salicylate	Benzyl benzoate	cis-Geraniol	Benzaldehyde	
RT/min	21.55	13.72	19.61	22.00	34.82	33.71	20.68	10.96	Total
Stage01	0.03 ± 0.01	0 ± 0	0.02 ± 0.01	0 ± 0	0.04 ± 0.01	0 ± 0	0.02 ± 0	0.04 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.02
Stage02	0.03 ± 0	0 ± 0	0.01 ± 0	0 ± 0	0.04 ± 0	0 ± 0	0.03 ± 0	0.05 ± 0	0.15 ± 0.01
Stage03	0.08 ± 0.04	0.01 ± 0.02	2.5 ± 1.57	0.01 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0	0 ± 0	0.07 ± 0.02	0.05 ± 0	2.76 ± 1.66
Stage04	8.05 ± 2.67	0.39 ± 0.21	12.11 ± 1.92	0.35 ± 0.15	0.15 ± 0.06	0.18 ± 0.05	0.27 ± 0.08	0.2 ± 0.05	21.71 ± 4.51
Stage05	40.17 ± 7.77	2.42 ± 0.94	12.52 ± 2.32	1.28 ± 0.31	0.57 ± 0.13	0.94 ± 0.29	0.72 ± 0.17	0.52 ± 0.12	59.12 ± 11.23
Stage06	83.8 ± 3.64	7.95 ± 1.38	11 ± 0.31	2.67 ± 0.1	1.39 ± 0.4	1.57 ± 0.53	1.33 ± 0.08	1 ± 0.18	110.7 ± 4.98
Stage07	115.53 ± 12.62	16.28 ± 1.74	6.67 ± 0.96	3.45 ± 0.41	1.93 ± 0.89	1.39 ± 0.55	1.65 ± 0.3	1.35 ± 0.18	148.24 ± 16.58
Stage08	120.25 ± 16.1	22.84 ± 0.98	6.18 ± 0.8	2.68 ± 0.51	1.83 ± 0.41	0.9 ± 0.28	1.19 ± 0.21	1.6 ± 0.38	157.48 ± 18.7
Stage09	78.34 ± 24.16	25.02 ± 3.31	5.33 ± 0.5	1.29 ± 0.4	2.55 ± 0.9	0.59 ± 0.15	0.8 ± 0.17	1.28 ± 0.31	115.2 ± 29.43
Stage10	30.69 ± 13.24	20.6 ± 3.5	5.82 ± 0.74	0.52 ± 0.13	2.21 ± 1	0.36 ± 0.09	0.56 ± 0.08	0.78 ± 0.27	61.54 ± 17.97
Stage11	16.11 ± 2.09	0.85 ± 3.58	12.08 ± 3.66	0.58 ± 0.05	0.29 ± 0.65	0.32 ± 0.06	0.38 ± 0.06	0.29 ± 0.07	30.88 ± 3.18
Stage12	0.55 ± 0.24	2.15 ± 1.1	25.59 ± 2.28	0.03 ± 0.01	0.85 ± 0.39	0.1 ± 0.03	0.12 ± 0.04	0.11 ± 0.03	29.49 ± 3.94
Stage13	0.18 ± 0.06	0.76 ± 0.47	17.21 ± 7.21	0.02 ± 0.01	0.34 ± 0.15	0.07 ± 0.02	0.14 ± 0.07	0.08 ± 0.01	18.79 ± 7.75

684   **Table 2.** Relative content of 8 highest scent VOCs across 13 sampled Stages during *E. oxypetalum* flowering in percentage

VOC (%)	trans-Geraniol	Benzyl alcohol	Methyl salicylate	trans-Citral	Benzyl salicylate	Benzyl benzoate	cis-Geraniol	Benzaldehyde	
RT/min	21.55	13.72	19.61	22.00	34.82	33.71	20.68	10.96	Total
Stage01	4.02 ± 0.42	0 ± 0	2.2 ± 1.08	0 ± 0	5.76 ± 1.36	0.56 ± 0.12	3.14 ± 0.4	5.91 ± 0.36	21.59 ± 2.53
Stage02	4.35 ± 0.15	0 ± 0	1.65 ± 0.59	0 ± 0	5.1 ± 0.82	0.42 ± 0.12	4.06 ± 0.79	6.63 ± 0.24	22.21 ± 1.76
Stage03	2.37 ± 0.7	0.24 ± 0.34	70.16 ± 7.7	0.29 ± 0.15	1.24 ± 0.45	0.16 ± 0.05	2.32 ± 0.49	1.77 ± 0.68	78.55 ± 6.26
Stage04	33.35 ± 3.84	1.54 ± 0.49	52.13 ± 7.01	1.45 ± 0.29	0.69 ± 0.32	0.81 ± 0.27	1.1 ± 0.08	0.86 ± 0.14	91.92 ± 2.92
Stage05	63.56 ± 1.12	3.71 ± 0.76	19.95 ± 2.27	2.01 ± 0.08	0.94 ± 0.29	1.48 ± 0.37	1.13 ± 0.06	0.82 ± 0.12	93.6 ± 2.6
Stage06	72.55 ± 0.39	6.85 ± 0.94	9.54 ± 0.53	2.32 ± 0.18	1.2 ± 0.34	1.36 ± 0.45	1.15 ± 0.05	0.87 ± 0.16	95.83 ± 0.79
Stage07	74.47 ± 0.32	10.51 ± 0.61	4.28 ± 0.24	2.23 ± 0.13	1.22 ± 0.47	0.87 ± 0.26	1.06 ± 0.11	0.88 ± 0.15	95.54 ± 0.67
Stage08	72.54 ± 1.11	13.96 ± 1.38	3.75 ± 0.37	1.61 ± 0.17	1.09 ± 0.15	0.55 ± 0.18	0.72 ± 0.09	0.96 ± 0.15	95.18 ± 0.59
Stage09	62.16 ± 4.11	21.06 ± 3.62	4.55 ± 1	1.02 ± 0.07	1.99 ± 0.29	0.48 ± 0.04	0.66 ± 0.08	1.06 ± 0.19	92.99 ± 1.17
Stage10	43.02 ± 9.11	32.15 ± 5.2	9.75 ± 3.89	0.79 ± 0.07	3.07 ± 0.75	0.55 ± 0.1	0.96 ± 0.44	1.16 ± 0.17	91.45 ± 0.6
Stage11	43.63 ± 5.08	2.23 ± 7.02	41.38 ± 14.95	1.63 ± 0.12	0.83 ± 1.43	0.95 ± 0.14	1.12 ± 0.1	0.83 ± 0.13	92.6 ± 1.11
Stage12	1.72 ± 0.6	6.59 ± 2.99	83.96 ± 4.94	0.08 ± 0.03	2.68 ± 1.03	0.31 ± 0.07	0.37 ± 0.09	0.36 ± 0.04	96.07 ± 0.59
Stage13	0.95 ± 0.13	3.68 ± 1.33	85.99 ± 2.67	0.08 ± 0.02	2.06 ± 0.97	0.39 ± 0.11	0.71 ± 0.2	0.45 ± 0.17	94.32 ± 1.46

686   **Table 3.** Primers utilized in related experiments.

Experiment	Name	Sequences
qRT-PCR	2acat3f	TCGTCTTGGACATGATACAC
	2acat3r	ACTTCAACAGGAACCATCTC
	hmgcs10f	GATGGTCGTTATGGTCTGGT
	hmgcs10r	TCACTTATGGAGCTGGCATT
	hmg5f	CCTCAAATGTTTGGACCGAC
	hmg5r	AATCGACCTCCCTGTGATTC
	mvk8f	ACGTTGGAGAGCTAATCCTG
	mvk8r	AGGAAGCTCAGATGTCACAG
	mvak22f	TGTGCAATATTGTGTGGCAG
	mvak22r	ATGACCCCAAGCCTGTTTTA
	2mvad1f	ATACATCGCCGCCTATATTC
	2mvad1r	TTCCACATCTTTCGTGTCAT
	2idi5f	TTGGACGTATGCTCTACAAG
	2idi5r	CACTAGTCTGAACCATGGAG
	2dxps1f	TACTAAAACAACAGGTCCCG
	2dxps1r	TGCACAAAATGGTTTGAGAC
	dxr5f	ATCAGGCTCTACAACAGCTC
	dxr5r	GGCAAATTTGTGGGTTGAGT
	ispd6f	AATCTTGCTCCATAGAGGGC
	ispd6r	GGGGTGTCTCAAACCTTGTA
	ispe7f	GGCGGCGGAATATCTTTAAC
	ispe7r	TCAACAAATGTAGCTGGGGT
	ispf5f	GCATCTAAGTTGCCGAGTTC
	ispf5r	TTTCAGCAGTTTCGATCCCT
	2ispg1f	ATTATTGGGGGCATCAACAT
	2ispg1r	GACAAATTGGCCTTGATAGC
	isph5f	TACATGGGGTAACGTCACTG
	isph5r	AGTAGCTATGGTCTCCTCGT
	gdps7f	GTCTATGCCGTGCTCAAATC
	gdps7r	AGCCATTCTATACACCAGCC
	TPS-new4f	CTCTCTCATGCCAAGATATG
	TPS-new4r	GTGGGAATATAGCTGCATAG
	2ubqln8f	TGAGCCCAAATTATTACCTGCA
	2ubqln8r	ATACTCAATGACCCTAGCATTCT
E.coli expression	TPS-pETligf	atgggtcgcggatccATGTCGACTGATGATG
	TPS-pETligr	tgctcgagtgcggccgCTATGGAATGGGATGAAC
N. benthamiana expression	gdps-pSuper1300 ligf	catttaaatactagtATGAGCGATCTGAGGG
	gdps-pSuper1300 ligr	cgcccttgctcaccatATGAGAGTTGTC
	tps-pSuper1300 ligf	catttaaatactagtATGTCGACTGATGATGCAG
	tps-pSuper1300 ligr	cgcccttgctcaccatTGGAATGGGATGAACGAG