

L-Aspartate

Subjects: [Cell Biology](#)

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L-aspartate (Asp) serves as a central building block, in addition to being a constituent of proteins, for many metabolic processes in most organisms, such as biosynthesis of other amino acids, nucleotides, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD), the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle and glycolysis pathway intermediates, and hormones, which are vital for growth and defense.

aspartate

stress

aspartate aminotransferase

aspartate transporter/carrier

compartmentation

hormone

1. Introduction

L-aspartate (Asp), in addition to constituting proteins and being an active residue in many enzymes, is a precursor leading to the biosynthesis of multiple biomolecules required for plant growth and defense, such as nucleotides, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD), organic acids, amino acids, and their derived metabolites. Though it cannot be simply quantified, given that in *Escherichia coli*, approximately 27% of nitrogen flows through Asp (<https://MetaCyc.org>, accessed on 30 January 2021) ^[1], the contribution of Asp to plants is highly conspicuous. It has been well documented that methionine (Met), threonine (Thr), lysine (Lys), and isoleucine (Ile), of the eight essential amino acids, are derived from Asp, through a pathway commonly known as the Asp family amino acids ^[2]. Further metamorphosis of Asp can yield glutamate (Glu) to glutamine (Gln) through the action of glutamine synthetase (GS). Asp and Glu, along with asparagine (Asn) and Gln, are the common nitrogen carriers ^[3], which have been noted for their primary role in the recycling, storage, and transport of nitrogen in germinating seeds, vegetative organs, and senescence organs ^[4]. Asp is also involved in the biosynthesis of some other amino acids such as arginine (Arg) and the aromatic amino acids (tyrosine (Tyr) and phenylalanine (Phe)), through the aspartate–argininosuccinate synthase and the aspartate–prephenate aminotransferase pathways, respectively ^[5]. Moreover, Asp is the building block for de novo pyrimidine manufacturing and is required to convert inosine-5'-monophosphate to adenine-5'-monophosphate in purine biosynthesis ^[6]. In addition, Asp serves as a critical precursor of the aspartate oxidase pathway in the synthesis of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD), an essential component of plant abiotic process, senescence, chlorophyll formation, and pollen development ^{[7][8][9]}. In addition, Asp deamination to oxaloacetate by aspartate aminotransferase (AspAT) in the cytosol is essential for the production of malate needed in mitochondria for the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle ^[10], whereas Asp released from the mitochondrion is involved in the biosynthesis of nucleotides in the cytosol. Intriguingly, some recent studies have found that cytosolic Asp is an endogenous metabolic limiter of cell proliferation ^{[6][11][12][13][14][15]}, moreover, Asp derived from glucose is indispensable to drive biomass synthesis during cellular hypertrophy ^[16]. Altogether,

apparently, Asp represents a critical metabolite hub interconnecting with diverse metabolic pathways that are of significant importance for plant nutrition, energy, and stress responses.

Exchange and competition for Asp and derived intermediates profoundly affect plant metabolism, which requires great attention. The detailed study and research into anabolism and catabolism of Asp and its related pathways (i.e., the Asp family amino acids, nucleotides, NAD, TCA, and glycolysis) are thus necessary to increase our knowledge on cell growth and repair [17], so as to further our understanding of plant growth, development and defense [13][15][18]. Herein, the various pathways derived from Asp are summarized in this review (Figure 1), and a general overview of Asp metabolism and regulation is described. In addition, the dynamism of Asp and AspAT in plants and their role in the plant in response to various stress conditions are discussed. Furthermore, some recent progress in the interconnection between Asp and phytohormones, such as ethylene and auxin, is highlighted.

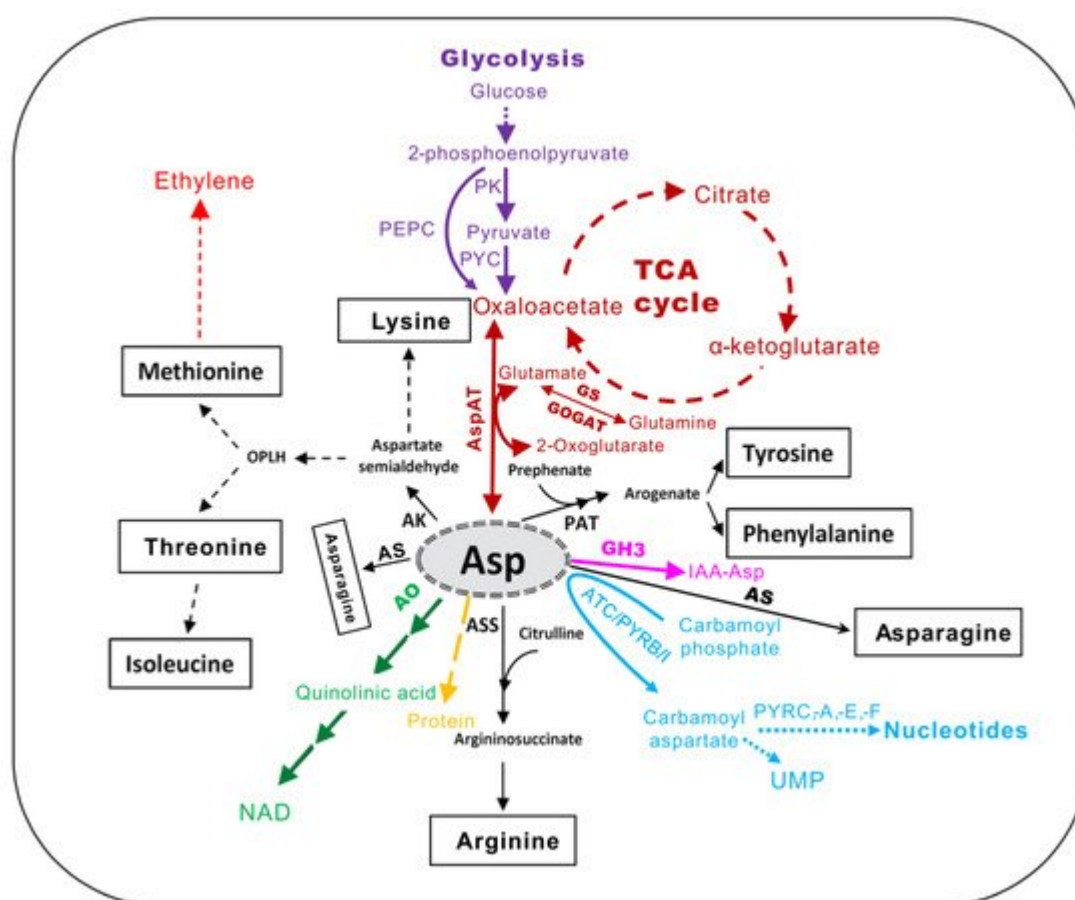


Figure 1. The central metabolic intermediates derived from L-aspartate (Asp) in plants (adapted from [5]). AK, aspartate kinase; AO, aspartate oxidase; ASS, argininosuccinate synthase; AS, asparagine synthase; PAT, prephenate aminotransferase; AspAT, aspartate aminotransferase; GS, glutamine synthetase; GOGAT, glutamine oxoglutarate aminotransferase; TCA, tricarboxylic acid cycle; NAD, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide; PK, pyruvate kinase; PYC, pyruvate carboxylase; PEPC, phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase; ATC/PYRB/I, aspartate transcarbamoylase or aspartate carbamoyl transferase; PYRC, dihydro-ototase; PYDA, dihydro-ototase dehydrogenase; PYRE, phosphoribosyl transferase; PYRF, orotate decarboxylase. GH3, group II of GRETCHEN HAGEN3 family of acyl amido synthetases.

2. Role of Asp in Growth and Stresses

2.1. Asp is an Endogenous Metabolic Limitation for Cell Proliferation

Cytosolic Asp has profound importance to the proliferating cells, as it determines the cell's survival, especially when Gln is limited [13]. The drop in cytosolic Asp resulting from the knockdown of *aspartate–glutamate carrier 1* (*AGC1*, known as *ARALAR*) leads to the reduction of the proliferation of several cell lines [15]. On the contrary, the supply of exogenous Asp or overexpression of an Asp transporter can bypass the need for an electron transport chain to support cell proliferation [6], demonstrating that Asp biosynthesis is a golden requirement for cell proliferation [13]. This has been further confirmed by the finding that TCA can only fully restore cell growth if it partners with Asp biosynthesis, thus, when AspAT is activated [15]. Further DNA content analysis by propidium iodide staining and flow cytometry reveals that the requirement of Asp for cell growth is at least partially because it sustains nucleotide biosynthesis [11][13].

2.2. Asp in Plants Coordinates Nitrogen Assimilation into Amino Acids

Asp and Glu and their amides make up more than one-third of the free amino acids in *Arabidopsis* [3]. They link the in vivo metabolism of amino acids to the relevant organic acids in the TCA cycle and the carbon metabolism in the glycolysis pathway [19][20]. When carbon skeletons are limited, Asp is amidated to form Asn, which serves as an efficient nitrogen transport and storage compound due to its relatively high N:C ratio (2:4) [21][22]. Under nitrogen stress, Asp appears to be one of the most important amino acids [23][24][25][26][27]. It has been found that when N is sufficient, as a predominant amino acid translocated in plant phloem, Asp supplied by the phloem is converted in the root to Asn to export N to the shoot via xylem as part of the process of nitrogen assimilation, whereas, when N is absent, Asp supplied by the phloem is diverted to the formation of malate to support the metabolism cycle back to the shoot [26]. In a very recent study, higher Asp and Asn contents were observed to be positively coordinated with the nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) trait in potatoes with low N supply [27]. The above results suggest that Asp is imperative for amino acid and organic acid biosynthesis, especially under fluctuating N conditions. Asp coordinates nitrogen assimilation into amino acids such that the available carbon skeleton is mobilized [28][29]. Further targeted regulation of Asp metabolism might be a useful strategy to improve the NUE traits in plants.

2.3. Asp is a Drought Stress-Specific Responsive Metabolite

One of the most critical processes that affects plants under drought conditions is the accumulation of solutes, including amino acids in the leaf tissues and the roots. Asp concentration was recorded to increase by more than twofold in drought treatment in *Brassica napus* [30], *Astragalus membranaceus* [31], and Triticeae [32]. Similarly, Asp has shown the second-highest concentration (the second most activated compound) after ABA in root exudates of the holm oak (*Quercus ilex*) upon drought treatment [33]. Additionally, in chickpea plants treated with a plant growth-promoting rhizobacterium (PGPR) and plant growth regulator (PGRs) consortium and grown under drought stress conditions, a higher accumulation of Asp in the leaf of the tolerant variety was recorded as compared to the sensitive variety [34]. In addition, a significant change of Asp has been recorded in kale [35] and *Caragana*

korshinskii [36], though its content declined upon drought stress. Regardless, the great range of variation of Asp content upon drought exposure suggests that Asp can serve as a drought-responsive biomarker.

2.4. The Variation of Asp Level Is Closely Linked to Stress Acclimation

When exposed to stress, plants accumulate a multitude of metabolites, particularly amino acids. A line of studies suggest a close correlation between the variation of Asp content and plant stress [37]. For example, under alkaline salt stress, a significant increase (3.97-fold) in Asp and other metabolites, such as proline (Pro), Glu, serine (Ser), and alanine (Ala), in wild soybean seedlings compared to semi-wild and cultivated soybean has been observed [38]. In response to 250 mM NaCl salt stress, the level of Asp increased by 11-fold in the root and about 6.2-fold in the shoot of *Aeluropus lagopoides* [39]. Under the same conditions, Asn, Lys, glycine (Gly), and Pro increased by 1.46- to 9.98-fold in the shoot, while in the root, Gly, Pro, Phe, and ethanolamine increased by approximately 2.5- to 15.6-fold. NaCl-treated wheat seedlings showed a 15.75-fold increase in Asp, and a 1.6-fold increase in total free amino acids compared to the control. Likewise, there was a significant enhancement (2.7-fold) of Asp after plants were inoculated with *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* RWL-1 under salinity stress conditions [40]. The high accumulation of Asp and other amino acids, such as Pro under salt stress, has played an essential role in plants in highly saline conditions by maintaining the intracellular osmotic potential and stabilizing membrane proteins [41]. Furthermore, the change of Asp content has been reported to be coupled with the alteration of protein metabolism in salt-stressed plants [42].

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2.5. Asp Acts as a Biomarker of Biotic Stress and Environment-Induced Exposure

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Table 1. Induction and repression of Asp in different plant species under various stress conditions.

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| Stress | Species | Tissues (Stress Period) | Asp Fold Change | Change of Asp-Associated Metabolites | Physiological Role | Ref. |
|---------|--------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------|------|
| Drought | <i>Astragalus membranaceus</i> | Roots (10 days) | 2.3 | ↑Asp family metabolism, ↑glutamate, | Sensing water status | [31] |

| Stress | Species | Tissues (Stress Period) | Asp Fold Change | Change of Asp-Associated Metabolites | Physiological Role | Ref. |
|-----------------------|---|---|-----------------|---|--|------|
| | | | | ↑GABA, ↑TCA cycle, ↑sucrose | | |
| | <i>Cicer arietinum</i> L. (chickpea) | Leaves | -2.5--6.1 | ↑Thr, ↑Met, ↓Asn, ↑citrulline | Osmoregulation | [34] |
| | <i>Caragana korshinskii</i> | Leaves and roots | -0.32--0.63 | ↑Asn, ↑sugars/glycosides, ↓Glu, ↓isocitric acid | Drought-responsive metabolites | [36] |
| | Triticeae | Roots and leaves | >2 | ↑Succinate, ↑Trehalose, ↑Glu, ↑Asn, ↑Met, ↑Phe | Drought stress-specific responsive metabolites | [32] |
| | <i>Brassica oleracea</i> L. var. <i>acephala</i> (kale) | Leaves | -1.3 | ↓Glu, ↓Thr, ↓Ala, ↑Pro | Biomarker for drought tolerance | [35] |
| Salinity | <i>Aeluropus lagopoides</i> | Shoots and roots | 6.2-11 | ↑Asn, ↑Lys, ↓malate | Stomatal opening, inhibited Ca ²⁺ uptake | [39] |
| | Wheat | Seedlings (17 days) | 15.75 | ↑Ile, ↑Lys, ↑Phe, ↑Pro, ↓Glu, ↓Arg, ↓Met | Protein metabolism, osmoprotection | [42] |
| N starvation or low N | Non- nodulated soybean | Phloem sap (4 days) | -3.7 | ↓Asn, ↓Glu, ↑malate, ↑GABA | Transform to malate to deliver the amino acids | [26] |
| | Maize | Leaves | ≈2 | ↓Asn, ↓Glu | Regulation of N mobilization | [24] |
| | <i>Solanum tuberosum</i> L. (potato) | Shoots and tubers of potato cv. Kufri Jyoti | >5 | ↑Thr, ↑Asn, ↑Glu, | NUE efficiency | [27] |
| | Tobacco | Leaves | >-2 | ↑Glu, ↑Lys, ↑Ile, ↓Gln, ↓Arg, ↓Phe | Represents a significant proportion of the total amino acid pool | [57] |
| | Soybean | Xylem sap | ≈8 | ↓Asn, ↓Gln, ↑Glu, ↑Ala, ↑GABA | N recycling, source of N in | [23] |

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| Stress | Species | Tissues (Stress Period) | Asp Fold Change | Change of Asp-Associated Metabolites | Physiological Role | Ref. |
|----------------------------|--|------------------------------------|-----------------|--|--|------|
| | | | | | alanine formation | |
| Supplementation of nitrate | Soybean | Roots | ≈3 | ↑Asn, ↑Glu, ↑Gln | Provide C skeleton for the synthesis of Asn | [58] |
| Low C | Tobacco | Leaves | >−2 | ↑Glu, ↑Asn, ↓Phe | Represents a significant proportion of the total amino acid pool | [57] |
| Light | Sunflower | Leaf discus | ≈2 | ↑Glu, ↑Gln | Convert to Asn for N storage and transport in the dark | [59] |
| | Tobacco | Leaves | 2.6 | ↑Phe | Light-responsive marker metabolites | [57] |
| Cold | <i>Fragaria × ananassa</i> (strawberry) | Leaves and roots of Duch. "Korona" | 3–5 | ↑Ile, ↑hexoses, ↑pentoses | Protective metabolites | [43] |
| | <i>Secale cereale</i> (rye) | Plant crown | 3 | ↑Glu, ↑Pro | Frost tolerance improvement | [45] |
| | <i>Ficus carica</i> L. (fig) | Fruits | >2 | ↑Glu, ↑Glucose, ↑fructose, ↓Arg, ↓GABA, ↓Phe, ↓Ile, ↓Pro | Cold-responsive marker metabolites | [44] |
| Low P | <i>Triticum aestivum</i> L. (Wheat) | Leaves | 1.2 | ↑Gln, ↑β-alanine, ↑raffinose, ↑1-kestose | Enhanced PUE | [46] |
| Fusarium wilt | <i>Citrullus vulgaris</i> (watermelon) | Leaves, stems, and roots | 33–43 | ↑Lys, ↑Arg, ↑citrulline | Biomarker of Fusarium wilt disease | [54] |
| Fusarium crown rot | <i>Asparagus officinalis</i> L., cv. "Welcome" | Mycorrhizal asparagus shoots | ≈1.7 | ↑Glu, ↑Arg, ↑citrulline, ↑GABA | Disease tolerance | [56] |

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| Stress | Species | Tissues (Stress Period) | Asp Fold Change | Change of Asp-Associated Metabolites | Physiological Role | Ref. |
|------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------|--|--|------|
| Parasitic weed | Faba bean | Tubercles of tolerant line | ≈-0.4 | ↓Asn, ↓Glu, ↓Gln, ↓GABA, ↓sucrose | N metabolism of the parasite | [60] |
| Arbuscule | <i>Medicago truncatula</i> | Mycorrhizal roots | >10 | ↑Glu, ↑Asn, ↑Gln, ↑sucrose, ↑trehalose | Associated with higher N availability | [53] |
| JA (100 nM) | Tomato | Seedlings | 1.6 | ↑Asn, ↑Glu, ↓Gln, ↓Lys, ↓Met, ↓Arg | Osmoregulation | [55] |
| Oxidative stress | <i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> | Roots (6 h) | ≈2 | ↓Glu, ↓malate, ↓succinate, ↓fumarate, ↓hexose phosphates, ↑2-OG, ↑pyruvate, ↑citrate | Oxidative stress-responsive metabolites | [49] |
| Hypoxia | Muskmelon | Roots (6 days) | 1.23 | ↑Thr, ↑Glu, ↑Lys, ↑GABA | Hypoxia-responsive metabolites | [62] |
| Anoxia | Rice | Excised roots | ≈-2 | ↑GABA, ↑Pro, ↑pyruvate, ↓Glu, ↓Gln, ↓Asn, ↓2-OG | Corresponds to a weak fall in cytoplasmic pH | [61] |
| Arsenate (As(V)) | Tomato | Aboveground tissues and roots | 2.4–3.1 | ↑Asn, ↑Gln, ↑Glu, ↑Arg, ↑Lys, ↑Ile | Marker for As(V) stress | [51] |
| Aluminum (Al) | Trifoliolate orange | Roots | -2 | ↓Ile, ↓Glu, ↓malate, ↓sugars, ↑Asn, ↑Lys, ↑Gln | Marker for Al stress | [52] |

altering the metabolic patterns of amino acids and carbohydrates rather than organic acids in trifoliolate orange. *Tree Physiol.* 2019, 39, 1572–1582.

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