Understanding and Manipulating Alkaloid Biosynthesis

by

Weslee S. Glenn

B.S. Chemistry, Honors College Hampton University, 2008

SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

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Submitted to the Department of Chemistry on June 28, 2013 in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Chemistry

ABSTRACT

Humans have exploited plant alkaloids as medicines since at least the Neolithic Era. Today, alkaloids such as vinblastine (isolated from *Catharanthus roseus*) and morphine (isolated from *Papaver somniferum*) are prescribed to treat various cancers and relieve pain, respectively. Despite this storied use and palpable presence in the current pharmacopeia, relatively little is known about the biosynthesis, regulation and transport of these molecules.

For example, monoterpene indole alkaloid (MIA) biosynthesis, a set of metabolic pathways that produces hundreds of bioactive natural products, has not been fully elucidated in any organism. Here we examine the biosynthesis of secologanin, which contributes the monoterpene moiety to all MIAs. Specifically, we excavate *C. roseus* transcriptomic datasets to identify 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase, a missing step in secologanin biosynthesis. 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase catalyzes the oxidation of both hydroxyl moieties of 10-hydroxygeraniol to form 10-oxogeranial, which is the substrate for iridoid synthase, the reductive cyclase that assembles the characteristic iridoid scaffold.

Despite having an incomplete understanding of MIA biosynthesis, several engineering strategies have been successfully deployed to incorporate halogenation into the MIA machinery and yield halogenated alkaloids. Although alkaloids and plant natural products have been used to treat various diseases, these compounds have not evolved specifically to do so. Therefore, these compounds frequently require editing to effectively tune their biological and pharmacological activities. We also describe efforts to reengineer tryptophan halogenase RebH to preferentially install chlorine onto tryptamine, the direct indole precursor for the MIAs. After reengineering RebH, we then overexpressed the tryptamine-specific mutant RebH Y455W and flavin reductase RebF in *C. roseus* and observed the *de novo* biosynthesis of a chlorinated unnatural natural product 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine.

Lastly, we describe the serendipitous discovery of a *P. somniferum* codeine-Odemethylase mutant that selectively demethylates codeine, a benzylisoquinoline alkaloid involved in morphine biosynthesis, instead of both codeine and thebaine. This mutant may selectively disable a redundant route in the biosynthesis of morphine that has been associated with poor seed and licit opium quality.

Thesis Advisor: Sarah E. O'Connor

Title: Professor, The John Innes Centre and the University of East Anglia

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"Our crown has already been bought and paid for. All we have to do is wear it." –James Baldwin

Receiving a Ph.D. is undoubtedly a crowning moment. This moment—this crowning moment—has been bought and paid for with intense love and sacrifice that, of course, defy a few short paragraphs. And, frankly, I'm unsure that five pure vowel sounds and the consonants that are used to modulate air pressure and form intelligible words can even hint at capturing the gratitude that this moment—this capstone—warrants. But, I will try.

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Weslee

Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Iı Alkaloids	ntroduction: Recent Progress in the Metabolic Engineering of	.19
I.	Introduction	20
II.	The Monoterpene Indole Alkaloids	.23
	A. Introduction	.23
	B. Obtaining the building blocks for metabolic engineering efforts.	. 24
	C. Engineering 'unnatural' natural products	. 27
III.	The Benzylisoquinoline Alkaloids	. 28
	A. Introduction	. 28
	B. Enzyme discovery and engineering in the BIA pathway	. 29
	C. Engineering in native hosts	30
	D. Reconstituting BIA biosynthesis in microbial systems	. 33
IV.	The Glucosinolates	. 34
	A. Introduction	. 34
	B. Improving yields in non-native hosts	. 35
V.	Scope of Thesis	. 38
VI.	References	. 40
VII.	Acknowledgements	. 44
Chapter 2: D roseus	biscovery of 10-hydroxygeraniol Oxidoreductase Activity in <i>C.</i>	.45
I.	Introduction	.46
II.	Results and Discussion	.51
	Future Work	.65
IV.		. 69
۷.	Methods	./1
	A. Gene cloning	./1 7/
	C TLC accave	. 74
	D CC-MS assays	.75
	F VICS	77
VL	Appendix A contents	.78
VII.	References	.79
VIII.	Acknowledgements	.80
Chapter 3: R Chlorinate a	teengineering a Tryptophan Halogenase to Preferentially Direct Alkaloid Precursor	.82
I	Introduction	83
1. 11	Results and Discussion	.03 87
11. III	Conclusions	. ሀ/ 1በマ
IV.	Methods	105
	A. <i>In planta</i> over-expression of RebH wild type, RebF and TDC	105

	B. Stable transformation protocol – RebH Y455W and RebF	107
	C. RebH mutant design and expression	
	D. RebH activity assays	111
	E. RebH WT, RebH Y455W and RebH L113G competition assa	y114
	F. RebH WT and RebH Y455W at different typtophan-to-tryta	mine
	ratios	114
	G. In planta over-expression of RebH Y455W and RebF	115
	H. Transient <i>in planta</i> expression of RebH Y455W and RebF	118
V.	References	119
VI.	Acknowledgements	120
Chapter 4: I	Redesign of a Dioxygenase Involved in Morphine Biosynthes	is122
I.	Introduction	
II.	Results and Discussion	
III.	Conclusions	
IV.	Methods	144
	A. Construction of <i>Ps</i> CODM mutant expression plasmids	144
	B. Heterologous expression of <i>Ps</i> CODM mutants	145
	C. In vitro activity assay of <i>Ps</i> CODM mutants	145
	D. Steady-State kinetic assay of wild type CODM and A1A2BC1	*C2
	mutant	146
	E. Computational modeling	147
V.	References	148
VI.	Acknowledgments	149
Chapter 5: (Conclusions and Future Directions: The Alkaloids and Beyon	d 150
I.	Conclusions	
II.	Future Directions—The Alkaloids and Bevond	
	A. Effective mining strategies	
	B. Metabolic engineering in native versus non-native hosts	
	C. Controlling metabolic flux through new expression constru	cts,
	scaffolds and tunable regulatory elements	
	D. Transport—Engineering in multiple dimensions	160
	E. Elucidating the physiological relevance of alkaloids	160
	F. Combinatorial biosynthesis in plants—mixing and matchin	g
	pathways and engineering new enzyme specificities	
III.	References	163
IV.	Acknowledgements	165
Appendix A	: Chapter 2 Supplemental Data	166
I.	DNA and Protein Sequences	166
II.	TLC Controls	172
III.	GC-MS Spectra	
Curriculum	Vitae	

Table of Figures

Figure 1.1: Monoterpene indole alkaloid biosynthesis and strategies to engineer	
Halogenation	. 26
Figure 1.2: Benzlisoquinoline alkaloid biosynthesis	. 31
Figure 1.3: Glucosinolate biosynthesis	. 36
Figure 2.1: Structures of representative plant iridoids	. 46
Figure 2.2: Proposed biosynthesis of secologanin	. 48
Figure 2.3: Representative hierarchical cluster	. 53
Figure 2.4: SDS PAGE gels of candidate expression	. 58
Figure 2.5: Candidate TLC screens	. 60
Figure 2.6: Candidate and iridoid synthase coupled assay	.61
Figure 2.7: GC-MS of representative positive hit	. 63
Figure 2.8: Two possible routes from 10-hydroxygeraniol to 10-oxogeranial	. 66
Figure 2.9: Multiple peaks in GC-MS chromatograms of positive hits	. 67
Figure 2.10: Substrate analogs to test with 10-hydroxygeraniol reductase	. 69
Figure 2.11: USER cloning scheme	.73
Figure 2.12: Candidate PCR inserts	.71
Figure 2.13: Colony PCR of candidates for VIGS	.78
Figure 3.1: RebH and RebF over-expression in <i>C. roseus</i>	. 84
Figure 3.2: Strategies to alleviate TDC bottleneck	. 86
Figure 3.3: <i>C. roseus</i> hairy roots over-expressing TDC or TDC. RebH and RebF	. 87
Figure 3.4: Tryptophan complexed with RebH (PDB code: 2E4G)	. 89
Figure 3.5: RebH wild type and RebH Y455W competition assay chromatogram	. 92
Figure 3.6: RebH L113G competition assay chromatogram	.93
Figure 3.7: RebH wild type and RebH Y455W competitive assay quantitative	
comparison	94
Figure 3.8: Molecular models of RebH wild type and RebH Y455W with L-	
tryptonhan and tryptamine	. 95
Figure 3.9. Pictet-Spengler mechanism	
Figure 3.10: RebH WT and RebH Y455W chlorotryntamine LC-MS product	
Characterization	. 98
Figure 3 11, RehH Y455W and RehF hairy root lines	100
Figure 3.12: Metabolite analysis of RebH Y455W and RebF hairy root line	101
Figure 3.13: Exogenous TDC genomic DNA amplicon	107
Figure 3.14. RehH WT and RehH Y455W F coli expression	110
Figure 3.15: RebH WT chlortryntamine product controls	112
Figure 3.16: RebH V455W chlorotryptamine product controls	112
Figure 3.17: Hairy root genomic DNA analysis for RebH V455W and RebF	117
Figure 4.1: Benzylisoquinoline alkaloid biosynthesis	174
Figure 4.1. Denzynsoquinonne alkaloid biosynthesis	127
Figure 4.2. Sequence angument of thoxygenases from <i>Tupuver sommajer uni</i>	127
Figure 4.5. Homology models of 100DM and CODM	122
Figure 4.4. CODM mutant expression	12/
Figure 4.5. Activity of CODM mutants with thebaine	125
Figure 4.0: Activity of CODM mutants with the Dame	125 125
rigure 4.7; CODM mutant competition assays	122

Figure 4.8: Michaelis-Menten curve of wild type CODM with codeine	.137
Figure 4.9: Michaelis-Menten curve of wild type CODM with thebaine	.138
Figure 4.10: Michaelis-Menten curve of CODM mutant A1A2BC1*C2 with codeine	.138
Figure 4.11: Proposed dioxygenase demethylation mechanism	.139
Figure 4.12: Thebaine docked onto wild type CODM homology model	.139
Figure 4.13: Thebaine docked into mutant A1A2BC1*C2 homology model	.140
Figure 4.14: Codeine docked onto wild type CODM homology model	.140
Figure 4.15: Codeine docked onto mutant A1A2BC1*C2 homology model	.141
Figure 5.1: Chapter 2 summary figure – Secologanin biosynthesis	.152
Figure 5.2: Chapter 3 summary figure – RebH reengineering	.154
Figure 5.3: Chapter 4 summary figure – CODM reengineering	.155
Figure 5.4: Design of a nucleophilic aromatic fluorinase	.162
Figure A.1: TLC of candidate no NAD(P)+ and no enzyme controls	.172
Figure A.2: TLC of candidate no zinc controls	.173
Figure A.3: TLC of candidate chelation controls	.173
Figure A.4: TLC of 10-hydroxygeraniol authentic standard	.173
Figure A.5: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol authentic standard	.174
Figure A.6: Mass spectrum of 10-hydroxygeraniol authentic standard	.175
Figure A.7: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-oxogernial authentic standard	.176
Figure A.8: Mass spectrum of 10-oxogeranial authentic standard	.177
Figure A.9: GC-MS chromatogram of Candidate 1786 with NAD+	.178
Figure A.10: Mass spectrum of Candidate 1786 with NAD+ product peak	.179
Figure A.11: Chromatogram of Candidate 1786 with NAD ⁺ - No ZnCl ₂ control	.180
Figure A.12: Mass spectrum of Candidate 1786 with NAD+-No ZnCl ₂ control prod	luct
Peak	.181
Figure A.13: Chromatogram of Candidate 1786 with NAD ⁺ - EDTA control	.182
Figure A.14: Mass spectrum of Candidate 1786 with NAD+ - EDTA control produc	ct
Peak	.183
Figure A.15: GC-MS chromatogram of Candidate 1786 with NADP+	.184
Figure A.16: Mass spectrum of Candidate 1786 with NADP+ product peak	.185
Figure A.17: Chromatogram of Candidate 1786 with NADP+ - No ZnCl ₂ control	.186
Figure A.18: Mass spectrum of Candidate 1786 with NADP ⁺ - No ZnCl ₂ control	
product peak	.187
Figure A.19: GC-MS chromatogram of Candidate 1786 with NADP ⁺ - Chelation	
Control	.188
Figure A.20: Mass spectrum of Candidate 1786 with NADP+ - EDTA control	.189
Figure A.21: GC-MS chromatogram of Candidate 1786 no NAD(P)+ control	.190
Figure A.22: GC-MS chromatogram of Candidate 26 with NAD+	.191
Figure A.23: GC-MS chromatogram of Candidate 26 with NADP+	.192
Figure A.24: Mass spectrum of Candidate 26 with NADP+ product peak	.193
Figure A.25: Chromatogram of Candidate 26 with NADP+ - No $ZnCl_2$ control	.194
Figure A.26: Mass spectrum of Candidate 26 with NADP+ - No ZnCl2 control prod	luct
Peak	.195
Figure A.27: GC-MS of Candidate 26 – NADP+ - EDTA control	.196
Figure A.28: Mass spectrum of Candidate 26 with NADP+ - EDTA control product	t
noalt	197

List of Tables

Table 1.1: Engineering strategies for monoterpene indole alkaloids,	
benzylisoquinoline alkaloids and glucosinolates	
Table 2.1: Top 25 contigs from G10H mutual rank	
Table 2.2: Candidate filter summary	55
Table 2.3: TargetP 1.1 localization prediction	
Table 2.4: Summary of expression data	
Table 2.5: Summary of candidate screen	
Table 2.6: Candidate primers from expression in pET28a	
Table 2.7: 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase VIGS primers	77
Table 3.1: Summary of mutant assays	
Table 3.2: RebH Y455W and RebF Line 31 metabolic analysis	
Table 3.3: RebH Y455W and RebF Line 74 metabolic analysis	
Table 3.4: TDC plant over-expression primers	
Table 3.5: TDC genomic DNA analysis primers	
Table 3.6: RebH mutant primers	
Table 3.7: Primers to amplify RebH Y455W from genomic DNA	117
Table 4.1: Tested CODM mutants	129
Table 4.2: Primers and templates for site-directed mutagenesis	130
Table 4.3: Summary of CODM wild type and mutant kinetic parameters	137

List of Abbreviations

This thesis uses standard abbreviations for nucleic acids (one-letter code) and amino acids (one and three-letter codes). Standard SI units are also employed unless otherwise noted.

Abbreviation	Meaning
¹ H NMR	proton nuclear magnetic resonance
4'-OMT	3'-hydroxy-N-methyl coclaurine-4'-O-methyltransferase
6-OMT	norcoclaurin 6-O-methyltransferase
ADH	alcohol dehydrogenase
BBE	berberine bridge enzyme
BIA	benzylisoquinoline alkaloid
BLAST	basic local alignment search tool
cDNA	complementary deoxyribonucleic acid
CNMT	coclaurine-N-methyltransferase
CODM	codeine-O-demethylase
COR	codeinone reductase
СҮР	cytochromes P450
DMAPP	dimethyl allyl pyrophosphate
DMSO	dimethyl sulfoxide
DRR	1,2-dehydroreticulene reductase
DRS	1,2-dehydroreticuline synthase
DTT	dithiothreitol
EDTA	ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid disodium salt
ER	endoplasmic reticulum
ESPs	epithiospecifier proteins
EtOAc	ethyl acetate
FAD	flavin adenine dinucleotide
FDA	Federal Drug Administration
FPKM	fragments per kilobase of exon per million
G10H	geraniol 10-hydroxylase
GC-MS	gas chromatography- mass spectrometry
gDNA	genomic deoxyribonucleic acid
Glc	glucose
GLS	glucosinolate
GSH	glutathione
His6	hexahistidine
HPLC	high performance liquid chromatography
Immat.	immature
IPP	isopentyl pyrophosphate
IPTG	Isopropyl-B-D-galactopyranoside
kDa	kiloDalton
LB	Luria-Burtani media
LC-MS	liquid chromatography - mass spectrometry
MAO	bacterial monoamine oxidase
	······································

MeJa	methyl jasmonate
MIA	monoterpene indole alkaloid
MS	mass spectrometry
NAD(+)	nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide
NADH	nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (reduced)
NADP(+)	nicotnamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate
NADPH	nictotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (reduced)
NCS	norcoclaurine synthase
NFPs	nitrile-forming proteins
P450s	cytochromes P450
PAPS	3'-phosphoadenosine-5'-phosphosulfate
PCC	Pearson Correlation Coefficient
PDB	Protein Data Bank
RNAi	ribonucleic acid interferenc
rpm	revolutions per minute
SDS PAGE	sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
SMT	scoulerine 9-O-methyltransferase
STS	strictosidine synthase
T6ODM	thebaine-6-O-demethylase
TDC	tryptophan decarboxylase
TDCi	tryptophan decarboxylase interference line
TFPs	thiocyanate-forming proteins
TLC	thin layer chromatography
TRV	tobacco rattle virus
VIGS	virus-induced gene silencing
VIGS	virus-induced gene silencing
WT	wild type

Chapter 1

Introduction: Recent Progress in the Metabolic Engineering of Alkaloids

Part of this chapter published as a perspective in

<u>Glenn WS</u>*, Runguphan W*, O'Connor SE. *Curr Opin Biotechnol*. 2013 Apr; 24(2): 354-65 (*indicates equal contribution)

I. Introduction

Medicinal plants and the natural products derived from them have been exploited for thousands of years. For example, opium poppy has been employed both as an anaesthetic and a conduit to the spiritual world since at least the Neolithic Era.^{1,2} Independently, the blue petals of some periwinkle varieties are said to invoke a sense of calm in Hoodoo practices (traditional African-American folk magic), while the leaves are believed to strengthen conjugal vows if sewn into a couple's mattress.²

The alkaloids themselves—isolated from poppy, periwinkle and other medicinal plants—have a particularly long and storied narrative as well. This history is highlighted in the life of Cleopatra, who used alkaloid-containing extracts from belladonna (Italian for 'beautiful woman') to dilate her pupils so as to increase her beauty and thereby disarm her enemies.³ Far from being confined to ancient chronicles, the alkaloids retain a palpable presence in today's clinics. For example, optometrists still apply eye drops containing the alkaloid atropine, an active component of belladonna, to dilate the pupil during routine eye exams.³

It is unsurprising that most alkaloids are bioactive given that evolutionary processes select for the biosynthesis of products that confer an advantage to the producing organism. Despite the rich ethnopharmacological tradition and high usage of alkaloids in the modern era, relatively little is known about the biosynthesis, regulation and transport of these molecules. Access to these potent pharmaceuticals frequently pivots upon isolation from their native producers;

isolation typically requires laborious separation techniques that often result in low yields. Lacking a more sophisticated understanding of alkaloid biosynthesis significantly impedes our ability to co-opt nature's machinery in order to overproduce—that is, to metabolically engineer—these valuable compounds.

Notably, many drug screening efforts exclude plant natural products because of their high production costs and instead screen larger numbers of simpler synthetic molecules, which can be produced inexpensively and in fewer chemical steps.⁴ Typically these high throughput screens are enriched with aromatic, sp²-rich compounds that are obtained from commercial vendor libraries.⁵ While these compounds have been useful for certain targets such as kinase inihibition, this area of chemical space is not always ideal for drug-like molecules.^{4,5} In contrast, natural products and compounds inspired by natural products occupy a 'privileged' drug-like space, and comprise nearly half of all FDA approved drugs.⁵⁻⁷ Importantly, natural products nearly always have more chiral carbons-a metric of complexity-than compounds typically found in commercial vendor libraries.⁵ Given that natural products have specifically evolved to bind to cellular targets and exhibit some bioactivity that is beneficial to the host organism, it is hardly surprising that natural products are enriched for bioactivity, while relatively flat compounds uninspired by natural product structures typically fail pharmaceutical screens.8

Given the successes of getting natural products through the drug pipeline, we contend that more natural products—including plant alkaloids—should be included in drug screens. Plant natural products have a high success rate as

candidates and leads.^{6,7} While the chemical syntheses of plant natural products, particularly the alkaloids, are dramatically improving,⁹ many syntheses are still too lengthy for commercial production or require industrially impractical separation steps. Therefore, alternative production platforms must be developed, evaluated and instituted. An increasing body of work enlists microbes as well as cell and tissue cultures to produce these valuable plant-derived products.⁷ Biological systems have the potential to be scalable and selective, while simultaneously being more environmentally friendly and—importantly—less expensive than synthetic reactions.⁷

In this chapter, we highlight recent metabolic engineering efforts designed to improve production of selected plant-derived alkaloids. We focus on the monoterpene indole alkaloids (MIAs), the benzylisoquinoline alkaloids (BIAs) and the glucosinolates. Though not classically classified as alkaloids, the glucosinolates are nitrogen-containing compounds that have been the subject of a compelling body of research that will inform the forward engineering of all plant natural products. In total, these three classes of plant-derived nitrogen-containing natural products have been the subject of recent research efforts aimed at discovering and manipulating cellular activities, which include enzymatic function, metabolite transport and regulatory control. Ultimately this work may lead to biotechnologically useful enzymes and new drug candidates. Throughout this chapter, we also highlight the challenges that arise in attempting to chart the underexplored landscape of plant biosynthesis. Lastly, the chapter concludes by contextualizing the scope of this thesis.

II. The Monoterpene Indole Alkaloids

A. Introduction

The monoterpene indole alkaloids (MIAs) have garnered interest over the past few decades largely because of vinblastine **8** and vincristine **9**, two potent and widely prescribed anti-cancer agents that are currently produced solely through harvest from the leaves of mature periwinkle plants (*Catharanthus roseus*).¹⁰ The concentrations of vinblastine and vincristine per gram of dry leaf material are approximately 0.01% and 0.003%, respectively, and are greatly dependent upon plant growth conditions.¹¹ Their low yields and lengthy production timeline have elicited intense efforts to engineer higher titers of these medicinally important MIAs.

The MIAs are encountered most commonly in the Apocynaceae, Loganiaceae and Rubiaceae families.¹² Most MIAs are built from the secoiridoid secologanin **3** and the indole-containing molecule tryptamine **2** (Figure 1a) [9]. Strictosidine synthase (STS) condenses these two molecules via a Pictet-Spengler condensation that forms strictosidine **4**, The β -carboline backbone that is formed via STS exhibits over 25 unique activities, highlighting the 'privileged' status of this class of compounds.^{7,13}

Strictosidine **4**—the central precursor in MIA metabolism—is believed to ultimately succumb to either of two chemical fates.^{14,15} If the plant is not under herbivore attack, strictosidine **4** is deglucosylated and rearranged into the over 3000 MIAs found in nature.¹⁵ Madagascar periwinkle contains a subset of

approximately 130 MIAs. Alternatively, if the plant is under herbivore attack, the strictosidine **4** pool (estimated to be approximately 10 mM in periwinkle leaf epidermal cells hormonally treated to mimic herbivore attack) can be directed to the nucleus for mass deglucosylation, leading to a reactive dialdehyde species capable of cross-linking proteins.¹⁵ This mechanism has been dubbed the strictosidine nuclear 'bomb' in reference to the 'mustard oil bomb' mechanism of glucosinolate biosynthesis (see below).¹⁵ Importantly, many of the MIA metabolites themselves have also been implicated in plant defense strategies.¹⁶

B. Obtaining the Building Blocks for Metabolic Engineering Efforts–A Case Study on the Discovery of P450s Involved in MIA biosynthesis

The enzymatic pathways leading to the MIAs have not yet been fully elucidated in any organism. These uncharacterized biochemical steps may utilize novel chemistries or possess informative and interesting specificities that enable the enzymes to be employed in various synthetic metabolic pathway designs.^{17,18} Notably, many plants—including MIA producers—are predicted to contain a high percentage of cytochromes P450 (P450s). Some estimates place P450s at approximately 1% of representative plant genomes,¹⁹ over 5-fold higher than the proportion of P450s found in the human genome.²⁰ By using molecular oxygen to tailor hydrocarbon skeletons, P450s facilitate a panel of difficult chemical transformations and are consequently utilized in many alkaloid biosynthetic pathways.¹⁸

P450s have also been successfully engineered for biotechnological purposes.^{20,21} Various technologies, such as nanodiscs,²² and N-terminus reengineering efforts²¹ have improved the expression of membrane-bound P450s, making this class of enzymes accessible to a full suite of biochemical and biophysical characterization techniques. Given the high sequence similarity of P450s, identifying a P450 that facilitates a specific biochemical reaction within a biosynthetic pathway remains a challenge. This has greatly slowed the discovery and characterization of new P450s within the plant kingdom. However, Giddings et al. recently used co-expression analysis to identify P450s with expression profiles similar to known MIA biosynthetic genes.¹⁷ By functionally assaying these candidates in Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Giddings et al. discovered one P450 (CYP71BJ1) that hydroxylated the **19** position of either lochnericine or tabersonine 7, an intermediate that is positioned at a metabolic branch point.¹⁷ Hydroxylation of tabersonine 7 at the 16 position commits the intermediate to vindoline and vinblastine 8 biosynthesis, whereas hydroxylation at the 19 position commits the molecule to 19-O-acetylhörhammericine formation.¹⁷ Controlling this switch may be important in engineering efforts designed to improve the titres of vindoline and vinblastine 8. Moreover, similar strategies must be employed to find other missing pathway steps in MIA biosynthesis (Chapter 2) and other natural product pathways.



Figure 1.1: (A) The monoterpene indole alkaloid (MIA) pathway. TDC, tryptophan decarboxylase; STS, strictosidine synthase; Glc, glucose. (B) Introduction of halogenation into the MIA pathway. RebH and PyrH are both flavin-dependent halogenases from actinomycetes species; STSvm, strictosidine synthase Val214Met mutant. (C) Reengineering of halogenase to preferentially chlorinate tryptamine **2** over the natural substrate tryptophan **1** (Chapter 3).

C. Engineering 'Unnatural' Natural Products

Plant alkaloids often require modification to improve their pharmacological properties prior to human consumption. Halogenation, particularly fluorination and chlorination, is a pervasive modification in successful pharmaceutical candidates.^{23,24} Halogens often confer the potency of a drug, alter its pharmacokinetics or function as site-specific handles for subsequent modification.²³⁻²⁵ Halogens can be introduced into MIA pathways by a number of methods. One particular example employed mutasynthesis, a process whereby natural biosynthesis is first blocked by genetic silencing of the natural precursor, and then rescued by feeding with structural analogs of the precursor.²⁶ In this case, in conjunction with the RNAi-mediated knockdown of tryptophan decarboxylase (TDC), unnatural tryptamine 2 analogs were added to a chemically 'silent'-non-alkaloid producing-background and fluorinated MIA analogs were observed.²⁶ In a separate engineering strategy, strictosidine synthase (STS)-the enzyme situated at the first committed step of MIA biosynthesis-was engineered to accept an expanded range of halogenated tryptamine 2 precursors;²⁷ the utility of this enzyme was demonstrated in planta by feeding previously unaccepted unnatural precursors to C. roseus hairy roots.²⁸

Finally, Runguphan *et al.* interfaced RebH and PyrH—two tryptophan halogenases isolated from soil-dwelling actinomycetes species—with the MIA metabolism of periwinkle to produce halogenated natural products de novo [24] (Figure 1b). However, the lines overexpressing both RebH and RebF also displayed a brown and slow growth morphology.²⁹ Runguphan *et al.*

hypothesized that this morphology was the result of the accumulation of 7chlorotryptan **1a**, an analog of primary metabolite L-tryptophan **1** that is somewhat structurally similar to 4-chloroindole-3-acetic acid, an auxin known to be involved in regulating plant growth.²⁹

To circumnavigate this problem, Glenn *et al.* employed structure-guided protein design to engineer a halogenase that preferentially chlorinated tryptamine **2**, a more direct MIA precursor (Figure 1C) (Chapter 3).³⁰ Microgram per gram fresh weight quantities of 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuamicine **5a** were observed with this strategy, but neither 7-chlorotryptophan **1a** nor 7-chlorotryptamine **2a** accumulated in planta, indicating the chlorinated precursor was being effectively shuttled into MIA metabolism [25]. Engineering halogenation into MIA metabolism highlights an important need to interface specialized metabolism with primary carbon and nitrogen metabolism.

III. The benzylisoquinoline alkaloids

A. Introduction

Benzylisoquinoline alkaloids (BIAs) are found mainly in the Papaveraceae, Ranunculaceae, Berberidaceae and Menispermaceae plant families. Approximately 2500 BIAs have been isolated to date.³¹ This class of compounds has been used throughout human history and contains pharmaceuticals that are still widely used today, including the narcotic and analgesic morphine **28**, the cough suppressant codeine **26**, the muscle relaxant papaverine, and the antimicrobial agents sanguinarine **19** and berberine **29**. All known BIAs, like the

MIAs, are derived from a single intermediate, which, for this class of compounds, is norcoclaurine **13**. Norcoclaurine synthase (NCS) catalyzes the Pictet-Spengler condensation between dopamine **11** and 4-hydroxyphenylacetaldehyde **12** to yield the central intermediate, norcoclaurine **13**.

Notably, the biosynthetic pathways of several benzylisoquinoline alkaloids—morphine **28**, sanguinarine **19** and berberine **29**—have been fully elucidated at the genetic level, which has enabled sophisticated metabolic engineering approaches. The application of metabolic engineering strategies for BIAs has focused predominantly on improving the yields of specific alkaloid compounds that exhibit medicinal value (Table 1.1).

B. Enzyme Discovery and Engineering in BIA Pathways

Several outstanding efforts in enzyme discovery have been reported for BIA biosynthetic pathways. In a recent effort, Hagel *et al.* characterized two Odemethylases that are involved in morphine biosynthesis, completing the characterization of the morphinan pathway (Figure 2B).³² This work also clearly highlighted how co-expression analysis can be used to discover enzymes with unprecedented catalytic function. These enzymes offer the first examples of nonheme iron(II) oxoglutarate dioxygenases capable of catalyzing O-demethylation. Codeine-O-demethylase (CODM) regioselectively demethylates codeine **26** and thebaine **22** at the 3-position, while thebaine-6-O-demethylase (T6ODM) demethylates thebaine **22** and oripavine **24** at the 6-position. Swapping amino acid regions between the two demethylases resulted in a CODM mutant that

selectively demethylates codeine (Figure 2B) (Chapter 4).³³ This mutant—which effectively sidesteps oripavine **24** production by committing thebaine **22** to just one of two possible routes—could potentially impact titers of codeine **26** and morphine **28** in subsequent metabolic engineering efforts. Collectively, these studies highlight how characterizing individual pathways steps and understanding their specificity and selectivity can both inform and enable metabolic engineering efforts.

While transcript analysis has proven to be spectacularly successful in elucidating the demethylases of morphine **28** biosynthesis, Winzer *et al.* provide a rare example of gene clustering in a BIA pathway.³⁴ The authors describe a 10-gene cluster in the poppy genome that putatively encodes the entire biosynthetic pathway of the BIA noscapine **15**. This is the first gene cluster discovered for an alkaloid pathway, and it is the largest plant gene cluster discovered to date. The authors further successfully silenced six of the ten proposed genes using VIGS to validate their role in noscapine **15** biosynthesis.³⁴ This study indicates that genomic data, in addition to expression data, can be used to decipher alkaloid pathways in plants.

C. Engineering in Native Hosts

In one of the earliest attempts to engineer BIA-producing plants, RNA interference (RNAi) was used to silence the expression of codeinone reductase





in the opium poppy.³⁵ COR, the penultimate enzyme of morphine biosynthesis, converts codeinone **25** to codeine **26** (Figure 2b). While one might anticipate that the silencing of COR would lead to elevated levels of codeinone **25**, the study found instead that COR-silenced plants accumulated reticuline **14**—an intermediate seven steps upstream of codeinone **25**—at the expense of morphine **28**, codeine **26**, oripavine **24** and thebaine **22**. A feedback mechanism was proposed as an explanation for the elevated levels of reticuline **14**, though testing this hypothesis has yielded conflicting results.³⁵

Other early attempts to improve the yields of BIA alkaloids include the overexpression of berberine bridge enzyme (BBE) in *Eschscholzia californica* root cultures. This effort resulted in elevated levels of downstream alkaloids and decreased levels of amino acids, though notably levels of tyrosine **10**—the amino acid employed in BIA synthesis—were unaltered.³⁶ Conversely, the antisense suppression of BBE expression led to the effective silencing of BIA production and increased cellular amino acid levels, though, again, tyrosine **10** levels went largely unchanged (less than two-fold higher than in control lines).³⁷ Nonetheless, these two studies highlight how perturbations in alkaloid metabolism can impact primary metabolism.^{36,37} More recent studies suggest, however, that the RNAi suppression of BBE in *E. californica* leads to increased accumulations of (*S*)-reticuline **14** instead of various canonical amino acids.³⁸ These contradictory results are surprisingly common in the metabolic engineering of alkaloids in plants and cell cultures and provide us with the impetus to understand these

pathways in greater detail, paying specific attention to their biochemical and molecular regulatory elements.

D. Reconstituting BIA Biosynthesis into Microbial Systems

Many pathways in BIA biosynthesis are fully characterized, which opens the possibility of transplanting entire alkaloid pathways into microbial hosts. Though relatively difficult, the reconstitution of entire metabolic pathways into microbial hosts confers a number of advantages, including rapid biomass accumulation, facile purification and access to the host of tools available for workhorse organisms like E. coli and S. cerevisiae. A number of recent reports have successfully reconstituted portions of BIA pathways into S. cerevisiae, E. coli and combinations thereof in co-culture systems.³⁹⁻⁴¹ For example, Hawkins et al. were able to produce reticuline 14 as well as sanginarine/berberine-type and morphinan-type BIAs in yeast by over-expressing genes from mixed plant sources and human.⁴⁰ Notably, they were also able to tune enzyme expression levels through use of a glucocorticoid-inducible promoter and in situ promoter titration.³⁵ This level of tuning enables maximal pathway flux and minimal enzyme expression. The expression system is nominally taxed under these conditions, since valuable cellular resources are not used on the biosynthesis of supernumerary proteins and nucleic acids.

IV. The Glucosinolates

A. Introduction

The glucosinolates are not classified as alkaloids, although, along with the alkaloids, these compounds are amino acid-derived, nitrogen-containing small molecules of plant origin. The glucosinolates are included in this chapter because the recent and creative metabolic engineering studies performed on this class of compounds will undoubtedly inform the forward engineering of all plant natural products, particularly the alkaloids, which also contain nitrogen. Glucosinolates are sulfur- and nitrogen-containing compounds that are derived from glucose and various amino acids (Figure 3A).⁴² They are found in cruciferous vegetables (the Brassicaceae plant family) and have been shown to possess a range of bioactivities.⁴² The glucosinolates occupy an essential space in the chemical ecology of their host organisms by attracting specialist crucifer pollinators and insects and deterring predatory herbivores.43 Specifically, crucifers employ myrosinases (hydrolases) to cleave the glucose moiety of glucosinolates in response to predation and herbivory (Figure 3B).44 The myrosinases and glucosinolates are physically segregated within the plant, coming into contact only upon disruption of the plant tissue (Figure 3B).44 Upon hydrolysis, the resultant unstable aglycone intermediate spontaneously rearranges into the corresponding isothiocyanate via a Lossen-type rearrangement.⁴⁴ The three known types of specifier proteins, Thiocyanate-Forming Proteins (TFPs), Nitrile-Forming Proteins (NFPs) and Epithiospecifier Proteins (ESPs)-which can be

found in planta or in various specialist insects—can redirect glucosinolate hydrolysis from isothiocynate products toward thiocyanate, simple nitrile and epithionitrile products, respectively (Figure 3B).⁴⁴ Notably, many specifiers can direct glucosinolate hydrolysis to more than one product.⁴⁴ Early workers on this plant defense and pollination system dubbed it 'The Mustard Oil Bomb'.⁴³ To date, over 120 glucosinolates have been identified.⁴⁵

B. Improving Yields in Non-Native Hosts

The reconstitution of entire metabolic pathways into heterologous plant hosts requires the use of efficient and facile 'gene stacking' methodologies. A spectacularly successful example is the engineering of benzylglucosinolate biosynthesis into *Nicotiana benthamiana*. Benzylglucosinolate was reconstituted in *N. benthamiana* using a transient expression system. In this study, Geu-Flores *et al.* identified a γ -glutamyl peptidase bottleneck, suggesting that reduced sulfur is incorporated into glucosinolates via glutathione conjugation (Figure 3A).⁴² The co-expression of this peptidase augmented the yield of benzylglucosinolate 5.7-fold, indicating how consideration of primary metabolite resources can impact natural product yield.⁴²

In a separate metabolite analysis, Møldrup et al. monitored the accumulation of desulfobenzylglucosinolate, the penultimate product in the benzylglucosinolate pathway.⁴⁶ Directing sulfur from primary to secondary metabolism through the co-expression of adenosine 5-phosphosulfate kinase—which provides the 3'-phosphoadenosine-5'-phosphosulfate (PAPS) co-



Figure 1.3: (A) The glucosinolate (GLS) pathway. GSH, glutathione. (B) Glucosinolate hydrolysis to form epithionitrile, nitrile, thiocyanate and isothiocyanate.
-substrate necessary for the final step of benzylglucosinolate biosynthesis (Figure 3A)—in the *N. benthamiana* expression system alleviated the subsequent bottleneck and increased the benzylglucosinolate yield by 16-fold.⁴⁶

In yeast, Mikkelsen *et al.* were able to reconstitute the biosynthesis of indolylglucosinolate.⁴⁵ This example was a proof-of-concept study for a technology that enables the stacking of large numbers of genes, a requirement for total pathway reconstitution. Notably, the benzylglucosinolate biosynthetic pathway has also been stably transformed into *Nicotiana tabacum*, another non-cruciferous plant, which does not normally produce glucosinolates.⁴⁷ This reengineered plant has been shown to attract the diamondback moth (*Plutella xylostella*) and encourage oviposition (the deposition of eggs), highlighting its potential utility as a dead-end trap crop to deter predatory insects and prevent billion-dollar damages to cruciferous crops worldwide.⁴⁷

Forward engineering in non-native hosts is particularly attractive if the product distribution converges to one or a few products. This obviates the need for taxing and costly separation procedures and can allow for rapid biomass accumulation. Moreover, forward engineering can increase product gains, as the engineering takes place in a nearly or completely chemically silent background. In contrast, over-expressing or silencing single genes in the context of normal plant primary and secondary metabolism typically does not significantly alter the product profile.

V. Scope of Thesis

This thesis—Understanding and Manipulating Alkaloid Biosynthesis commences with an effort to identify 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase activity in Madagascar periwinkle (Chapter 2). 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase is an enzyme involved in the biosynthesis of secologanin, the terpenoid precursor for all MIAs. A high proportion of genes in the *C. roseus* transciptomic datasets are predicted to facilitate oxidation or reduction steps, making the discovery of the physiologically relevant enzymes(s) involved in this transformation difficult.

Despite having an incomplete understanding of MIA biosynthesis, the pathway has still been amenable to various engineering strategies, most notably incorporation of halogens. Chapter 3 discusses our efforts to engineer halogenation into periwinkle by redesigning RebH, a tryptophan halogenase, to preferentially chlorinate tryptamine, a direct MIA precursor. We subsequently incorporated this reengineered halogenase into alkaloid biosynthesis and observed the de novo biosynthesis of a halogenated 'unnatural' natural product.

The final research chapter (Chapter 4) explores mixing-and-matching closely related protein sequences in benzylisoquinoline alkaloid biosynthesis to generate an enzyme with novel activity. Specifically, we systematically swapped residues from *Ps*T6ODM—a dioxygenase that demethylates the 6 position of oripavine and thebaine—into *Ps*CODM, a dioxygenase that demethylates the 3

Class	Engineering Strategy	System	Observations	0.4
MIAs	Overexpression of TDC	C. roseus crown gall	Did not significantly alter alkaloid yield	Ker.
MLAs	Overexpression of transcription factor CrWRKY1	C. roseus hairy root cultures	3-fold increase in sementine	50
			10-foid increase in aimalicine	50
			2-fold decrease in catheranthine	
MIAS	Overexpression of transcription factor CrWRKY1	C. rosevs hairy root cultures	300-fold increase in trustochan	100
a the second at			10-fold increase in transmise	31
- Decker Hill			1.8-fold in lochparting	STORE!
MIAs	Overexpression of alpha or alpha and beta subunits of anthranilate synthase		2.3-fold increase in borhammericine	12
	and feeding of 10-deoxy-D-xylulose, loganin and secologanin		1.5-fold increase in cathenamine	52
			1.3-fold increase in catharanthine	
			1.8-fold increase in almalicing	
			2.1-foul increase in locharidine	1
			4 S-fold increase in tabersoning	
MIAs	Methyl Jasmonate elicitation	C roseus hairy root tissue cultures	1.3 fold increase in obtained as	the second
in the second states of the	Fed loganin and/or tryptamine		9.9 fold increases in survey and the	53
				HIRES
			Substrate feeding did not increase vield in alluted outpress	
MIAs	Feeding with unnatural tryptamine precursors	C. roseus tissue cultures	observed up/ gram fract weight a constitute of many modified Mide	-
MLAS	Mutasynthesis	Fed tryptamine isomers to TDCI-silenced pedwinkle bair	observed by grann resh weight quantities of many modified MAS	54
			Achieved "alkalisid fast weight quantities or many modified MLAS	26
MIAs	Substrate feeding to roots harboring STS with expanded substrate specificity	C. roseus hairy root cultures	observed up/gram frash wainth quantities of previously metabolically in accessible medified and sta	20
MIAs	Systematic knockdown of vindoline pathway enzymes through VIGS	C. rosevs seedings	Observed accurate and discussion of previously metabolically maccessible modified products	20
MIAs	Overexpression of RebH/RebF and PyrH/RebF in planta	C. roseus hairy root cultures	observed the de novo production of 12-chierce 19 20-chierce protocol (25-un) areas fract weight (20
			Observed accumulation of 7-chlorotruptorban (50 up/a frank walabit)	29
MIAS	Overexpression of RebF and reengineered RebH in planta	C. reseas hairy root cultures	Alleviated TDC bottlaneck (on accumulation of 7-biogrammetry)	
			observed the de novo production of 12-rised on 19 20 dispetential amongsing (2.2 unit areas feast available)	30
in the second			over-expression of TDC and to slow-proving barry mate	1000
BIAs	heterologous expression system for production of S-reticuline and downstream ali	aloids Artificial pathway in yeast	Produced S-reticuling in yields up to 150 mo/L	40
			Demonstrated production of (5)-tetrahydroberberine (<<5 mg/L)	40
			Demonstrated production of (S)-scoulerine	1 1
D.T.A.			Demonstrated production of (S) tetrahydrocolumbarmine (60 mg/L)	
DIAS	neterlogous expression system for production of S-reticuline	Artificial pathway in E, coll	Produced (S)-reticuline in yields up to 40 mg/L	41
DIAS	Suprression of codeinone reductase expression	RNAi in Opium poppy	Accumulation of (S)-reticuline (7 metabolic steps upstream)	35
DIAS	Overexpression of BBE in E. caldonica	E. californica root cultures	5.8-fold increase of total downstream alkaloids	36
1.50 mm 1.3			3.2-fold decrease in leacine concentration	1000
and the second second			2.4-fold decrease in threenine concentration	ALC: N
and the state of t			2.1-fold decrease in value concentration	1000
DIAz	Conservation of State		Tyrosine levels unaltered	A COLOR
DIAS	Suppression or BBE expression	E. californica root cultures	Elevated levels of (5)-reticuline to 310 ug/g cell fresh weight	38
D14-			(5)-reticuline levels at 6 mg/20 mL in the media	
BIAS	systematic knockdown of morphinan pathway enzymes through VIGS	Oplum poppy seedlings	Suppression of SalSyn, SalR, T60DM, C0DM resulted in concomitant increase of direct precursors	55
			Suppression of SalAT resulted in the accumulation of salutiridine (not direct precursor)	
C1			Suppression of COR resultined in increases of (S)- reticuline (not direct precursor)	100
Glucosinolates	Benzyiglucosinolate pathway reconstitution	Transient expression in N. benthamiana	Produced benzylglucosinolate in yields up to 0.57 nmol/ mg freshweight leaf tissue	42
Changingland		Coexpression of gamma-glutamyl peptidase	coexpression of peptidase raised yield 5.7-fold	
Glucosinolates	Benzyigiucosinolate pathway reconstitution	Transient expression in N. benthamiana	Production of benzylglucosinolate in yields up to 1.8 nmol/ mg freshweight	46
Characinalater		coexpression of adenosine 5-phosphosulfate kinase	expression of kinase elevated yield by 16-fold	
Giucosinoiates	Indolyiglucosinolate pathway reconstitution	yeast	Reach indolylglucosinolate titers as high as 1.07 mg/ ml	47
Characteolater	Beneri della sulla la		product excreted into the media	1
Giocosinoiates	Denzyigiocosinolate patriway reconstitution	Stable expression in N. tabacum	Benzylglucosinolate titers as high as 0.5 nmol/mg fresh weight	48
Condensity Restant Office			Increase supportition on near-constitutions abasis	CONTRACT.

Table 1.1 Engineering strategies across the three classes of compounds and their outcomes.

position of thebaines and codeine. The resulting enzyme was a *Ps*CODM mutant that was specific for codeine. This switch in selectivity does not readily correlate with the substrate specificity of the parent enzymes. This chapter highlights the difficulty of rationally redesigning enzymes. Nonetheless, because the mutant is specific for codeine, it could presumably be used in reconstitution efforts to disable a redundant route in morphine biosynthesis.

The thesis closes with major conclusions of the work discussed within this text followed by the grand challenges and future work of the field (Chapter 5). From folk magic to clinics, plant-derived natural products have an exciting and storied past and hopefully a rich and expansive future.

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Weerawat Runguphan and I collaboratively wrote this article.

Chapter 2

Discovery of 10-hydroxygeraniol Oxidoreductase Activity in C. roseus

I. Introduction

The iridoids constitute a sizable class of natural products and boast an equally impressive repertoire of biological activities (Figure 2.1).^{1,2} Despite their utility as both pharmaceuticals and pest repellents, many steps of iridoid biosynthesis are unknown.^{1,2} The enzymatic reactions within this pathway have both captivated and challenged scientists for decades. Ultimately, understanding this pathway could potentially decrypt novel enzymatic function. Moreover, understanding iridoid biosynthesis will aid in the production of these valuable fine chemicals in tractable heterologous hosts.



Figure 2.1: Structures of three representative plant iridoids. Glc, glucose.

Iridoids are composed of a bicyclic 10-carbon skeleton that is derived from the condensation of dimethylallyl pyrophosphate (DMAPP) **4** and isopentyl pyrophosphate (IPP) **5**.² Subsequently, geraniol synthase dephosphorylates this 10-carbon unit—geranyl pyrophosphate **6**—to form geraniol **7**.³ In the first committed step of iridoid terpene biosynthesis, geraniol 10-hydroxylase (G10H)—a cytochrome P450—hydroxylates geraniol **7** at position 10, forming 10-hydroxygeraniol **8**.⁴

The pathway from 10-hydroxygeraniol 8 to secologanin 15, the direct precursor to monoterpene indole alkaloid formation, contains approximately eight steps, at least three of which are unknown (Figure 2.2).² Namely, the enzyme(s) that facilitates oxidation of the di-alcohol 10-hydroxygeraniol 8 to the di-aldehyde 10-oxogeranial 9 is unknown.² However, alcohol dehydrogenases are known to catalyze the oxidation of alcohols and are therefore strongly implicated in this transformation. Likewise, the enzyme(s) that facilitates conversion of nepetalactol 10 to 7-deoxyloganic acid aglycone 12 is unknown.² Notably, this conversion may require as many as three unique enzymes. The first predicted step in this conversion-a hydroxylation reaction-is likely cytochrome P450-dependent. The oxidation of the resultant alcohol **11** to the carboxylic acid **12** may employ the same cytochrome P450 or require separate dehydrogenases. Namely, a dehydrogenase may convert the alcohol 11 to an aldehyde, then the aldehyde to the carboxylic acid. Alternatively, a dedicated alcohol dehydrogenase may convert the alcohol 11 to an aldehyde, and a disparate aldehyde dehydrogenase may convert the resulting aldehyde to the carboxylic acid 12. Finally, the enzyme responsible for the glucosylation of the 7-deoxyloganin aglycone 13 is unknown, though a glucosyl transferase is strongly implicated in this transformation.² Importantly, it is perfectly feasible to imagine that the glucosyl transferase could also act on nepetalactol 10 or any intermediate prior to acid formation. Intriguingly, the glucosylation of nepetalactol 10 directly-prior to P450 oxidation—would prove strongly redolent of flavonoid biosynthesis.⁵ While some

substrate specificity studies have been performed with crude plant lysates, the order of these reactions has not yet been established definitively.⁶



Figure 2.2: The proposed biosynthesis of iridoid secologanin **16**. From 10 hydroxygeraniol **8** to secologanin **16**, a direct monoterpene indole alkaloid precursor, at least three enzymatic steps are unknown. Glc, glucose; OPP, pyrophosphate.

As outlined above, chemical logic allows us to sensibly hypothesize the enzyme class responsible for each unknown pathway step. Further, advances in sequencing technologies and statistical methods equip us to identify and assess the biological function of candidate genes of interest. This chapter focuses on the discovery and characterization of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase, the enzyme that catalyzes the conversion of 10-hydroxygeraniol **8** to 10-oxogeranial **9**. This enzyme acts on the substrate positioned at the seat of iridoid biosynthesis and produces the substrate for iridoid synthase, a reductive cyclase that assembles the bicyclic iridoid scaffold.

Previous attempts to identify the 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase were confined to protein isolation from iridoid-containing plants.^{7,8} Specifically, Hallahan *et al.* demonstrated that oxidoreductase activity found in *Nepeta racemosa* (catmint) leaf extracts converted 10-hydroxygeraniol **8** to 10-oxogeranial **9** in an NADP⁺-dependent fashion (NAD⁺ is not accepted). The enzyme of interest—a heterodimer comprised of one 40 kDa subunit and one 42 kDa subunit—was purified 1150-fold, though not to apparent homogeneity. Consequently, no protein sequence is reported.⁷

In a separate study, Ikeda *et al.* purified to apparent homogeneity a 44kDa oxidoreductase from *Rauwolfia serpentina* cell cultures that converted 10hydroxygeraniol **8** to 10-oxogeranial **9**.⁸ This enzyme was shown to be NADP⁺dependent (while NAD⁺ is not accepted) and, based on atomic absorption spectroscopy, to bind zinc ions. Moreover, in contrast to previously characterized alcohol dehydrogenases from higher plants, this enzyme appears to function as a monomer based on gel filtration chromatography and SDS PAGE analysis. Strikingly, the first 21 residues of alcohol dehydrogenases isolated from maize, pea and *Arabidopsis* exhibit high sequence homology, with 13 of the N-terminal residues conserved.⁸ However, the N-terminus of the purified protein from *R*.

serpentina—NH₂-NQQXXTKVTKMVYKLVLVNTY—did not display significant homology to previously characterized alcohol dehydrogenases or to proteins registered in the Protein Data Bank. To the best of our knowledge, the 10hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase gene from *R. serpentina* has not been cloned, and the full sequence has not been reported.

While previous studies relied upon protein isolation-an arduous, but state-of-the-art technique when sequence data is unavailable-we trawled recently acquired C. roseus transcriptomic datasets in this study to 'fish out' genes of interest.⁹ Specifically, we selected genes of interest by employing the 'quilt-by-association' principle, whereby uncharacterized, but functionally annotated genes are baited with genes of known function-in this case, genes known to be involved in *C. roseus* iridoid biosynthesis.^{1,10} Genes functionally predicted to catalyze alcohol dehydrogenation that also cluster with known iridoid biosynthetic genes in hierarchical clustering algorithms are assigned as prime candidates. These candidates 10-hvdroxvgeraniol oxidoreductase are subsequently assessed for length completeness, cloned from the complementary DNA (cDNA) of C. roseus, expressed heterologously, then assayed for the desired activity. Importantly, the N-terminus of the oxidoreductase isolated from *R. serpentina* displays no significant sequence homology to any transcripts in the C. roseus assemblies or to genes registered within the Plant Genomic Database.

Efficiently mining large datasets for genes of interest is currently a major challenge in the field of plant enzyme discovery.¹¹ In the most recent *C. roseus* transcriptomic assembly, approximately 1.2% (about 400) of the gene transcripts

(0.6% heme-dependent and 0.6% non-heme-dependent) are functionally predicted to facilitate redox reactions!—a figure that undergirds terrestrial plants' expansive oxidoreductive landscape. Notably, however, the 'guilt-by-association' principle has been successfully employed previously with *C. roseus* transcriptomic data sets to bait the genes of missing pathway steps, including the reductive cyclase responsible for iridoid scaffold assembly.^{1,10} This chapter describes our efforts to excavate *C. roseus* transcriptomic datasets to unearth the alcohol dehydrogenase(s) responsible for the oxidation of 10-hydroxygeraniol **8** to 10-oxogeranial **9**, a missing step in iridoid biosynthesis.

II. Results and Discussion

The oxidation of the di-alcohol 10-hydroxygeraniol **8** to the di-aldehyde 10oxogeranial **9** strongly invokes catalysis via an alcohol dehydrogenase. Therefore, in a principle known as 'guilt-by-association,' we mined *C. roseus* transcriptome assemblies for alcohol dehydrogenases with similar expression patterns to known genes in iridoid biosynthesis.

The most recent *C. roseus* transcriptome assembly contains approximately 33,000 transcripts.⁹ To facilitate the mining process, we employed various transcript filtering conditions. For example, Dr. Fernando Geu-Flores filtered the data set based on gene expression in leaves and methyl jasmonate elicitation. Genes either not expressed or only poorly expressed [fragments per kilobase of exon per million (FPKM) values < 2] in leaves can be discarded, as iridoid biosynthesis is known to occur in leaves. We postulate that 10-

hydroxgeraniol oxidoreductase expression is high in leaves. Similarly, methyl jasmonate is known to upregulate iridoid biosynthesis.¹² Therefore, genes nonelicited by methyl jasmonate may also be discarded. Approximately 4,500 transcripts remain after these constraints are enforced.

Additionally, in three separate filters, I retained only the 5000 most highly expressed genes in *C. roseus* immature leaves, mature leaves and hairy roots, respectively. Because iridoid-containing molecules are isolated from each of these three tissues, we conjecture that iriodoid biosynthetic genes should be highly expressed in these tissues as well. Transcripts with FPKM values less than zero in each of these tissue samples were discarded.

We then employed hierarchical clustering analyses on each of the four filtered assemblies to correlate gene expression levels across the 17 different tissue samples. Transcripts were imported into Multiple Experiment Viewer 4_7, then clustered using the hierarchical clustering algorithm based on Pearson Correlation as the distance metric and average linkage clustering as the linkage selection method. A representative cluster (cluster based on both high leaf expression and methyl jasmonate elicitation) is shown below (Figure 2.3).

In addition to hierarchical clustering, we also treated the data with another type of analysis called mutual ranking analysis. Using a preliminary transcriptome dataset *(C. roseus* transcriptome assembly 1), Geu-Flores *et al.* generated a mutual ranking list based on gene expression likeness to geraniol 10-hydroxylase, the enzyme directly upstream of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase.¹ Specifically, Geu-Flores *et al.* calculated the Pearson

Correlation Coefficients (PCCs) for each contig that passed the methyl jasmonate elicitation and high leaf expression filters. Genes were ranked in descending order according to their PCCs for geraniol 10-hydroxylase. This list is the forward ranking list. To obtain the reverse ranking list, Geu-Flores *et al.* computed the PCCs for the 200 best-correlated contigs in the forward list against each other. The mutual rank (Table 2.1) is the square root of the forward and reverse product:

Equation 2.1: Mutual Rank = [(forward rank)(reverse rank)]^{1/2}



Figure 2.3: Representative cluster from hierarchical clustering analysis (high leaf expression and methyl jasmonate elicitation filter). Red represents high expression; green signifies low expression. The cluster is highlighted in purple. Yellow highlighted transcripts are known iridoid biosynthetic genes. Candidates 5743 and 580 are found in this cluster.

ID	Mut Rank	PCC	Rev Rank	Fwd Rank	MRV	Annotation	Comments
2665_iso=1	1	0.989099123	2	1	1.414	p450	Cytochrome P450
9933_iso=1	2	0.974834433	3	2	2.449		
34690_iso=1	3	0.972471793	3	3	3		
9710_iso=1	4	0.965799646	4	4	4	p450	Cytochrome P450
13334_iso=1	5	0.964354354	5	5	5	GcpE	4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-en-1-yl diphosphate synthase, bacterial-type
729_iso=1	6	0.957657585	4	10	6.325		Iridoid Synthase
42065_iso=1	7	0.962529328	7	6	6.481		
17224_iso=1	8	0.9620476	6	7	6.481	DXP_redisom_	1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductoisomerase, C-terminal
5089_iso=1	9	0.955826582	5	11	7.416	ADH_zinc_N	Candidate 5743
15157_iso=2	10	0.959631421	7	8	7.483	MTHFR	Methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase
37738_iso=3	11	0.953962234	5	12	7.746		
12882_iso=1	12	0.9340208	3	20	7.746	UDPGT	UDP-glucuronosyl/UDP-glucosyltransferase
17468_iso=1	13	0.958511244	8	9	8.485	zf-Dof	Zinc finger, Dof-type
18942_iso=1	14	0.947575109	8	13	10.2	polyprenyl_sy	Polyprenyl synthetase
36044_iso=1	15	0.942874239	9	15	11.62	DUF581	Protein of unknown function DUF581
39905_iso=1	16	0.945957994	13	14	13.49		
2437_iso=1	17	0.933503619	9	21	13.75	YgbB	2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 2,4-cyclodiphosphate synthase, core
3272_iso=1	18	0.929045736	8	26	14.42	GcpE	4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-en-1-yl diphosphate synthase, bacterial-type
7526_iso=1	19	0.916690108	6	37	14.9		
3938_iso=1	20	0.94046914	15	17	15.97	GHMP_kinases	GHMP kinase, C-terminal
1136_iso=1	21	0.921921584	9	33	17.23	Aldedh	Aldehyde dehydrogenase
43316_iso=1	22	0.936586676	19	18	18.49		
9680_iso=2	23	0.887353468	4	98	19.8	HLH	Helix-loop-helix DNA-binding domain
8952_iso=1	24	0.907762934	7	57	19.97		
31515_iso=1	25	0.941437245	32	16	22.63	LRRNT_2	Leucine-rich repeat-containing N-terminal domain, type 2

Table 2.1 The top 25 contigs from a mutual rank with Geraniol 10-hydroxylase. Candidate 5743 ranks 9th and is shown in red. ID, transcript number in *C. roseus* transcriptome dataset 1; Mut Rank, Mutual Rank; PCC, Pearson Correlation Coefficient; Rev, Reverse; Fwd, Forward; MRV, Mutual Ranking Value.

After selecting alcohol dehydrogenases from each of these analyses, we then assessed each candidate for length by comparing the longest open reading frame across all *C. roseus* assembly data with the top-ranking BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool) hit. Partial length genes were discarded. Next, we assessed each gene for its predicted sub-cellular localization by submitting sequences to the TargetP 1.1 server.¹³ Genes strongly (i.e. confidence level 1) predicted to localize to the chloroplast, mitochondria or endoplasmic reticulum (ER) were discarded, as all early iridoid biosynthetic steps are cytosolic, including the characterized steps directly before (i.e. G10H) and after (i.e. iridoid synthase) 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase. Notably, the P450-dependent enzyme G10H is anchored to the ER membrane, but catalysis occurs within the cytoplasm.

Eight candidates were retained after all constraints were enforced; the filter(s) and hierarchical cluster(s) in which the candidates appear are shown in Table 2.2. Table 2.2 also displays the mutual rank order, if the candidate appeared on the mutual ranking list. Candidate 5743 had a mutual rank of 9, making it the highest-ranking candidate on the mutual ranking list.

Candidate	MeJa+Leaf	Immat. Leaf	Hairy Root	Root	Mutual Rank	Cytosol
1786	х		Х	Х	Not Found	Х
26	х		Х	Х	103	Х
4319	х	Х			Not Found	
5743	х	Х	Х	Х	9	
7220			Х		Not Found	Х
8694					165	
2041	х				91	
580	х	Х	Х	х	Not Found	Х

Table 2.2: Candidate filter summary. 'X' signifies that the candidate passed the filter restraints and was identified in the corresponding cluster. Geraniol 10-hydroxylase mutual rank is provided if the candidate is found on the list. MeJa, methyl jasmonate; Immat., immature.

Notably, four of the final eight candidates are predicted with varying confidence levels to localize to the ER, according to TargetP 1.1 (Table 2.3). The candidates were retained, however, because the signal peptide predictor SignalP 4.1 server failed to identify any regions likely to function as signal peptides for any of these candidates.¹⁴ Moreover, none of the candidates are strongly predicted to localize to the ER. Significantly, Candidate 5743 is one of the candidates predicted, albeit with low confidence (i.e. confidence level 5), to enter the secretory pathway and localize to the ER. We postulate that the high cysteine content (15 cysteine residues in the 378-residue primary structure) likely relegates this candidate to the ER in the prediction algorithm. Notably, however, Ikeda et al. indirectly implicated sulfhydryl groups in 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase catalysis by incubating the oxidase from R. serpentina with a thiol-reactive Michael acceptor (i.e. N-ethyl maleimide) and observing significant activity attenuation.⁸ Therefore, Candidate 5743—which co-expresses well with known iridoid biosynthetic genes, according to both hierarchical clustering analyses and mutual ranking-was retained in the screen even though the prediction algorithms suggested it was unlikely to localize to the cytosol.

Candidate	Chloroplast	Mitochondria	ER	Other	Confidence
1786	0.193	0.130	0.122	0.519	4
26	0.180	0.165	0.035	0.406	4
4319	0.102	0.023	0.850	0.042	2
5743	0.589	0.028	0.607	0.063	5
7220	0.197	0.261	0.024	0.557	4
8694	0.140	0.038	0.321	0.645	4
2041	0.268	0.078	0.278	0.092	5
580	0.009	0.326	0.159	0.606	4

Table 2.3: TargetP1.1 localization prediction. Strongest predictions are highlighted in yellow. High confidence = 1; low confidence = 5. Confidence values reflect the difference between the two highest predictions.

Faced with cloning multiple genes, we employed USER cloning, a ligationfree, cassette-based expression method.¹⁵ Each gene, except for Candidate 580, which could not be cloned from *C. roseus* cDNA, was successfully cloned into the USER cassette (gene and protein sequences are provided in Appendix A). All candidate expression trials were run in RosettaTM 2 *E. coli*, a host strain optimized for rapid and robust eukaryotic protein expression. Proteins were expressed and purified with an N-terminal histidine tag (His₆). Five of the seven cloned candidates—candidates 1786, 26, 4319, 5743 and 7220—expressed well

	Theoretical	Predicted	
Candidate	Mass (kDa)	pI	Expression?
1786	40.7	5.27	yes
26	32.5	5.22	yes
4319	40.0	7.63	yes
5743	40.4	6.27	yes
7220	33.4	5.71	yes
8694	42.9	5.76	no/poor
2041	42.9	6.57	no/poor

Table 2.4: Summary of data from candidate expression in Rosetta 2 cells. Five of the 7 cloned candidates expressed robustly. Theoretical masses listed are the predicted average masses using the ExPASy server.



(Table 2.4; Figure 2.4) and were subsequently assayed for 10-oxogeranial **9** formation from 10-hydroxygeraniol **8**.

Figure 2.4: SDS PAGE gels of candidate expression and purification. A. Expression of Candidates 1786, 26 and 4319. Each of these candidates expressed well. B. Expression of Candidate 5743. C. The expression trials of Candidates 7220 and 8694. Candidate 7220 expressed well under the conditions highlighted in the method section, whereas Candidate 8604 did not. D. Expression trial of Candidate 2041. Candidate 2041 did not express well under the conditions of the screen (methods section). Red boxes highlight the fractions that were pooled, concentrated and buffer exchanged into 20 mM MOPS (pH 7.0) for subsequent assay.

Each of the five well-expressed candidates was screened for 10oxogeranial **9** formation by both thin layer chromatography (TLC) and gas chromatography – mass spectrometry (GC-MS). Positive hits—candidates that produced 10-oxogeranial **9**—were further assessed with a battery of controls to test for zinc and cofactor (NAD⁺ or NADP⁺) dependence (Appendix A). Namely, we conducted the following control experiments on positive hits: (1) no enzyme controls, where enzyme was omitted from the assay; (2) no NAD⁺ or NADP⁺ controls, where these cofactors were omitted from the assay; (3) no zinc controls, where no ZnCl₂ was added to the assay mixture; and (4) chelator controls, where 1 mM EDTA (ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid) was added to the assay and ZnCl₂ was omitted. The summary of those experiments is shown below in Table 2.5; the TLC controls and all GC-MS data are supplied in Appendix A.

Candidate Screen	Т	LC	GC-MS		
Candidate	NAD+	NADP+	NAD+	NADP+	
1786	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
1786 No Zinc	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
1786 EDTA + No Zinc	Yes	No	Yes	No	
26	No	No	No	Yes	
26 No Zinc	N/A	N/A	N/A	Yes	
26 EDTA + No Zinc	N/A	N/A	N/A	Yes	
4319	No	No	No	No	
5743	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
5743 No Zinc	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
5743 EDTA + No Zinc	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
7220	No	No	No	No	
No NAD(P)+ Controls	No	No	No	No	
No Enzyme Controls	No	No	No	No	

Table 2.5: Summary of the candidate screen with TLC and GC-MS. 'Yes' indicates that 10-oxogeranial **9** formation was observed. 'No' indicates that 10-oxogeranial **9** formation was not observed. 'N/A' indicates that the candidate was not screened under said conditions (No controls with Candidate 26 were conducted on TLC because product formation was not observed via TLC.) Experiments for each candidate are grouped.

The TLC screen identified two candidates—Candidates 1786 and 5743 that can utilize either NAD⁺ or NADP⁺ to form 10-oxogeranial **9**, based on comigration with an authentic standard (Figure 2.5). To confirm 10-oxogeranial **9**

formation via TLC, we also performed a coupled assay with a representative positive hit (Candidate 5743 with NAD⁺) and iridoid synthase, the enzyme directly downstream of 10-hydroxygeranial oxidoreductase. In aqueous media. nepetalactol **10**—the iridoid synthase product—forms a range of hydrates, which most standard TLC stains fail to detect readily. Therefore, we monitored 10oxogeranial disappearance rather than nepetalactol 10 formation. The spot that co-elutes with 10-oxogeranial 9 was metabolized in the coupled assay, whereas the same spot was retained in the control experiment with only Candidate 5743 and NAD⁺, confirming 10-oxogeranial 9 formation (Figure 2.6).



A. Candidates with NAD⁺



Figure 2.5: TLC screens of candidates with (A) NAD⁺ and (B) NADP⁺. Candidates 1786 and 5743 accept both NAD+ and NADP+ to form 10-oxogeranial, the authentic standard of which is on the right of both sets of TLCs. TLC plates are stained with anisaldehyde.



Hexanes: EtOAc (7:3)

Figure 2.6: Coupled assay with Candidate 5743 (NAD⁺) and iridoid synthase. In the presence of iridoid synthase and NADPH (right), the spot that co-migrates with 10-oxogeranial **9** (middle) disappears. The 10-oxogeranial standard is shown on the left. The iridoid synthase product, nepetalactol **10**, forms a range of hydrates in aqueous media, which are not readily detected by anisaldehyde.

For both Candidate 1786 and Candidate 5743, product formation occurs only in the presence of the enzyme and NAD⁺ or NADP⁺. Product formation was still observed when zinc was omitted from the assay, suggesting that either Zn^{2+} is unnecessary for catalysis, or more likely that the enzyme co-purifies with metal bound during expression in LB media supplemented with 100 μ M ZnCl₂. PredZinc, a zinc binding predction server with 75% accuracy for known zinc-binding proteins, predicts zinc-binding sites at positions C43, H64, C94, C97 and C100 for Candidate 1786 and positions C51, H72, C102, C105 and C108 for Candidate 5743.¹⁷

Intriguingly, the addition of EDTA to the assay mixture in conjunction with the omission of $ZnCl_2$ only quelled product formation with Candidate 1786 when NADP⁺ was employed, suggesting Zn^{2+} binds more weakly with this co-factor. The addition of chelator EDTA did not disrupt product formation for Candidate 1786 with NAD⁺ or for Candidate 5743 with either NAD⁺ or NADP⁺.

We also confirmed 10-oxogeranial **9** formation with GC-MS, specifically by co-elution with an authentic standard and spectral similarity to the standard's fragmentation pattern. Representative traces of positive hits are shown in Figure 2.7; all other traces are provided in Appendix A.

The GC-MS results were in good agreement with the TLC results, except GC-MS—a more sensitive technique than TLC—identified an additional positive hit. Specifically, GC-MS identified that Candidate 26 exclusively employs NADP⁺ to form 10-oxogeranial (NAD⁺ is not accepted). Candidate 26 also forms product when zinc is omitted from the assay and when the EDTA is added to the assay and zinc is omitted. Again, these results suggest that either the candidate does not require Zn²⁺ for catalysis or more likely that the enzyme co-purifies with metal bound during protein expression LB media supplemented with 100 µM ZnCl₂. PredZinc predicted no zinc-binding residues for Candidate 26.¹⁶ Intriguingly, however, Candidate 26 is the only candidate that accepts NADP⁺ exclusively, which is in agreement with previously reported 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase activities purified from other plants.^{7,8}



Figure 2.7: Gas Chromatography – Mass Spectroscopy (GC-MS) chromatograms and spectra of a representative positive hit (Candidate 5743 with NADP⁺ - Blue). Candidate 5743 with NADP⁺, shown in blue, co-elutes with an authentic standard of 10-oxogeranial (Black). The GC spectra of both the authentic standard of 10-oxogeranial (black) and Candidate 5743 with NADP⁺ (blue) are shown in insets A and B. Magnified spectra are provided in Appendix A. The fragmented ions are identical in the assay and the authentic standard, which confirms 10-oxogeranial **9** formation in the assay. Notably, 10-oxogeranial **9** is not formed in the control lacking NAD(P)⁺ (shown in red). The enzymatic substrate, 10-hydroxygeraniol **8** is shown in green.

Having confirmed product formation via GC-MS, we have successfully identified three candidates (Candidates 1786, 26 and 5743) that may prove useful in reconstituting iridoid biosynthesis, most notably secologanin biosynthesis, for biotechnological purposes. Importantly, preliminary experiments suggest that candidate 5743 functions well in efforts to reconstitute nepetalactol (Sherden and O'Connor, unpublished). However, we also aim to understand the physiological relevance of these candidates. A silencing effect—whereby the candidate gene is knocked down and a distinct metabolic phenotype emerges—would physiologically validate or revoke candidates in this screen, proving or disproving their relevancy to iridoid biosynthesis in *C roseus*.

Assuming no functional redundancy, silencing the 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase could result in the accumulation of substrate, 10-hydroxygeraniol **8**, and a decrease in downstream iridoids and iridoid-derived alkaloids. It is important to note, however, that the plant could potentially derivatize 10-hydroxygeraniol **8** to prevent its accumulation. In this case, we would not observe an accumulation of 10-hydroxygeraniol **8**, but would still expect a decrease in downstream iridoid or monoterpene indole alkaloid production. We can use Virus-Induced Gene Silencing (VIGS) to test this hypothesis. VIGS utilizes the tobacco rattle virus platform, a bipartite vector system that hijacks the plant's own defense system to degrade the cognate mRNA of interest and thereby potentially induce a transient gene silencing effect.¹⁷ Importantly, VIGS has been shown to be effective in *C. roseus* for a number of genes involved in monoterpene indole alkaloid biosynthesis.¹⁷

Here, 478-base pair regions in both candidates 1786 and 5743 were targeted for knockdown (candidate 26 was not prepared in time for the first round of VIGS experiments and will be assessed at a later date). The region to be silenced is cloned and inserted into vector pTRV2 (tobacco rattle virus). To facilitate the cloning, inserts were flanked with adapters compatible with the pTRV2 USER cassette described in Geu-Flores *et al.*¹ The metabolic profiles of these silenced lines remain to be measured. Additionally, quantitative PCR must also confirm that the gene candidates are in fact silenced. These experiments are ongoing.

In addition to understanding the physiological relevance of these candidates, we also wish to understand why the enzyme—which produces a presumably toxic dialdehyde intermediate capable of cross-linking proteins— evolved in the first place. The answer is as yet unknown. Speculation leads us to ask if the 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase and iridoid synthase rapidly co-evolved and if a protein-protein interaction is required to shuttle the dialdehyde product into nepetalactol **10** formation in order to prevent cell damage by the highly reactive aldehyde.

III. Future Work

We have successfully mined *C. roseus* transcriptomic datasets for an enzyme that catalyzes a missing step in iridoid biosynthesis. Specifically, using hierarchical clustering algorithms and the mutual ranking list of G10H—the enzyme directly upstream of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase—we identified

three enzymes with 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase activity. While we believe these candidates could prove to be promising for a number of biotechnology applications, most notably the reconstitution of secologanin biosynthesis, a number of experiments remain to be completed in the full characterization of these candidates. First, a number of peaks in addition to the substrate and



Figure 2.8: The two possible routes from 10-hydroxygeraniol **8** to 10oxogeranial **9**. The possible intermediate 10-hydroxygeranial **18** is known to isomerize at the 2,3-double in aqueous solution. Similarly, the enzymatic product 10-oxogeranial **9** is known to isomerize at the 2,3-double bond in aqueous solution. The isomers of the potential intermediate at the product could account for four peaks on a representative GC-MS chromatogram (Candidate 1786 with NAD⁺).

product are found on GC-MS chromatograms; these must be properly characterized. Co-injecting authentic standards of the intermediates will aid in peak identification. Dr. Nathaniel Sherden is synthesizing and characterizing both possible enzymatic intermediates, 10-oxogeraniol **17** and 10-hydroxygeranial **18** (Figure 2.8). The intermediate 10-hydroxygeranial **18** is



igure 2.9: Representative trace (Candidate 1786 with NAD+) illustrating multiple peaks in addition to the substrate not highlighted, 10-hydroxygeraniol **8**) and product (orange, 10-oxogeranial **9**) peak. Peak 1 (blue) and Peak 4 orange, 10-oxogeranial) have similar GC spectra, suggesting they could be isomers of each other. Likewise, Peak 2 red) and Peak 5 (green) have similar GC spectra, which suggests they could be isomers of each other. Both 10-xogeranial **9** and potential intermediate 10-hydroxygeranial **17** are known to isomerize in aqueous solution.

known to isomerize at the 2,3-double bond in aqueous solution and could account for two peaks observed in the Candidate 1786 with NAD chromatogram, for example (Figure 2.9).¹⁸ Peaks 2 and 5 have similar fragmentation patterns, suggesting that they are related (red and green insets, respectively) and could be isomers of 10-hydroxygeranial **18**. An authentic standard of 10-hydroxygeranial **18** will confirm this assignment. Similarly, the enzymatic product 10-oxogeranial **9** is also isomerically unstable at the 2,3-double bond, which could potentially explain the presence of Peak 1.¹⁹ Peak 1 (blue inset) has a similar fragmentation pattern to 10-oxogeranial **9** (orange inset, Peak 4, E isomer at the 2,3-double bond), suggesting the peaks are related. These assignments would account for all 5 major peaks in the assay with Candidate 1786 and NAD⁺ (Figure 2.9). Similar assignments must be made for all other positive hits in the screen as well.

After identifying the enzymatic intermediate(s), steady state kinetic parameters will be measured via spectrophotometry of the NADP+ absorbance (increase in absorbance at 340 nm) for 10-hydroxygeraniol **8** and a number of commercially available substrate analogs, including geraniol **7**, nerol **19**, citronellol **20** and linalool **21**. These compounds were selected for their structural similarity to the native substrate, 10-hydroxygeraniol **8**. Notably, linalool **21** cannot undergo dehydrogenation because the alcohol is tertiary. However, it is possible that linalool **21** may function as a competitive alcohol dehydrogenase inhibitor by binding, but not being converted to product.

Understanding the substrate scope of these enzymes will inform future biotechnological applications. To understand the physiological relevance of these

candidates, however, the metabolic and gene expression profiles of the VIGS experiments must be thoroughly analyzed. These experiments are underway.



Figure 2.10: Substrate analogs to test with 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase. Analogs were chosen based on structural similarity to 10-hydroxygernaiol **8**. Linalool **21** possesses only a tertiary alcohol that cannot be oxidized to the corresponding aldehyde. Importantly, **21** may function as an inhibitor.

IV. Conclusions

In this chapter, I have described how we employed 'guilt-by-association' through the use of hierarchical clustering to discover enzymes with 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase activity. 10-hydroxygeraniol reductase is a missing enzyme in *C. roseus* iridoid biosynthesis and as such has never been cloned and characterized. This discovery will aid in biotechnological efforts to reconstitute iridoid biosynthesis in tractable heterologous hosts. Three candidates from our screen—Candidates 1786, 5743 and 26—were able to oxidize both hydroxyl moieties of 10-hydroxygeraniol. Interestingly, Candidates 1786 and 5743 can utilize both NADP⁺ and NAD⁺, whereas candidate 26 uses NADP⁺ exclusively. Interestingly, in both *N. racemosa* and *R. serpentina*—the two plants in the literature with partially characterized 10-hydroxgeraniol oxidoreductases—the enzyme exclusively accepts NADP⁺.^{7,8}

For all three candidates, in assays to test Zn²⁺ dependency, ZnCl₂ was omitted from the reaction. However, product formation was still observed, suggesting that either Zn²⁺ is unnecessary for catalysis or more likely that the enzyme co-purifies with metal bound during expression in LB media supplemented with 100 μM ZnCl₂. Intriguingly, the addition of EDTA to the assay mixture in conjunction with the omission of ZnCl₂ only quelled product formation in the assay with Candidate 1786 and NADP⁺, suggesting Zn²⁺ binds more weakly in these conditions. The zinc-binding prediction server ZincPred predicted zinc-binding sites for both Candidate 1786 and Candidate 5743 (bolded, underlined and in red font in Appendix A; listed in Results and Discussion), but did not identify any zinc-binding residues for Candidate 26.¹⁶ More complete characterizations of these enzymes are underway.

Though the discovery of these enzymes is poised to aid in various biotechnological endeavors, most importantly, the heterologous reconstitution of secologanin, the physiological relevance of the three active enzymes is yet to be determined. We have elected to study the candidates' physiological relevance using VIGS; these experiments are currently underway. Theoretically, three outcomes are plausible: (1) These candidates could be physiologically irrelevant, meaning no silencing effect is observed at the metabolite or transcript levels; (2) one (or more) candidate could be physiologically relevant, but functional redundancy mutes any silencing effect at the metabolite level (candidates could potentially be knocked down combinatorially to address this issue); or (3) one (or

more) could be physiologically relevant, and that relevancy is displayed in both the gene expression profile and metabolic profile.

V. Methods

A. Gene Cloning

The cassette—consisting of GFP flanked on either side by Pacl sites, variable nucleotide regions (which enable directional cloning) and Nt.BbvCl sites—was generated according to Nour-Eldin *et al.* then inserted into the BamHI and HindIII sites of pET28a (Figure 2.11; Page 29).¹⁵ Candidates were cloned from *C. roseus* cDNA with X7 phusion polymerase ® and primer annealing temperatures of 55 °C and flanked with the corresponding USER adapters. Primers to amplify each candidate are listed in Table 6.2. The linearized vector (digested with Pacl and Nt.BbvCl) was incubated with gel purified and USER-digested 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate genes prior to



Figure 2.12: USER cloning PCR-purified inserts and expected base pair counts.

transformation into chemically competent Top 10 ® cells (Figure 2.12). Plasmids were then isolated and sequenced to check for the correct insert sequence prior to transformation into chemically competent Rosetta[™] 2 cells for expression. All candidates were cloned successfully except candidate 580 (Figure 2.12).

Primer Name	Sequence (5'-3')
1786_sense	GGCCTTAAUG CAGATCATAACTTGCAAGGCTGTGG
1786_antisense	GGTTTAAU TCACAATGTGATGAGAACCTTCACGC
26_sense	GGCCTTAAUG GCCGCCATGGGTACC
26_antisense	GGTTTAAU TCATTCAAACGATGACTCCTCGCTG
4319_sense	GGCCTTAAUG GCCAGAAAATCACCAGAAGATGAACAT
4319_antisense	GGTTTAAU TCACACCTCTGATGGAAGAGTGAG
5743_sense	GGCCTTAAUG ACCAAGACCAATTCCCCCTGC
5743_antisense	GGTTTAAU TTAGAACTTGATAACAACTTTGACACAATCAG
7220_sense	GGCCTTAAUG GAGATTAATGTTGAAGTTGCTCCAGTAAG
7220_antisense	GGTTTAAU TCAAAACTCGGATAGTTTTGTCTGATCAAAGT
8694_sense	GGCCTTAAUG ACGTCGTCATCCTCGCCGTC
8694_antisense	GGTTTAAU TTACTCTTGAGAAGCCCCATATCTGC
2041_sense	GGCCTTAAUG GGATACTACCATTATTATATATAGACAACCACTC
2041_antisense	GGTTTAAU TCAACATCTGCAACTATGTTGTGCTTCG
580_sense	GGCCTTAAUG CATCTGCAGCACCCCATCCG
580_antisense	GGTTTAAUTCATTCCTCAAATTTCAATGTATTTCCAATGTCAAT

Table 2.6: Primers used to amplify candidates in this study for expression with pET28a in Rosetta 2 cells. Sense and antisense adaptors for the pET28a USER cassette are shown in red and green, respectively. Black letters represent gene-specific sequences. The underlined portion of the sense primers shows the start codon.


Figure 2.11. Scheme for USER cloning. Adapted from Nour-Eldin.(A) pET28a USER cassette, cloned into the BamHI and HindIII sites . Digestion with PacI and Nt.BbvCl results in directional overhang adaptors. B. 'CANDIDATE' amplified with uracil-containing adaptors that are complementary to the overhangs of the USER cassette (shown in A). Digestion with USER enzyme removes the uracil residues and allows short fragments to dissociate. C. After incubating the linearized cassette and the USER enzyme-digested candidate at 37 °C for 15 minutes and at room temperature for 15 minutes, the plasmid can be directly transformed into *E. coli* without prior ligation.

B. Protein Expression

All candidates were cloned into pET28a and in frame with an N-terminal His_6 tag. Cultures were seeded from a single colony harboring the gene of interest; colonies were grown overnight at 37 °C and shaking at 200 rpm in LB media supplemented with kanamycin and chloriamphenicol. Ten milliliters of the seed culture were added to 500 mL of LB media supplemented with kanamycin and chloramphenicol and shaken at 200 rpm at 37 °C until the optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) reached 0.5-0.7. After reaching the appropriate OD₆₀₀, the cultures were incubated at room temperature for 1 hour. Subsequently, the LB media was supplemented with IPTG to a final concentration of 0.1 mg/mL to induce expression and 100 μ M ZnCl₂ to potentially aid in protein folding. Candidates were expressed at 18 °C for 16 hours.

Cells were then spun down at 8000 rpm for 20 minutes. The cells were then resuspended in chilled PBS buffer [50 mM KH₂PO₄ (pH 8), 300 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole,10 mM dithiothreitol and 10% glyercol] and subjected to sonication (1 second on and 4 seconds off for 1.5 minutes; 60% intensity). The cellular refuse was spun down at 18000 rpm for 1 hour. The supernatant was incubated with 600 μ L of Ni-NTA resin for 2.5 hours at 4 °C. The enzyme was eluted with stepwise fractions of increasing imidazole concentrations (25 mM, 50 mM, 100 mM, 150 mM and 300 mM).

Imidazole fractions were then subjected to SDS PAGE. Fractions shown to contain protein (red boxes, Figure 2.4) at the correct molecular weight were pooled and concentrated to 1 mL using a 10 kDa molecular weight cutoff Amicon

 R centrifugal filter (15 mL). Concentrated samples were then buffered exchanged three times with 20 mM MOPS and immediately stored at -20 °C in single-thaw aliquots.

C. Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC) Assays

Assays for oxidase activity that were monitored by TLC contained the following components: 700 μ M 10-hydroxygeraniol, 9 mM NAD(P)⁺, 100 μ M ZnCl₂, 100 mM phosphate (pH 7.2), 3 μ M enzyme (concentration based on Bradford Assay and the protein's predicted average molecular weight on the ExPASy server).¹⁹ Distilled and deionized water was added to a final volume of 100 μ L in each reaction. The reactions were run at 30 °C for approximately 16 hours. To quench the reactions and extract the product mixtures, 90 μ L of the assay mixture were added to 200 μ L of dichloromethane in a glass vial and mixed thoroughly with a syringe. After the phases settled, approximately 100 μ L of the dichloromethane layer were recovered. Samples were then concentrated to approximately 15 μ L under vacuum. To screen for product formation, approximately 5 μ L of the sample or control were spotted onto thin layer chromatography (TLC) plates and run in hexanes: ethyl acetate (1:1). All plates were stained with anisaldehyde and analyzed for product formation (Appendix A).

D. Gas Chromatrography – Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) Assays

Assays were set up with the following components: 700 μ M 10hydroxygeraniol, 9 mM NAD(P), 100 μ M ZnCl₂, 100 mM Phosphate (pH 7.2), 3

 μ M Enzyme (based on Bradford Assay and the protein's predicted average molecular weight on the ExPASy server).¹⁹ Deionized and distilled water was added to a final volume of 100 μ L in each reaction. The reactions were run at 30 °C for approximately 16 hours. To quench the reactions and extract the product mixtures, 90 μ L of the assay mixture were added to 400 μ L of dichloromethane (in a glass vial) and mixed thoroughly with a glass syringe. After the phases settled, approximately 300 μ L of the dichloromethane layer were recovered. Samples were concentrated to dryness under vacuum then re-suspended with dichloromethane to exactly 50 μ L in glass vial inserts.

GC-MS analyses were carried out using an Agilent 6890N GC system that was connected to an Agilent 5973 MS detector. The separations were performed on a Zebron ZB-5 HT column (30 m X 0.25 mm X 0.10 mm) using helium as the carrier gas at a rate of 1 mL min⁻¹ (linear velocity of 37 cm s⁻¹) and an injector temperature of 220 °C. The program initiated with an isothermal phase at 60 °C for 5 minutes, followed by a 20 °C min⁻¹ gradient up to 150 °C, a 45 °C min⁻¹ gradient up to 280 °C, then a 4-min isothermal phase at 280 °C. The total run time was 16.39 min. GC-MS chromatograms and product spectra are shown in Appendix A.

E. Virus-Induced Gene Silencing (VIGS)

478-base pair regions from Candidates 1786 and 5743 were cloned using the following primer pairs:

Primer	Sequence (5'-3')
1786_VIGS_Sense	GGCGCGAUTCCTCAAGAATGTCTTCCGCCAAAG
1786_VIGS_Antisense	GGTTGCGAUATTCAAGAGCTTCATTAACCAAGTCAGG
5743_VIGS_Sense	GGCGCGAUTGCTCCTTCTGTCATCACTTGCAAAG
5743_VIGS_Antisense	GGTTGCGAUTGGATCTACCTTCACTGCATAAGCTG

Table 2.7: Primers used to amplify 478-base pair regions of open reading frames from Candidates 1786 and 5743. Red and green show the sense and antisense adapters for the pTRV2 cassette. Black represents gene specific sequences.

pTRV2 vectors harboring the inserts of interest were subjected to sequencing prior to being transformed into electrocompetent *Agrobacterium tumefacians* (strain Gv3101). The agrobacterium was prepared and handled according to Liscombe *et al.* Colony PCR (using primers shown in Table 2.6) was performed on overnight cultures to ensure that the agrobacterium retained the plasmid (Figure 2.13).¹⁸

Subsequently, cultures harboring pTRV1 and pTRV2 with the region to be silenced were pelleted and resuspended in inoculation solution (10 mM MES, 20 μ M acetosyringone, 10 mM MgCl₂) to a final OD₆₀₀ of 0.7. pTRV1 and pTRV2 harboring the insert of interest were mixed in a 1:1 ratio (according to OD₆₀₀) and incubated at 30 °C with shaking for 4 hours. Eight-week-old *C. roseus* plants (Little Bright Eyes)—grown in a walk-in growth chamber at 26 °C and a photoperiod of 16 hours light and 8 hours dark—were inoculated via pinching just



Figure 2.13: Colony PCR of Candidates 1786 and 5743 (in duplicate) after *Agrobacterium tumefacians* (Gv3101) harboring the construct containing the 478-base pair insert had been cultured overnight. This experiment was conducted to ensure the *A. tumefacians* retained the construct prior to plant inoculation.

below the apical meristem. Eight plants were inoculated with each construct harboring regions from either Candidate 1786 or Candidate 5743. Silenced magnesium chelatase—which displays a leaf yellowing phenotype resulting from the disruption of photosynthesis—was used as a silencing marker proxy. Additionally, an empty vector was also infiltrated to enable comparison of silencing due to the insert alone. Eight plants were inoculated with each of the magnesium chelatase and empty vector control constructs as well.

VI. Appendix A Contents

Appendix A, affixed to the end of this thesis, contains gene and protein sequences for each of the 7 cloned candidates, TLC controls and all GC-MS spectra.

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VIII. Acknowledgements

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Chapter 3

Reengineering a Tryptophan Halogenase to Preferentially Chlorinate a Direct Alkaloid Precursor

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I. Introduction

Though natural products have been used to treat human disease for thousands of years, they have not evolved specifically to do so. Therefore, before reaching the clinic, these co-opted natural products frequently require structural modification—an exigent enterprise given their often awe-inspiring complexity.¹⁻⁴ Installing halogens regioselectively onto natural products can generate compounds with novel or improved properties. What is more, a significant fraction (roughly 25%) of pharmaceuticals in the clinic contains halogens.^{2,4} Notably, several classes of halogenases have been discovered and characterized, which enables environmentally friendly halogenation; however, applications are limited because of the oftentimes narrow substrate specificity of these enzymes.⁵ Importantly, it has been demonstrated across different classes of natural products that incorporating simple precursor analogs into biosynthetic pathways is an effective strategy to produce complex natural products that are modified in a site-specific manner.⁶⁻⁹ Therefore, we reasoned that enzymatically generating a modified precursor in situ would enable de novo production of complex natural products that are site-specifically modified.

This chapter describes strategies to interface RebH—a halogenase that regioselectively installs chlorine atoms onto the 7 position of tryptophan **1**—with monoterpene indole alkaloid (MIA) metabolism to yield chlorinated alkaloids de novo. MIA biosynthesis commences with the decarboxylation of L-Tryptophan **1** by tryptophan decarboxylase to yield tryptamine **2** (Figure 1A),¹⁰ which condenses with secologanin **3** via a Pictet-Spengler-type reaction mechanism







to form strictosidine 4, which is the central intermediate in the biosynthesis of over 3000 MIAs, including 19,20-dihydroakuammicine 5, a strychnos-type MIA with opiate activity (Figure 1A). Previously, Runguphan et al. integrated RebH and its partner flavin reductase RebF into the metabolism of C. roseus (Madagascar periwinkle), a plant that produces a subset of approximately 130 MIAs (Figure 1B).^{13,14} RebH and RebF generate 7-chlorotryptophan, which endogenous tryptophan decarboxylase decarboxylates to form 7chlorotryptamine 2b. 7-chlorotryptamine 2b-a modified direct MIA precursor-is then incorporated into MIA metabolism, generating a chlorinated MIA, namely 12chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine 5b. However, in addition to accumulating 12chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine 5b, a halogenated "unnatural" natural product,

the resulting tissue cultures also accumulated substantial levels of 7chlorotryptophan **1b** (Figure 1B).¹⁴ Tryptophan decarboxylase, the enzyme that converts L-Tryptophan **1** to tryptamine **2**, accepts 7-chlorotryptophan **1b** at only 3% of the efficiency of the native substrate L-Tryptophan **1**, thereby creating a metabolic bottleneck .¹⁴

This bottleneck is undesirable because 7-chlorotryptophan **1b** could be shuttled into the production of the more valuable halogenated alkaloid final product 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5b**. Moreover, L-Tryptophan **1** is an essential metabolite that is involved in many central metabolic processes, including protein biosynthesis and, in the case of plants, auxin (growth hormone) biosynthesis. The accumulation of a halogenated primary metabolite seemingly has adverse effects on the growth rate of the tissues, perhaps because it is incorporated into protein or auxin biosynthesis. In contrast, chlorinated tryptamine analogs can be fed to seedlings and hairy roots at concentrations up to 1 mM without adverse effects.⁸

We hypothesized that this bottleneck could be alleviated in two ways: (1) over-express the endogenous periwinkle tryptophan decarboxylase to increase the conversion of 7-chlorotryptophan **1b** to 7-chlorotryptamine **2b** (Figure 3.2A); and (2) reengineer the halogenation machinery, namely RebH, to preferentially chlorinate a substrate downstream of the decarboxylase bottleneck (Figure 3.2B). Here we demonstrate that while over-expressing tryptophan decarboxylase failed to fracture the metabolic bottleneck (Figure 3.2A), reengineering RebH to install chlorine preferentially onto tryptamine **2**

successfully circumvented the bottleneck altogether (Figure 3.2B). To validate the function of this engineered enzyme in vivo, we transformed the tryptaminespecific RebH mutant (Y455W) into the alkaloid-producing plant Madagascar





periwinkle. Despite having an incomplete understanding of MIA biosynthesis at the genetic level, we observed the *de novo* production of the halogenated alkaloid 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5b**. In comparison with cultures harboring wild-type RebH and RebF, tissue cultures containing mutant RebH Y455W and RebF also accumulate microgram per gram fresh-weight quantities of 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5b** but, in contrast, do not accumulate 7chlorotryptophan **1b**, demonstrating the selectivity and potential utility of this mutant in metabolic engineering applications.

II. Results and Discussion

We initially hypothesized that the over-expression of tryptophan decarboxylase in periwinkle would increase the conversion of 7-chlorotryptophan **1b** to 7-chlorotryptamine **2b** and thereby alleviate the bottleneck (Figure 3.2A). However, all efforts at the constitutive over-expression of tryptophan decarboxylase, RebH and RebF in periwinkle resulted in plant tissue that failed to survive selection (Figure 3.3A). Additionally, tissues transformed with only tryptophan decarboxylase also failed to survive selection and could not be



Figure 3.3: A. Madagascar periwinkle hairy roots over-expressing RebH, RebF and TDC on Gamborg's B5 media after 21 days. B. Periwinkle hairy roots on Gamborgs B5 media after 21 days over-expressing TDC only. Both sets of roots failed to survive selection. Roots only over-expressing TDC could not be rescued by being placed on media supplemented with tryptophan.

rescued through transfer to growth medium supplemented with 500 µM L-Tryptophan **1** (Figure 3.3B). The apparent lethality of tryptophan decarboxylase over-expression suggests, perhaps unsurprisingly, that disrupting the flux of L-Tryptophan **1** is detrimental to plant survival. The alternative strategy—bypassing the tryptophan decarboxylase bottleneck—hinges upon our ability to reengineer substrate specificity. Two strategies are plausible, namely reengineering tryptophan decarboxylase to selectively decarboxylate 7-chlorotryptophan **1b** or reengineering RebH to selectively chlorinate a downstream intermediate. Because the structure of tryptophan decarboxylase is unknown and the structure of RebH is known¹⁵ we elected to focus our efforts solely on the halogenase. Enzyme engineering efforts are substantially enhanced when the protein structure is known and the mechanism is well understood. Then, the enzyme can be subjected to structure-guided techniques, such as domain swapping and site-directed mutagenesis, which create smaller protein libraries that are enriched for functional mutants. RebH, a structurally characterized enzyme whose mechanism is well understood, is a prime candidate with which to undertake various enzyme engineering efforts for these reasons.

With various enzyme engineering strategies in hand, we can begin to envision ways to engineer halogenases to accept non-native substrates for various metabolic engineering and biocatalysis efforts. Specifically, we envisioned reengineering the halogenase to preferentially chlorinate tryptamine **2**, a downstream biosynthetic intermediate that is the direct precursor to MIA biosynthesis and removed from primary metabolism (Figure 3.2B). We targeted tryptamine, specifically, because chlorinated tryptamine analogs have been shown to be non-toxic in feeding experiments with seedlings and hairy roots, even when concentrations were as high as 1 mM.

To reengineer RebH for tryptamine **2** selectivity, we examined the crystal structure of RebH complexed with L-Tryptophan **1** (PDB entry 2E4G) and proposed 17 mutations to the active site, specifically targeting residues proximal to the carboxylate moiety of the native substrate L-Tryptophan **1** (Figure 3.3).¹⁵ We employed LC-MS to monitor mutant activity for both Tryptophan **1** and tryptamine **2**. Gratifyingly, one RebH mutant, RebH Y455W, preferentially



Figure 3.4: Tryptophan **1** complexed with RebH (2E4G). Tryptophan **1** is highlighted in yellow sticks. The residues proximal to the carboxylate moiety of **1** that were targeted for reengineering the substrate selectivity of RebH are shown in green space filling models.

	Substrate at 20 µM	
Mutant	L-Trp Tr	ptamine
WT	✓ (80%)	✓ (<10%)
152F	×	X
152Y	×	×
P53F	×	X
P53G	×	×
P53W	×	X
F111L	×	X
F111W	×	X
F111Y	×	x
L113F	×	X
L113G	✓ (20%)	✓ (20%)
L113W	×	X
L114F	×	X
L114G	×	×
L114W	×	X
Y455F	×	×
Y455L	×	×
Y455W	√ (<10%)	1 (40%)

Table 3.1: Summary of RebH WT and mutant assays. Only RebH L113G and RebH Y455W retained activity for either substrate. Only RebH Y445W is selective for tryptamine **2.** Percent substrate conversions are shown in parentheses.

accepts tryptamine **2** as opposed to the natural substrate L-tryptophan **1** (Figure 3.5). Only one other mutant, RebH L113G, retained activity for either tryptophan **1** or tryptamine **2** (Table 3.1). Since RebH L113G converted both L-Tryptophan **1** and tryptamine **2** to the respective chlorinated products, we subjected this mutant to competition assays as described in Methods. RebH L113G does not have the desired selectivity, converting approximately 20% of both L-Tryptophan **1** and tryptamine **2** to product after an incubation period of 16 hours in the competition assay (Figure 3.6; Table 3.1). In contrast, RebH Y455W converts approximately 40% of tryptamine **2** to product, but less than 5% of L-Tryptophan **1** to product (Figure 3.5B; Table 3.1).

Slow conversion to product *in vitro* prevented accurate measurement of the steady-state enzyme kinetics parameters for WT RebH, RebH Y455W and RebH L113G. Thus, to rigorously assess the substrate selectivity of RebH Y455W—the mutant that preferentially chlorinates tryptamine **2** instead of tryptophan **1**—we utilized competition assays where either WT RebH or the Y455W mutant was incubated with different ratios of L-Tryptohan **1** and tryptamine **2**. In total, we tested three different L-Tryptophan **1**: tryptamine **2** ratios (500 μ M:500 μ M, 1000 μ M:500 μ M, and 500 μ M:1000 μ M). WT RebH chlorinated both L-Tryptophan **1** and tryptamine **2** under these assay conditions (Figure 3.7). However, we observed an approximately 30-fold higher accumulation of 7-chlorotryptamine **2b** than 7-chlorotryptophan **1b** in RebH Y455W assays across all three substrate ratios (Figure 3.7). Relative to WT RebH in these competition assays, the production of 7-chlorotryptophan **1b** was



Figure 3.5: A. Extracted Ion Chromatograms for RebH WT competition assay with tryptophan and tryptamine, each at 20 µM concentration. The top two chromatograms display 7-chlorotryptophan and 7-chlorotryptamine authentic standards. The third chromatogram displays the conversion of tryptophan, where 80% of the substrate L-tryptophan is converted to product after 16 hours. The bottom pane displays RebH WT tryptamine conversion in the competition assay, with less than 5% of tryptamine converted to product after 16 hours. B. Extracted Ion Chromatograms for RebH Y455W competition assay with tryptophan and tryptamine, each at 20 µM concentration. The top two chromatograms display 7-chlorotryptophan and 7-chlorotryptamine authentic standards. The third chromatogram displays the RebH Y455W tryptophan conversion, where less than 5% of the substrate L-tryptophan is converted to product after 16 hours. The bottom pane displays RebH Y455W tryptamine conversion, with approximately 40% of tryptamine converted to product after 16 hours. These results illustrate that the substrate specificity of RebH has been altered successfully.



Figure 3.6: A. RebH L113G competition assays with tryptophan and tryptamine (tryptophan conversion). At concentrations of 20 μ M for both substrates, RebH L113 converts approximately 20% of tryptophan to product after an incubation period of 16 hours (bottom pane). Top and middle panes, respectively, display 7-chlorotryptophan and L-tryptophan authentic standards. B. RebH L113G competition assays with tryptophan and tryptamine (tryptamine conversion). At concentrations of 20 μ M for both substrates, RebH L113 converts approximately 20% of tryptamine to product after an incubation period of 16 hours (bottom pane). The top and middle panes, respectively, display 7-chlorotryptamine and tryptamine authentic standards.



Figure 3.7: RebH WT (wild type) and RebH Y455W competition assays with tryptophan and **1** tryptamine **2**. Both RebH WT (left) and RebH Y455W (right) were incubated with three different ratios of tryptophan-to-tryptamine. RebH Y455W has a 30-fold higher accumulation of 7-chlorotryptamine (60 μ M) over 7-chlorotryptophan (2 μ M), indicating that this mutant is highly selective for **2**.

diminished 10-fold while the production of 7-chlorotryptamine **2b** was augmented approximately 3-fold with RebH Y455W (Figure 3.7).

Mutational analyses in PyMol suggest that RebH Y455W partially occludes L-tryptophan **1** from the redesigned active site while not impeding access for tryptamine **2** (Figure 3.8). This mutational analysis is congruent with the observation that the RebH Y455W mutant shows a clear preference for tryptamine **2** as a substrate, even when L-Tryptophan **1** is present at initial concentrations twice as high as tryptamine **2** (Figure 3.7). These results demonstrate that we successfully altered the substrate specificity of RebH in vitro to make it highly specific for tryptamine **2**, a direct MIA precursor.



Figure 3.8. A. RebH WT model with L-tryptophan from the PDB code: 2E4G. B. Model of RebH WT with tryptamine. Tryptamine was modeled into the RebH active site by removing the carboxylate moiety of the tryptophan substrate of PDB code: 2E4G. C. RebH Y455 model with Ltryptophan. L-Trp buttresses RebH Y455W. The mutant RebH Y455W model was constructed via *in silico* mutational analysis from the PDB code: 2E4G in MacPyMOL. The right panel shows a model of RebH Y455W with tryptamine. Tryptamine was modeled into the RebH Y455W active site by removing the carboxylate moiety of the tryptophan substrate of the RebH Y455W model with L-Tryptophan (left). Models were constructed in MacPyMOL.

Notably, Hölzer and co-workers demonstrated that PrnA, a tryptophan 7halogenase involved in pyrollnitrin biosynthesis (55% sequence identity to RebH) does accept tryptamine analogues.¹⁶ However, PrnA was shown to install chlorine atoms at the more nucleophilic 2-position of various analogues of tryptamine 2, not at the 7-position, suggesting that the non-native substrates bind differently to PrnA (Figure 3.9).¹⁶ To ensure that the regioselectivity of RebH Y455W was unaltered, and also to determine whether WT RebH possesses the same regioselectivity for the non-native substrate tryptamine 2, we compared the tryptamine 2 enzymatic products of WT RebH and RebH Y455W with authentic standards of all possible monochlorinated tryptamine isomers, namely, tryptamine 2 chlorinated at the 2-, 4-, 5-, 6-, or 7-position of the indole ring. Using LC-MS to monitor the retention times of the various chlorotryptamine isomers (m/z 195), we noted that the WT RebH and RebH Y455W tryptamine enzymatic products co-eluted exclusively with the 7-chlorotryptamine authentic standard (Figure 3.10). Thus, WT RebH and RebH Y455W retained regioselectivity for the 7-position of the indole ring with tryptamine 2.

Though the mutant enzyme was sluggish in vitro, we rationalized that a steady supply of fresh enzyme in the plant cell may allow the mutant enzyme to function adequately over extended periods to yield isolable quantities of chlorinated alkaloids. To test this reengineered enzyme in the context of a biosynthetic pathway in vivo, we introduced RebH Y455W and RebF into

periwinkle (*C. roseus*) via *Agrobacterium rhizogenes* to yield stably transformed root cultures. To streamline the engineering process, neither gene was codon



B. <u>Pictet-Spengler Mechanism</u>



tetrahydro-β-carboline

Figure 3.9: A. Chlorotryptamine product key. B. Proposed Pictet-Spengler mechanism of strictosidine synthase. Hölzer and co-workers demonstrated that PrnA, a tryptophan 7 halogenase involved in pyrollnitrin biosynthesis (55% sequence identity to RebH) does accept tryptamine analogues.¹⁶ However, PrnA was shown to install chlorine atoms at the more nucleophilic 2-position of various analogues of tryptamine **2**, not at the 7-position. Chlorination at the 2 position of tryptamine **2** would preclude tetrahydro- β -carboline formation via a Pictet-Spengler-type mechanism, a necessary step in MIA biosynthesis.

optimized for expression in periwinkle. Each gene was placed into a commercially available plant vector (pCAMBIA1305.1) and under the control of the constituitive promoter CaMV 35S.

Precursor-directed biosynthesis studies in periwinkle with 7chlorotrypamine **2b**, as well as the prior studies in which periwinkle was transformed with WT RebH and RebF, indicated that analogues of 19,20-



dihydroakuammicine **5** are the major alkaloid analogue products when the 7position of the indole ring is modified. Notably, when the tryptamine precursor is chlorinated at other positions of the indole ring and integrated into periwinkle metabolism, the resulting chlorinated alkaloid profiles are drastically different, and chlorinated 19,20-dihydroakuammicine 5 is not a major product.⁸ Methanolic extracts of the transformed roots were analyzed with selected ion monitoring for 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5b** (m/z 359) and 7-chlorotryptophan **1b** (m/z 239). We observed several root lines harboring RebH Y455W and RebF that produced 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine 5b (Figure 3.11). RebH Y455W/RebF (line 13), for example, accumulated $2.65\pm1.08 \ \mu g$ per gram fresh weight of the product 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine 5b (averaged across three biological replicates) with no measured accumulation of 7-chlorotryptophan 1b, indicating that RebH Y455W displays the desired substrate selectivity in planta as well as in vitro (Figure 3.12; Tables 3.2 and 3.3). The accumulation of 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5b** (characterized by co-elution with an authentic standard), the major metabolite expected from 7-chlorotryptamine 2b, provides further confirmation that RebH Y455W installs chlorine regioselectively at the 7-position of the indole ring of tryptamine 2. Chlorinated alkaloids aside from 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5b** were not observed in this study, as evidenced by selected ion monitoring. Moreover, chlorination at the 2-position of the indole ring of tryptamine, as was observed in the study with Hölzer and coworkers,¹⁶ would preclude the formation of the tetrahydro- β -carboline via a Pictet-Spengler mechanism, a necessary step in the biosynthesis of the monoterpene indole alkaloids (Figure 3.9).¹

Line 13	12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine	7-chlorotryptophan
m/z	359	239
Subculture	Accumulation (µg / g fresh weight)	Accumulation (µg / g fresh weight)
Subculture 1	1.41	not detected
Subculture 2	3.23	not detected
Subculture 3	3.32	not detected
Average	2.65	not detected
Standard Deviation	1.08	not detected

Table 3.2: Metabolic analysis of RebH Y455W and RebF line 13 across 3 subcultures.

Line 74	12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine	7-chlorotryptophan
m/z	359	239
Subculture	Accumulation (µg / g fresh weight)	Accumulation (µg / g fresh weight)
Subculture 1	2.15	1.25
Subculture 2	2.24	not detected
Subculture 3	1.83	not detected
Average	2.07	0.415
Standard Deviation	0.215	0.722

Table 3.3: Metabolic analysis of RebH Y455W and RebF line 74 across 3 subcultures.



Figure 3.11: RebH Y455W and RebF lines 13 and 74 at 21 days.



Figure 3.12: Metabolic analysis of lines harboring RebH Y455W and RebF. A. Selected ion monitoring for 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5b** (m/z 359) in transgenic root lines. This line accumulates 2.65 ± 1.08 µg per gram fresh weight of **5b** B. The authentic standard of **5b**.¹⁴ C. Selected ion monitoring of 7-chlorotryptophan **1b** (m/z 239), D. Authentic standard of **1b**.¹¹ Lines expressing RebH Y455W and RebF do not display a peak corresponding to 7-chlorotryptophan **1b**, but do produce alkaloid **5b**.

Notably, no 7-chlorotryptamine **2b** accumulated in these transformed hairy root lines, suggesting that 7-chlorotrypamine **2b** is readily shuttled into the alkaloid metabolism of periwinkle. Moreover, the lines harboring RebH Y455W and RebF survived selection and grew more rapidly than lines over-expressing tryptophan decarboxylase, RebH WT, and RebF (Figures 3.3A and 3.11), demonstrating that reengineering the halogenase was the superior method of alleviating the tryptophan decarboxylase bottleneck. However, the yield of unnatural alkaloid 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5b** in this study remained low (approximately 1% of the total alkaloid content),¹⁴ indicating that this system is not yet at a stage where large-scale production of 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5b** is practical.

We also transiently expressed RebH Y455W and RebF in leaf. Gene constructs were separately transformed into *Agrobacterium tumefacians*, then the two Agrobacterium strains were mixed in a 1:1 ratio just prior to transfection. Perwinkle leaves were transfected via either vacuum infiltration or syringe injection. We did not observe the accumulation of either 7-chlorotryptamine 2b or halogenated alkaloids under these conditions, suggesting perhaps that MIA biosynthesis—which is removed from primary metabolism—was not highly active at that stage of growth. Alternatively, build up of halogenated alkaloids may require an extended period of time, which in turn would require a constitutive rather than transient expression system. Free tryptamine 2 levels in periwinkle leaf were not measured in this study, but it is plausible that low levels of free tryptamine 2 prevent the detection of the direct RebH Y455W and RebF product,

7-chlorotryptamine **2b**. Because we did not see formation of 7-chlorotryptamine **2b**, we also screened for the accumulation of downstream alkaloids, specifically 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5b**, which we did not observe either. Notably, 19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5** does not accumulate at detectable levels in periwinkle plant leaf, presumably because the genes involved in 19,20-dihydroakuammicine biosynthesis—which have not been identified as yet—are at best only poorly expressed in leaf.

We hypothesize that as tractable heterologous hosts are developed to produce plant-derived alkaloid pathways in high yields, incorporation of this redesigned biosynthetic enzyme (along with selected downstream biosynthetic enzymes that have also been engineered to favor chlorinated substrates) may play a crucial role in improving the production of chlorinated alkaloids.

III. Conclusions

Installing halogens onto natural products can generate compounds with novel or improved properties.¹⁻⁴ Notably, enzymatic halogenation is now possible as a result of the discovery of several classes of halogenases;⁵ however, applications are limited because of the narrow substrate specificity of these enzymes. Here we demonstrate that the flavin-dependent halogenase RebH can be engineered to install chlorine preferentially onto tryptamine **2** rather than the native substrate L-Tryptophan **1**. Tryptamine **2** is a direct precursor to many alkaloid natural products, including approximately 3000 monoterpene indole alkaloids. To validate the function of this engineered enzyme *in vivo*, we

transformed the tryptamine-specific RebH mutant (Y455W) into the alkaloidproducing plant Madagascar periwinkle (Catharanthus roseus) and observed the the halogenated alkaloid 12-chloro-19,20de novo production of dihydroakuammicine 5b. While wild type RebH has been integrated into periwinkle metabolism previously, the resulting tissue cultures accumulated substantial levels of 7-chlorotryptophan **1b**—a metabolite that potentially disrupts primary metabolism, including auxin (growth hormone) biosynthesis. Tryptophan decarboxylase, the enzyme that converts L-Tryptophan 1 to tryptamine 2, accepts 7-chlorotryptophan 1b at only 3% of the efficiency of the native substrate, thereby creating a bottleneck.¹⁴ The RebH Y455W mutant circumvents this bottleneck by installing chlorine directly onto tryptamine 2, a downstream substrate. In comparison with cultures harboring RebH and RebF, tissue cultures containing mutant RebH Y455W and RebF also accumulate microgram per gram fresh-weight quantities of 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine 5b but, in contrast, do not accumulate 7-chlorotryptophan **1b**, demonstrating the selectivity and potential utility of this mutant in metabolic engineering applications.

Halogen moieties in natural products have been shown to confer potency and modulate molecular bioactivity and pharmacokinetics.^{1,2,4,6,13,17} Additionally, halogens offer unique, site-specific handles that can be utilized in cross-coupling methodology for further derivatization.¹⁸ Notably, halogens appear in 25% of pharmaceutical compounds.^{2,4} We have demonstrated the de novo biosynthesis of a halogenated "unnatural" plant natural product by redesigning a halogenase to preferentially install a chlorine atom onto a direct alkaloid precursor, tryptamine

2, and subsequently integrating this redesigned enzyme into the alkaloid biosynthesis of periwinkle. Interestingly, RebH can brominate the 7-position of L-Tryptophan **1** in the presence of bromide ions.^{14,15} However, bromination does not occur selectively in the presence of chloride sources (such as sodium chloride), which to date has prevented selective formation of brominated products using chlorinase enzymes in whole-cell systems.¹⁴

This mutant allows us to circumvent the metabolic bottleneck positioned at tryptophan decarboxylase. Moreover, this work, along with other recently reported studies¹⁹—for example, Payne *et al.* demonstrated the use of wild-type RebH to halogenate an array of arenes regioselectively²⁰—highlights the potential use of halogenases for more widespread applications. Notably, the work presented in this chapter was conducted without a complete understanding of MIA biosynthesis at the genetic level. One of the efforts to further elucidate MIA biosynthesis is described in Chapter 2. Understanding the pathway completely would potentially enable the efficient shuttling of chlorinated alkaloids into different pathway branches through the reengineering of enzymes that do not accept halogenated substrate analogs.

IV. Methods

A. The in planta Over-Expression of RebH WT, RebF and TDC

To over-express RebH WT, RebF and TDC *in planta*, we used the pCAMBIA vector system. Specifically, the plant transformation vector harboring codon optimized RebH WT and RebF (pCAMBIA1300-RebHRebF) and the plant

305.1 5'-AAAAAA <u>CCATGG</u> ATGGGC	1305.1 5'-AAAAAA <u>CCATGG</u> ATGGGCAGCATTGA-	3'
M1305.1 5'-AAAAAAGGTGACCTCAAG	AM1305.1 5'-AAAAAA GGTGACC TCAAGCTTTTTG-3	. 1

Table 3.4: Primers to clone Tryptophan Decarboxylase into pCAMBIA1305.1. Restriction sites are underlined and bolded.

transformation vector harboring tryptophan decarboxylase (pCAMBIA1305.1-TDC) were transformed separately into A. rhizogenes. pCAMBIA1300-RebHRebF was a gift from Runguphan and Qu.¹⁴ C. roseus Tryptophan decarboxylase (TDC) was amplified from TDC in pGEM (pGEM-TDC was a gift from Runguphan) and flanked with Ncol and Bstell then placed into the vector pCAMBIA1305.1 using the primers listed in Table 3.4. These vectors were used to transform C. roseus according to Methods Section B. C. roseus roots overexpressing Tryptophan Decarboxylase (TDC) along with codon optimized RebH and RebF were grown, selected and propagated according to Methods Section B. To ensure that transgenic TDC was integrated into the genome of C. roseus, primers were designed to amplify from the CaMV 35S promoter of pCAMBIA1305.1 to the middle of TDC to give an amplicon of 500 basepairs. These primers are listed in Table 3.5. The amplicon from genomic DNA is shown in Figure 3.13. Roots expressing RebH, RebF and transgenic TDC are shown in Figure 3.3A. Control lines overexpressing TDC only are shown in Figure 3.3B.

TDC_transgenic_forward	5'-CTCTTGACCATGGATGGGCAGC-3'
TDC_transgenic_reverse	5'-GTGGTGTTTTGGATGACGCCGCC-3'

Table 3.5: Primers for 500-bp TDC amplicon from CaMV 35S promoter to center of TDC gene.



Figure 3.13: Agarose electrophoresis gel (1%) of TDC amplicon from RebH, RebF and TDC-overexpressing line. Lane 1: DNA ladder. Lane 2: TDC amplicon from constitutive eukaryotic CaMV 35S promoter to middle of TDC gene (amplicon 500 base pairs).

B. Stable Transformation Protocol – RebH Y455W and RebF

C. roseus seedlings were germinated aseptically on solid Gamborg's B5 media (full strength basal salts, full strength vitamins, 30 g/L sucrose, 6 g/L agar, pH 5.7) and grown for 4-6 weeks in a 16-hour light 8-hour dark cycle at 26 °C. Liquid cultures of *A. rhizogenes* containing the plasmid of interest were grown in Yeast Extract and Mannitol (YEM) media supplemented with kanamycin at 30 °C for 48 hours just prior to infection. Seedlings were wounded at the stem tip using forceps freshly dipped in the inoculant. Hairy roots formed on the seedlings at approximately 3 weeks on approximately 80% of the punctured seedlings. Hairy roots were grown on the seedlings for an additional 3 weeks then excised and placed on solid Gamborg's B5 media (half strength basal salts, full strength vitamins, 30 g/L sucrose, 6 g/L agar, pH 5.7) containing hygromycin (0.03 mg/mL) for selection and cefotaxime to a final concentration of 0.25 mg/mL to kill

remaining *A. rhizogenes*. Cultures were grown in the dark for 1 month at 26 °C during the selection process. Following the selection process, roots were propagated by transferring actively growing portions of the root after 21 days onto Gamborg's B5 media lacking hygromycin and cefotaxime.

C. RebH Mutant Design and Expression

The construct containing the RebH gene (pET28a-RebH) was expressed in BL21 (DE3) pLysS and purified with Ni-NTA resin as previously described.¹⁴ Single-thaw aliquots were stored at -80 °C for no more than 2 weeks. Primers to introduce 17 mutations (I52F, I52Y, P53F, P53G, P53W, F111L, F111W, F111Y, L113F, L113G, L113W, L114F, L114G, L114W, Y455F, Y455L, Y455W) into the pET28a-RebH construct were designed using the Stratagene (Agilent) online mutagenesis tool site-directed (http://www.genomics.agilent.com/CollectionSubpage.aspx?PageType=Tool&Su bPageType=ToolQCPD&PageID=15). Mutations to the pET28a-RebH construct were made using the QuikChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit according to manual protocol specifications. The sequences of all vector constructs were verified by DNA sequencing. Mutant genes were expressed and purified following the same procedure for RebH wildtype.¹ Primers to introduce mutations are listed in Table 3.6.

Primer Name	Primer Sequence (5'-3')
I52F_SENSE	GGCGAGGCCACGTTCCCCAATCTGC
I52F_ANTISENSE	GCAGATTGGGGAACGTGGCCTCGCC
I52Y_SENSE	GTCGGCGAGGCCACGTATCCCAATCTGCAGACG
I52Y_ANTISENSE	CGTCTGCAGATTGGGATACGTGGCCTCGCCGAC
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P53F_SENSE	GGCGAGGCCACGATCTTCAATCTGCAGACGGC
P53F_ANTISENSE	GCCGTCTGCAGATTGAAGATCGTGGCCTCGCC
P53G_SENSE	GCGAGGCCACGATCGGCAATCTGCAGACGG
P53G_ANTISENSE	CCGTCTGCAGATTGCCGATCGTGGCCTCGC
P53W_SENSE	GGCGAGGCCACGATCTGGAATCTGCAGACGGCG
P53W_ANTISENSE	CGCCGTCTGCAGATTCCAGATCGTGGCCTCGCC
F111L_SENSE	CCACTTCTACCACTCCTTAGGTCTGCTCAAGTACC
F111L_ANTISENSE	GGTACTTGAGCAGACCTAAGGAGTGGTAGAAGTGG
F111W_SENSE	ACCACTTCTACCACTCCTGGGGTCTGCTCAAGTACC
F111W_ANTISENSE	GGTACTTGAGCAGACCCCAGGAGTGGTAGAAGTGGT
F111Y_SENSE	GACCACTTCTACCACTCCTATGGTCTGCTCAAGTACCA
F111Y_ANTISENSE	TGGTACTTGAGCAGACCATAGGAGTGGTAGAAGTGGTC
L113F_SENSE	CTACCACTCCTTCGGTTTCCTCAAGTACCACGAGC
L113F_ANTISENSE	GCTCGTGGTACTTGAGGAAACCGAAGGAGTGGTAG
L113G_SENSE	CTTCTACCACTCCTTCGGTGGGCTCAAGTACCACGAG
L113G_ANTISENSE	CTCGTGGTACTTGAGCCCACCGAAGGAGTGGTAGAAG
L113W_SENSE	CTTCTACCACTCCTTCGGTTGGCTCAAGTACCACGAG
L113W_ANTISENSE	CTCGTGGTACTTGAGCCAACCGAAGGAGTGGTAGAAG
L114F_SENSE	CACTCCTTCGGTCTGTTCAAGTACCACGAGC
L114F_ANTISENSE	GCTCGTGGTACTTGAACAGACCGAAGGAGTG
L114G_SENSE	CCACTCCTTCGGTCTGGGCAAGTACCACGAGCAG
L114G_ANTISENSE	CTGCTCGTGGTACTTGCCCAGACCGAAGGAGTGG
L114W_SENSE	CTACCACTCCTTCGGTCTGTGGAAGTACCACGAGCAGATTC
L114W_ANTISENSE	GAATCTGCTCGTGGTACTTCCACAGACCGAAGGAGTGGTAG
Y455F_SENSE	ACGACGCCCAGCTCTACTTCGGCAACTTC
Y455F_ANTISENSE	GAAGTTGCCGAAGTAGAGCTGGGCGTCGT
Y455L_SENSE	GACGACGCCCAGCTCTACTTAGGCAACTTCGAGG

Y455L_ANTISENSE	CCTCGAAGTTGCCTAAGTAGAGCTGGGCGTCGTC
Y455W_SENSE	ACGACGCCCAGCTCTACTGGGGGCAACTTCGAG
Y455W_ANTISENSE	CTCGAAGTTGCCCCAGTAGAGCTGGGCGTCGT

Table 3.6: Primers to introduce 17 separate RebH mutations.

RebH WT and RebH Y455W expression are shown in Figure 3.13.



A. RebH WT Expression

Figure 3.14: A. RebH WT expression (expected molecular weight 62.3 kDa). B. RebH Y455W expression (expected molecular weight 62.3 kDa).

B. RebH Y455W Expression

D. RebH Activity Assays

RebH or RebH mutant enzyme at a final concentration of 1 μ M (estimated by Bradford assay) was incubated with 50 μ M Flavin Adenine Dinucleotide (FAD), 50 mM NaCl, and substrate (either 20 μ M L-tryptophan, 20 μ M tryptamine or 1250 μ M tryptamine), in 100 mM K₂HPO₄ buffer (pH 7.2) in a final volume of 100 μ L. For ease of screening, dithiothreitol (20 mM) was added to all *in vitro* assays as a reductant for FAD. The assay mixtures were incubated at 30 °C for 12 hours, after which aliquots (25 μ L) were quenched with methanol (975 μ L) and centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 5 minutes to remove any particulates.

Liquid chromatography was performed on an Acquity Ultra Performance BEH C18, 1.7 μ m, 2.1 x 100 mm column. The gradient was 10-90% acetonitrile over 4.1 minutes with water and 0.1% formic acid as the second solvent. The flow rate was 0.6 mL/min. Ionization was performed by ESI with a Micromass LCT Premier TOF Mass Spectrometer in positive ionization V- mode. The formation of 7-chlorotryptophan was monitored by selected ion monitoring at *m/z* 239. The identity of the product was characterized by co-elution with an authentic standard.¹ The formation of 7-chlorotryptamine was monitored by selected ion monitoring at *m/z* 195. The halogenated tryptamine product was characterized by co-elution with an authentic 7-chlorotryptamine standard.¹⁴ The following control experiments were performed for both RebH WT and RebH Y455W: (1) boiled enzyme control, where the enzyme was boiled to deactivate it, (2) no DTT control, where 20 mM DTT was omitted from the assay and (3) no substrate control, where tryamine was omitted from the assay mixture. Product formation

was not observed for RebH WT (Figure 3.15) or RebH Y455W (Figure 3.16) when active enzyme or reductant (20 mM DTT) was removed from the assay.



Figure 3.15: RebH WT tryptamine product co-elutes with an authentic 7chlorotryptamine standard. The RebH tryptamine product is not observed in any of the negative controls (boiled enzyme, no DTT, no tryptamine).



Figure 3.16: RebH Y455W chlorotryptamine product (m/z 195) co-elutes with an authentic 7-chlorotryptamine standard. The RebH Y455W tryptamine product is not observed in any of the negative controls (boiled enzyme, no DTT, no tryptamine).

For more rigorous characterization, we also used authentic standards of each mono-chlorinated tryptamine isomer (2-chlorotryptamine, 4chlorotryptamine, 5-chlorotryptamine, 6-chlorotryptamine and 7chlorotryptamine). Chlorinated tryptamine isomers 4-chlorotryptamine and 6chlorotryptamine were a gift from Elizabeth McCoy.⁸ Weerawat Runguphan provided authentic standards of chlorinated tryptamine isomers 5chlorotryptamine and 7-chlorotryptamine that were previously described.¹⁴ The 2chlorotryptamine isomer was synthesized.²¹ (¹HNMR, 500 MHz, DMSO: 7.51 (1H, d, J = 7.5 Hz), 7.24 (1H, d, J = 7.5 Hz), 7.07 (1H, t, J = 7.5 Hz), 7.02 (1H, t, J= 7.5 Hz) 2.77 (multiplet s, 4H); ¹³CNMR, 125 MHz, DMSO: 134.6, 126.7, 121.7, 121.1, 119.4, 117.8, 110.9, 39.2, 22.9). The RebH WT and RebH Y455W halogenated tryptamine product co-eluted exclusively with 7-chlorotryptamine.

E. RebH Wild Type, RebH Y455W and RebH L113G Competition Assay Screen

Slow conversion to product in vitro prevented accurate measurement of the steady-state enzyme kinetics parameters for wild-type (WT) RebH, RebH Y455W and RebH L113G. RebH, RebH Y455W and RebH L113G were assessed by competition assay with a mixture of L-tryptophan and tryptamine. These assays contained 1 μ M enzyme, 50 μ M FAD, 50 mM NaCl, 20 mM DTT, 20 μ M L-tryptophan and 20 μ M tryptamine, in 100 mM K₂HPO₄ buffer (pH 7.2) in a final volume of 100 μ L. Assays were quenched and analyzed by LC-MS as described above in Methods Section D.

F. RebH WT and RebH Y455W Selectivity at Different Tryptophan-to-Tryptamine Ratios

Further competition assays with different substrate concentrations, as described in the main text, were also performed with RebH WT and RebH Y455W. Enzyme at a final concentration of 2 μ M (estimated by Bradford Assay)

was incubated with 20 mM DTT, 1 mM FAD, 50 mM NaCl, L-tryptophan, tryptamine and 100 mM K₂HPO₄ buffer (pH 7.2) at 30 °C for 16 hours. Ratios of L-tryptophan:tryptamine were 500:500 μ M, 500:1000 μ M and 1000:500 μ M. The final assay volume was 100 μ L. Aliquots (25 μ L) from enzyme assays were quenched with 975 μ L methanol and then subjected to LC-MS analysis as outlined in Methods Section D. Conversion of substrate to product was monitored by simultaneous selected ion monitoring of both substrate and product masses (L-Tryptophan *m*/*z* 205), 7-chlorotryptophan (*m*/*z* 239), tryptamine (*m*/*z* 161) and 7-chlorotryptamine (*m*/*z* 195).

G. The in planta Over-Expression of RebH Y455W and RebF

Approximately 350 C. roseus seedlings were germinated aseptically on solid Gamborg's B5 media as described according to Methods Section B. The transformation vectors pCAMBIA1305.1-RebHY455W and plant pCAMBIA1305.1-RebF were separately transformed into Agrobacterium rhizogenes ATCC 15834 via electroporation according to manual specifications electroporator). Liquid cultures of A. rhizogenes harboring (BioRad pCAMBIA1305.1RebHY455W and Α. rhizogenes harboring pCAMBIA1305.1RebF were mixed just prior to seedling infection.

All hairy root lines surviving hygromycin selection were macerated in methanol (between 10 and 40 mL/g of fresh weight hairy roots) using a mortar and pestle with 106 μ m acid washed glass beads. Crude product mixtures were filtered through a 0.2 μ m cellulose acetate membrane (VWR). Prior to analysis,

samples were centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 5 minutes to remove any particulates. Alkaloid methanolic extracts (60 µL) from hairy root tissues were added to 700 µL HPLC grade methanol and subjected to LC-MS analysis as follows. Liquid chromatography was performed on a single quadrupole Agilent 1100 HPLC-MS. A Phenomenex C18, 2.0 μm, 2 x 50 mm column was employed. The gradient was 10 to 90% acetonitrile over 8 minutes with water and 0.1% formic acid as the second solvent. The solvent composition was returned to 10% acetonitrile by 8.1 minutes, and the column was self-equilibrated at initial run conditions until 12 minutes. The flow rate was 0.4 mL/min. Ionization was performed by an 1100 MSD Mass Spectrometer in positive ionization mode. The following specifications were employed: 4000 V capillary voltage, 350 °C drying gas temperature, 30 psig nebulizer pressure. Single ion monitoring, 50% m/z 239 50% m/z359 for 12-chloro-19,20for 7-chlorotryptophan and dihydroakuammicine, was used. Each run injected 20 μ L.

No halogenated alkaloids (either 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine or 7-chlorotryptophan) were detected in negative control lines [wild type hairy roots, decarboxylase tryptophan (TDCi), hairy roots with knocked down pCAMBIA1305.1 empty vector]. TDCi lines were a gift from Weerawat Runguphan.¹⁴ An authentic standard of 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine was previously reported.¹⁴ Quantities of 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine and 7-chlorotryptophan (averaged across 3 subcultures) from two representative lines harboring both RebHY455W and RebF are shown in Table 3.2 and Table 3.3.

Two lines producing 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **5b** (Lines 13 and 74) were subjected to isolation of genomic DNA following manual specifications (Qiagen DNeasy kit). Both lines contained both RebH Y455W and RebF. A 660 basepair amplicon was amplified in RebH Y455W. The primers for the RebH Y455W amplicon are shown in Table 3.7. Full length RebF (503 basepairs) was amplified. The primers for the full-length RebF amplicon (513 basepairs) are provided in Weerawat *et al.*¹⁴ These lines co-migrated with the corresponding amplicons from pET28aRebHY455W and pET28aRebF. The negative control lines (TDCi) did not contain the amplicon (Figure 3.17). Exposure was set at 040 ms. Contrast was set at 1.00.

RebHY455W_gDNA_forward 5'-GTCTTCGATGCCGACCTCTTC-3' RebHY455W_gDNA_reverse 5'-GTACATGTCGATCTTCTCCTGC-3'

Table 3.7: Primers for RebH Y455W amplicon from genomic DNA (gDNA) extraction.



Amplicon for Y455W is 660 bp

Figure 3.17: Agarose gel (1%) of genomic DNA analysis of RebH Y455W and RebF lines. RebF and RebH Y455W amplicons are shown in root lines and in plasmid (positive control), but not in the TDCi line (negative control).

H. Transient Expression of RebH Y455W and RebF

The plasmids pCAMBIA1305.1-RebHWT, pCAMBIA1305.1-RebHY455W and pCAMBIA1305.1-RebF were each transformed separately into both Agrobacterium tumefacians strain GV 3101 and A. tumefacians LB 4404 for a total of 6 bacterial transformations. Liquid cultures (5 mL) of A. tumefacians containing the plasmid of interest were grown in Yeast Extract and Mannitol (YEM) media supplemented with kanamycin at 30 °C for 48 hours just prior to infection. Since plasmids were transformed into separate A. tumefacians strains, the cultures harboring them were mixed (either pCAMBIA1305.1-RebHWT and pCAMBIA1305.1-RebF or pCAMBIA1305.1-RebHY455W and pCAMBIA1305.1-RebF) just prior to plant transformation. (1) pCAMBIA1305.1-RebHWT and pCAMBIA1305.1-RebHY455W pCAMBIA1305.1-RebF and (2)and pCAMBIA1305.1-RebF were transiently expressed in planta via two different methods (1) syringe injection (without a needle) and (2) vacuum infiltration for each gene combination. Transformations were conducted also by testing both A. tumefacians strains (GV3101 and LB 4404) using each infiltration method (vacuum infiltration or syringe injection). All transiently transformed mature leaves, each day for 3 days after transformation, were macerated in methanol (between 10 and 40 mL/g of fresh weight hairy roots) using a mortar and pestle with 106 µm acid washed glass beads. Crude product mixtures were filtered through a 0.2-µm cellulose acetate membrane (VWR). Alkaloid methanolic extracts (30 μ L) from mature leaves were diluted with 700 μ L HPLC grade

methanol and subjected to LC-MS analysis as outlined in Methods Section D.

Each run used 2 µL of extract. No chlorinated alkaloids were detected in any

transient expressions under these conditions.

V. References

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Chapter 4

Redesign of a Dioxygenase Involved in Morphine Biosynthesis

Part of this chapter is published as a communication in

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I. Introduction

Opium poppy (*Papaver somniferum*) produces an array of medicinally important benzylisoquinoline alkaloids, including the analgesics codeine **10** and morphine **11** (Figure 4.1).^{1,2} The biosynthesis of these alkaloids commences with the Pictet-Spengler condensation of dopamine **1** and **4**-hydroxyphenylacetaldehyde **2** to form (*S*)-norcoclaurine **3**, which is further modified to form (*S*)-reticuline **4**, the pivotal biosynthetic intermediate of all benzylisoquinoline alkaloids. (*S*)-reticuline **4** is subsequently converted to thebaine **5**, the intermediate at the entry point of the morphinan alkaloid pathway.

Two biosynthetic routes have been proposed for the conversion of thebaine **5** to morphine **11**.³ In the first route (route A; see Figure 4.1), thebaine 6-O-demethylase (PsT6ODM) demethylates thebaine **5** at the 6 position to form neopinone **7**, which spontaneously isomerizes to form codeinone **8**. Codeinone **8** is then enzymatically reduced to yield codeine **10**. Codeine O-demethylase (*Ps*CODM) demethylates codeine **10** at the 3 position to yield morphine **11**. Alternatively, in the second route (route B; see Figure 4.1), *Ps*CODM demethylates thebaine **5** at the 3 position to form oripavine **6**. *Ps*T6ODM catalyzes the second demethylation of oripavine **6**—this time at the 6 position—to form morphinone **9**, which is then reduced to form morphine **11**. Morphinan alkaloids thebaine **5**, oripavine **6**, codeine **10**, and morphine **11** all accumulate in opium poppy, suggesting that both routes are operative *in vivo*.^{1,2}

The discovery of O-demethylases *Ps*CODM and *Ps*T6ODM completed the genetic characterization of the morphinan pathway.³ These genes were



Figure 4.1: Biosynthesis of benzylisoquinoline alkaloids in *P. somniferum*. The biosynthetic pathways leading to morphine **11** via morphine **9** and codeine **10**.

discovered through a functional genomics approach by differentially comparing transcripts found in native opium poppy (plants that accumulate morphine) versus poppy mutant varieties that are devoid of morphinan alkaloids.⁴ The differentially expressed genes (i.e. genes expressed in morphinan alkaloidcontaining plants that were not expressed in varieties lacking morphinan alkaloids) could then be assayed for the desired demethylase activity.4,5 α -ketoglutarate-dependent [Fe(II)]and Surprisingly, non-heme iron dioxygenases (PsCODM and PsT60DM), were identified from this study. Notably, PsCODM and PsT60DM are the only members of the non-heme iron- and α ketoglutarate-dependent dioxygenase family capable of catalyzing Odemethylation; all others are P450s.⁴

The morphinan pathway provides a highly attractive reengineering target at the enzyme and pathway levels because all late pathway genes are known. Here we demonstrate how exploiting natural enzyme variation through systematically mixing and matching the non-conserved amino acid regions of these two recently discovered demethylases (*Ps*CODM and *Ps*T6ODM) has led to an enzyme with new specificity: a *Ps*CODM mutant that is highly selective for codeine. The unique selectivity of the reengineered demethylase enzyme may allow us to explore how closing the metabolic valve to route B and redirecting substrate exclusively through route A (Figure 4.1) will impact downstream product yields in this branched natural product pathway.

II. Results and Discussion

A clustal alignment of PsCODM, PsT6ODM, and PsDIOX2 (a P. somniferum 2-oxoglutarate/Fe(II)-dependent dioxygenase for which the native substrate has not yet been identified, but which is known to be able to Odemethylate a number of protoberberine alkaloids)⁴ revealed five specific regions where these dioxygenases differ significantly at the amino acid level: A1 (residues 145-149), A₂ (residues 150-152), B (residues 334-336), C₁ (residues 338- 342), and C₂ (residues 343 - 152) (Figure 4.2). Lacking a crystal structure of a P. somniferum dioxygenase, we built a homology model of PsCODM based on the crystal structure of Arabidopsis thaliana anthocyanidin synthase (AtANS), a structurally characterized 2-oxoglutarate/Fe(II)-dependent dioxygenase with moderate amino acid sequence similarity to PsCODM (32% identity at the amino acid level).⁶ We employed SWISS-MODEL, an automated protein homologymodeling server, to generate the model (Figure 4.3).⁷ Key residues likely to be involved in Fe(II)/2-oxoglutarate binding are highlighted in the (Figure 4.2). The five regions-grouped as follows, A1 and A2 (residues 145-152); B (residues 334-336); and C1 and C2 (residues 338-346)-were then mapped on to this homology model, where they appeared to be located proximal to the anthocyanin binding site (Figure 4.3).

DIOX1 DIOX2	MEKAKLMKLGNGMEIPSVQELAKLTLAEIPSRYVCANENLLLPMGASVINDHETIPVIDI METAKLMKLGNGMSIPSVQELAKLTLAEIPSRYICTVENLQLPVGASVIDDHETVPVIDI	60 60
DIOX3	METPILIKLGNGLSIPSVQELAKLTLAEIPSRYTCTGESPLNNIGASVTDD-ETVPVIDL	59
DIOX1	ENLLSPEPIIGKLELDRLHFACKEWGFFQVVNHGVDASLVDSVKSEIQGFFNLSMDEKTK	120
DIOX2	ENLISSEPVTEKLELDRLHSACKEWGFFQVVNHGVDTSLVDNVKSDIQGFFNLSMNEKIK	120
DIOX3	QNLLSPEPVVGKLELDKLHSACKEWGFFQLVNHGVDALLMDNIKSEIKGFFNLPMNEKTK	119
	Region A	
DIOX1	YEQEDGDVEGFGQGFIESEDQTLDWADIFWMFTLPLHLRKPHLFSKLPVPLRETIESYSS	180
DIOX2	YGQKDGDVEGFGQAFVASEDQTLDWADIFMILTLPLHLRKPHLFSKLPLPLRETIESYSS	180
DIOX3	YGQQDGDFEGFGQPYIESEDQRLDWTEVFSMLSLPLHLRKPHLFPELPLPFRETLESYLS	179
	• • •	
DIOX1	EMKKLSMVLFNKMEKALQVQAAEIKGMSEVFIDGTQAMRMNYYPPCPQPNLAIGLTSHSD	240
DIOX2	EMKKLSMVLFEKMEKALQVQAVEIKEISEVFKDMTQVMRMNYYPPCPQPELAIGLTPHSD	240
DIOX3	KMKKLSTVVFEMLEKSLQLVEIKGMTDLFEDGLQTMRMNYYPPCPRPELVLGLTSHSD	237
DIOX1	FGGLTILLOINEVEGLOIKREGTWISVKPLPNAFVVNVGDILEIMTNGIYHSVDHRAVVN	300
DIOX2	FGGLTILLOLNEVEGLOIKNEGRWISVKPLPNAFVVNVGDVLEIMTNGMYRSVDHRAVVN	300
DIOX3	FSGLTILLOLNEVEGLOIRKEERWISIKPLPDAFIVNVGDILEIMTNGIYRSVEHRAVVN	297
	Region B Region C	
DIOX1	STNERLSIATFHDPSLESVIGPISSLITPETPALFKSGSTYGDLVEECKTRKLDGKSFLD	360
DIOX2	STKERLSIATFHDPNLESEIGPISSLITPNTPALFRSGSTYGELVEEFHSRKLDGKSFLD	360
DIOX3	STKERLSIATFHDSKLESEIGPISSLVTPETPALFKRG-RYEDILKENLSRKLDGKSFLD	356
DIOX1	SMRI- 364	
DIOX2	SMRM- 364	
DIOX3	YMRM- 360	
	**:	

Figure 4.2: Sequence alignment of *Ps*DIOX1 (*Ps*T60DM), *Ps*DIOX2 and *Ps*DIOX3 (*Ps*CODM). • indicates residues that have been proposed to be important in 2-oxoglutarate binding. • indicates residues that have been proposed to be important in coordinating Fe(II).



Figure 4.3: Homology Models of *Ps*T60DM and *Ps*C0DM Based on the Crystal Structure of *At*ANS *Ps*T60DM is indicated in green, and *Ps*C0DM is indicated in pink. The models were created using SWISS-MODEL. Regions A1 and A2 (residues 145–152) are shown in red, B (residues 334–336) is in yellow, and C1 and C2 (residues 338–346) are in blue.

We hypothesized that the residues' proximity to the primary substrate binding site implicated their involvement in dictating regioselectivity, which could be readily reengineered through mutagenesis. Specifically, we envisioned using site-directed mutagenesis to reverse the regioselectivity of *Ps*CODM, which demethylates the 3 position of morphinan alkaloids, and *Ps*T6ODM, which demethylates the 6 position of morphinan alkaloids. Initial protein expression screening revealed that all *Ps*T6ODM mutants are expressed at low levels. Therefore, in this study, we focused our efforts on developing engineered *Ps*CODM enzymes. We systematically replaced the native *Ps*CODM sequence with the corresponding sequence from *Ps*T6ODM at the five nonconserved regions using standard site-directed mutagenesis. In total, we constructed 16 *Ps*CODM mutants (Table 4.1).

	Δ	Δ	B	<u> </u>	C	(wild type PsCODM)
	\mathbf{A}_1	\mathbf{A}_2	Ъ	\mathbf{C}_1	C_2	(whatype i seedin)
1)	A ₁ *	A ₂ *	В	C ₁ *	C ₂ *	
2)	A ₁ *	A ₂	В	C ₁ *	C ₂ *	
3)	A_1^*	A ₂ *	В	C ₁	C ₂ *	
4)	A_1^*	A ₂ *	В	C_1^*	C ₂	
5)	A ₁ *	A ₂ *	В	C ₁	C ₂	
6)	A ₁ *	A ₂	В	C ₁	C ₂ *	
7)	A ₁ *	A ₂	В	C ₁ *	C ₂	
8)	A ₁ *	A ₂	В	C ₁	C ₂	
9)	A ₁	A ₂ *	В	C ₁ *	C ₂ *	
10)	A ₁	A ₂	В	C ₁ *	C ₂ *	
11)	A ₁	A ₂ *	В	C ₁	C ₂ *	
12)	A_1	A ₂ *	В	C_1^*	C ₂	
13)	A ₁	A ₂ *	В	\mathbf{C}_1	C ₂	
14)	A ₁	A ₂	В	Ci	C ₂ *	
15)	A_1	A ₂	В	C ₁ *	C ₂	
16)	A_1	A ₂	B*	\mathbf{C}_1	C ₂	

Tested PsCODM Mutants

Table 4.1: *Ps*CODM mutants that were constructed in this study. * indicates that the residues in that region were mutated to those of *Ps*T6ODM

Plasmid	Template used in SDM	Primers used in SDM		
$pQECODM A_1 * A_2 B C_1 C_2$	pQECODM A ₁ A ₂ B C ₁ C ₂	Forward: 5'-ggaccaaagacttgattgggctgatgtgtttagcatgttaagtc-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-gacttaacatgctaaacacatcagcccaatcaagtctttggtcc-3'		
		Then perform the second round of SDM with the following primers		
		Forward: 5'-ccaaagacttgattgggctgatatatttagcatgttaagtcttcctc-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-gaggaagacttaacatgctaaatatatcagcccaatcaagtctttgg-3'		
pQECODM A ₁ * A ₂ * B C ₁ C ₂	$pQECODM A_1 * A_2 B C_1 C_2$	Forward: 5'-aaagacttgattgggctgatatatttatgatgttaagtcttcctctccatt-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-aatggagaggaagacttaacatcataaatatatcagcccaatcaagtcttt-3'		
		Then perform the second round of SDM with the following primers		
		Forward: 5'-cttgattgggctgatatatttatgatgttcactcttcctctccatttaagga-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-tccttaaatggagaggaagagtgaacatcataaatatatcagcccaatcaag-3'		
$pQECODM A_1 A_2 * B C_1 C_2$	pQECODM A ₁ A ₂ B C ₁ C ₂	Forward: 5'-caaagacttgattggactgaagtgtttatgatgttcactcttcctctccatttaaggaagcc-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-ggcttccttaaatggagaggaagagtgaacatcataaacacttcagtccaatcaagtctttg-3'		
pQECODM $A_1 A_2 B^* C_1 C_2$	pQECODM A ₁ A ₂ B C ₁ C ₂	Forward: 5'-gacacctgctttgttcaaaagtggatctacatatgaggatattttgaagg-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-ccttcaaaatatcctcatatgtagatccacttttgaacaaagcaggtgtc-3'		
pQECODM A ₁ A ₂ B C ₁ * C ₂	pQECODM A ₁ A ₂ B C ₁ C ₂	Forward: 5'-tttgttcaaaagaggtaggtatggggatcttttgaaggaaaatctttcaagg-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-ccttgaaagattttccttcaaaagatccccatacctacct		
		Then perform the second round of SDM with the following primers		
		Forward: 5'-caaaagaggtaggtatggggatcttgtggaggaaaatctttcaagga-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-tccttgaaagattttcctccacaagatccccatacctacc		
pQECODM A ₁ A ₂ B C ₁ * C ₂ *	pQECODM $A_1 A_2 B C_1 * C_2$	Forward: 5'-gtatggggatcttgtggaggaatgtctttcaaggaagcttga-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-tcaagetteettgaaagacatteeteeaaagateeceatae-3'		
		Then perform the second round of SDM with the following primers		
		Forward: 5'-agaggtaggtatggggatcttgtggaggaatgtaagacgaggaagcttgatggaaa-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-tttccatcaagcttcctcgtcttacattcctccacaagatccccatacctacc		
pOECODM A ₁ A ₂ B C ₁ C ₂ *	pOECODM A ₁ A ₂ B C ₁ C ₂	Forward: 5'-gacacctgctttgttcaaaagaggtaggtatgaggatattttgaa		
r 1 2 1 2		ggaatgtaagacgaggaagcttgatggaaaatcatttct-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-agaaatgattttccatcaagcttcctcgtcttacattccttcaa		
		aatatcctcatacctacctcttttgaacaaagcaggtgtc-3'		
pOECODM A ₁ * A ₂ BC ₁ * C ₂ *	pOECODM A ₁ A ₂ B C ₁ * C ₂ *	Forward: 5'-ggaccaaagacttgattgggctgatgtgtttagcatgttaagtc-3'		
$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r} + $		Reverse: 5'-gacttaacatgctaaacacatcagcccaatcaagtctttggtcc-3'		
		Then perform the second round of SDM with the following primers		
		Forward: 5'-ccaaagacttgattggggctgatatatttagcatgttaagtcttcctc-3'		
		Reverse: 5'-gaggaagacttaacatgctaaatatatcagcccaatcaagtctttgg-3'		

Table 4.2: Primers and templates for site-directed mutagenesis.

Plasmid	Template used in SDM	Primers used in SDM
pQECODM A ₁ *A ₂ * BC ₁ *C ₂ *	$pQECODM A_1 * A_2 BC_1 * C_2 *$	Forward: 5'-aaagacttgattgggctgatatatttatgatgttaagtcttcctctccatt-3'
		Reverse: 5'-aatggagaggaagacttaacatcataaatatatcagcccaatcaagtcttt-3'
		Then perform the second round of SDM with the following primers
		Forward: 5'-cttgattgggctgatatatttatgatgttcactcttcctctccatttaagga-3'
		Reverse: 5'-tccttaaatggagaggaagagtgaacatcataaatatatcagcccaatcaag-3'
pQECODM A ₁ A ₂ * B C ₁ * C ₂	$pQECODM A_1 A_2 B C_1 C_2$	Forward: 5'-caaagacttgattggactgaagtgtttatgatgttcactcttcctctccatttaaggaagcc-3'
		Reverse: 5'-ggcttccttaaatggagaggaagagtgaacatcataaacacttcagtccaatcaagtctttg-3'
pQECODM $A_1 * A_2 B C_1 C_2 *$	$pQECODM A_1 * A_2 B C_1 C_2$	Forward: 5'-gacacctgctttgttcaaaagaggtaggtatgaggatattttgaa
		ggaatgtaagacgaggaagcttgatggaaaatcatttct-3'
		Reverse: 5'-agaaatgattttccatcaagcttcctcgtcttacattccttcaa
		aatateeteataeetaeetettttgaacaaageaggtgte-3'
$pQECODM A_1 A_2 * B C_1 C_2 *$	pQECODM A ₁ A ₂ * B C ₁ C ₂	Forward: 5'-gacacctgctttgttcaaaagaggtaggtatgaggatattttgaa
		ggaatgtaagacgaggaagcttgatggaaaatcatttct-3'
		Reverse: 5'-agaaatgattttccatcaagcttcctcgtcttacattccttcaa
		aatateeteataeetettttgaacaaageaggtgte-3'
pQECODM A ₁ * A ₂ * BC ₁ C ₂ *	$pQECODM A_1 * A_2 * B C_1 C_2$	Forward: 5'-gacacctgctttgttcaaaagaggtaggtatgaggatattttgaa
		ggaatgtaagacgaggaagcttgatggaaaatcatttct-3'
		Reverse: 5'-agaaatgattttccatcaagcttcctcgtcttacattccttcaa
		aatateeteataeetaeetettittgaacaaageaggtgte-3'
pOECODM A ₁ A ₂ * B C ₁ *C ₂ *	pQECODM $A_1 A_2 B C_1^* C_2^*$	Forward: 5'-caaagacttgattggactgaagtgtttatgatgttcactcttcctctccatttaaggaagcc-3'
1 2 7 2		Reverse: 5'-ggcttccttaaatggagaggaagagtgaacatcataaacacttcagtccaatcaagtctttg-3'
$pOECODM A_1 * A_2 * BC_1 * C_2$	pOECODM $A_1 * A_2 * B C_1 C_2$	Forward: 5'-tttgttcaaaagaggtaggtatggggatcttttgaaggaaaatctttcaagg-3'
		Reverse: 5'-ccttgaaagattttccttcaaaagatccccatacctacct
		Then perform the second round of SDM with the following primers
		Forward: 5'-caaaagaggtaggtatggggatcttgtggaggaaaatctttcaagga-3'
		Reverse: 5'-tccttgaaagattttcctccacaagatccccatacctacc
pOECODM $A_1 * A_2 B C_1 * C_2$	pOECODM A ₁ * A ₂ B C ₁ C ₂	Forward: 5'-tttgttcaaaagaggtaggtatggggatcttttgaaggaaaatctttcaagg-3'
r <====================================		Reverse: 5'-ccttgaaagattttccttcaaaagatccccatacctacct
		Then perform the second round of SDM with the following primers
		Forward: 5'-caaaagaggtaggtatggggatcttgtggaggaaaatctttcaagga-3'
		Reverse: 5'-tccttgaaagattttcctccacaagatccccatacctacc

Table 4.
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templates
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Dr. Jillian Hagel and Professor Peter Facchini (University of Calgary, Calgary, Alberta, Canada) provided *Escherichia coli* expression plasmids pQEDIOX1 and pQEDIOX3, which contain the open reading frames of *P. somniferum* T6ODM and CODM, respectively. Primers to design the mutant constructs are listed in Table 4.2. We adapted heterologous expression conditions for *E. coli* from a previously reported protocol.³ Protein expression of the majority of *Ps*CODM mutants was robust (Figure 4.4). Only the $A_1A_2*BC_1C_2$ mutant (S149M L151F S152T mutant; the asterisk designates the mutated region) was expressed at low levels, perhaps due to improper folding. We screened each of the mutant enzymes with substrates thebaine **5** and codeine **10** at a concentration of 0.25 mM. Assay conditions are provided in Methods.

Product formation was monitored using liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS). LC-MS chromatograms of representative in vitro enzymatic assays of wild type and mutant *Ps*CODM enzymes are shown in Figures 4.5 and 4.6, respectively. These endpoint assays indicated that the majority of the mutants lost O-demethylase activity toward both thebaine **5** and codeine **10**. Out of the total of 16 mutants, only two, $A_1A_2BC_1*C_2$ (E338G I340L L341V K342E) and $A_1A_2B*C_1C_2$ (R334S R336S+T), retained O-demethylase activity toward either thebaine **5** or codeine **10** (Figure 4.5). The $A_1A_2B*C_1C_2$ mutant was similar to the wild type enzyme in that it turned over both thebaine **5** and codeine **10** to yield oripavine **6** and morphine **11**, respectively.

The co-elution of the wild type *Ps*CODM and *Ps*CODM $A_1A_2B^*C_1C_2$ mutant thebaine **5** demethylation products suggests that the $A_1A_2B^*C_1C_2$ mutant



Calculated MW DIOX3 and mutants: 42.2 kDa

Figure 4.4: SDS-PAGE of purified wild type and mutant *Ps*CODM enzymes from Talon colbalt affinity column (Clontech). Arrow indicates band corresponding to the correct molecular weight.

retained regiospecificity for the 3 position of thebaine **5** (Figure 4.5). In contrast, the $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ mutant displayed only negligible O-demethylation activity for thebaine **5** but selectively turned over codeine **10** (Figure 4.5). Since codeine **10** only contains a methoxy group at the 3 position, the C3 regioselectivity of the $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ mutant is also clearly unchanged from the wild type PsCODM. Competitive assay conditions with both thebaine **5** (0.25 mM) and codeine **10** (0.25 mM) were also employed to assess the activity of *Ps*CODM mutants (Figure 4.5). Morphine **11** and oripavine **6** products formed at a 4:1 ratio when wild type *Ps*CODM was subjected to these assay conditions. Similarly, the $A_1A_2B^*C_1C_2$ mutant also yielded morphine **11** and oripavine **6** at approximately a 4:1 ratio, though notably at lower concentrations than the wild type enzyme,



Figure 4.5: *Ps*CODM and representative *Ps*CODM mutants with codeine **10**. Only $A_1B_2B^*C_1C_2$ and $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ retain activity for codeine **10**. qE30 is empty vector.



Figure 4.6: *Ps*CODM wild type and representative *Ps*CODM mutants with thebaine **5**. Only $A_1B_2B^*C_1C_2$ and $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ (negligible) retain activity for thebaine **5**. qE30 is the empty vector control.



Figure 4.7: *Ps*CODM wild type and representative *Ps*CODM mutants in a competition assay with both codeine **10** and thebaine **5**. Only $A_1B_2B^*C_1C_2$ and $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ retain activity for either substrate; $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ is specific for codeine **10**. qE30 is the empty vector control.

indicating lower catalytic efficiency for the mutated enzyme. However, while the $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ mutant produced only negligible amounts of oripavine **6**, morphine **11** was produced at levels similar to those observed with wild type enzyme, confirming the stringent selectivity of the $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ mutant.

We measured the steady-state kinetic parameters of wild type *Ps*CODM and mutant *Ps*CODM A₁A₂BC₁*C₂ by monitoring the rate of product formation. In total, we measured kinetic parameters for the following combinations: (1) wild type *Ps*CODM with codeine ($k_{cat}/K_M = 9.54 \times 10^{-7} \text{s}^{-1} \mu \text{M}^{-1}$ and $K_M = 72.3 \pm 33.4 \mu$ M); (2) wild type *Ps*CODM with thebaine ($k_{cat}/K_M = 1.52 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s}^{-1} \mu \text{M}^{-1}$ and $K_M =$ 216 ± 76.2 μ M); and (3) *Ps*CODM mutant A₁A₂BC₁*C₂ with codeine ($k_{cat}/K_M =$ 3.62x10⁻⁷ s⁻¹ μ M⁻¹ and KM = 99.0 ± 22.4 μ M). Notably, the mutant enzyme formed only negligible amounts of the thebaine **5** demethylation product after 4 hr even when substrate concentrations were as high as 2,000 μ M. Steady-state kinetic data are shown in Figures 4.8-4.10; Table 4.3).

Although structural information is not yet available for these demethylases, we could build a homology model for both wild type and $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ mutant *Ps*CODM based on the anthocyanidin synthase enzyme docked with thebaine **5**. While these computational results must be interpreted with caution, docking studies suggest that the binding orientation of thebaine differs substantially between the wild type enzyme and the $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ mutant (Figures 4.10 and 4.11). Specifically, in the model of the mutant with thebaine **5**, the histidine/asparate facial triad seemingly anchors the iron-oxo complex away from the O-methyl moiety. It is interesting that the homology model (Figure 4.2) also

predicts that the C_1 region switches from an alpha helix in the wild type enzyme to a random coil in the codeine-specific mutant, suggesting that the mutation in the C_1 region introduces changes to the *Ps*CODM secondary structure.

Parameters	WT with	$A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$	WT with	$A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$
	Codeine	with Codeine	Thebaine	with Thebaine
V_{max} ($\mu M/min$)	0.299 ± 0.044	0.213 ± 0.015	0.043 ± 0.001	ND
К _М (μМ)	72.2 ± 33.4	99.0 ± 22.4	216.1 ±76.2	ND
k _{cat} (s ⁻)	6.90 x 10 ⁻⁵	3.58 x 10 ⁻⁵	3.28 x 10 ⁻⁶	ND
$k_{cat}/K_M(s^-\mu M^-)$	9.54 x 10 ⁻⁷	3.62 x 10 ⁻⁷	1.52 x 10 ⁻⁸	ND
r ²	0.92	0.97	0.96	ND
replicates	2	3	2	3

Table 4.3:Summary of kinetic parameters for *Ps*CODM and Mutant $A_1A_2BC_1*C_2$ with code ine **10** and the baine **5**.



Figure 4.8: Michaelis-Menten curve of WT PsCODM with codeine 10.



Figure 4.9: Michaelis-Menten curve of WT *Ps*CODM with thebaine **5**.



Figure 4.10: Michaelis-Menten curve of Mutant $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ with codeine **10**.



Figure 4.11: Proposed dioxygenase demethylation mechanism.



Figure 4.12: Thebaine docked into wild type PsCODM (DIOX3).



Figure 4.13: Thebaine docked into PsCODM (DIOX3) mutant A1A2BC1*C2



Figure 4.14 Codeine docked into wild type PsCODM (DIOX3).



Figure 4.15: Codeine docked into PsCODM (DIOX3) Mutant A1A2BC1*C2.

The mutation in the C₁* region appears to prevent productive binding of the thebaine **5** substrate without greatly altering the catalytic efficiency for codeine **10** $(k_{cat}/K_{M} = 9.54 \times 10^{-7} \text{s}^{-1} \mu \text{M}^{-1} \text{ for wild-type}, k_{cat}/K_{M} = 3.62 \times 10^{-7} \text{s}^{-1} \mu \text{M}^{-1} \text{ for mutant}).$ In the models, the binding orientation of codeine **10** does not appear to differ substantially between the wild type enzyme and the A₁A₂BC₁*C₂ mutant.

At the outset of this study, we hypothesized that the amino acid differences between *Ps*CODM, a C3 O-demethylase, and *Ps*T6ODM, a C6 O-demethylase, would control the distinct regioselectivity of the demethylation reactions. Therefore, we expected that swapping the non-conserved amino acid regions of these two enzymes would alter the regioselectivity of the mutated enzymes. Instead, the mutations altered the substrate selectivity in an unpredictable manner. Moreover, the A₁A₂BC₁*C₂ *Ps*CODM mutant retained C3 regioselectivity.

Notably, PsT60DM turns over thebaine **5** and oripavine **6**, and PsCODM turns over thebaine **5** and codeine **10**. Despite both wild type enzymes accepting thebaine **5**, the introduction of residues from PsT60DM into PsCODM at the C₁ position (Figure 4.3) yields a mutant PsCODM enzyme that is selective for codeine **10**. This change in substrate specificity does not readily correlate with the substrate specificity of the parent wild type enzymes. Particularly in the absence of experimental structural data, it is difficult to rationalize what structural changes these mutations confer to PsCODM and how these changes impact substrate specificity. Nevertheless, while this work highlights the difficulty of rational, structure-based protein design, we successfully demonstrate how sequence alignment of enzymes with subtle differences in specificity can be used to readily generate swapped sequences that are functionally distinct from naturally occurring wild-type variations.

One goal of metabolic engineering is the removal of shunt or redundant pathways that adversely impact production yields of a desired compound.⁸ This $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ *Ps*CODM mutant may fulfill an engineering function by providing a means to shut off a redundant route (route B in Figure 1) in morphinan biosynthesis. Because $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ *Ps*CODM fails to demethylate thebaine **5** to form oripavine **6**, the first committed step of route B, replacement of wild-type *Ps*CODM with the $A_1A_2BC_1^*C_2$ mutant would presumably force the morphine pathway to proceed via route A.

Notably, growers in India, a major cultivator of licit opium, inadvertently counter-selected for *P. somniferum* cultivars low in oripavine **6** when selecting for the highest seed quality and opium yields, suggesting that low oripavine **6** production levels may correlate with economically desirable traits.⁹ Therefore, in addition to assessing how knock-outs of wild type *Ps*CODM and *Ps*T6ODM affect flux into morphine production, it will be of interest to observe how using the *Ps*CODM $A_1A_2BC_1*C_2$ mutant—which effectively sidesteps oripavine **6** production by committing thebaine **5** to route A—instead of the wild type *Ps*CODM enzyme would impact titers of codeine **10** and morphine **11**.⁹ Moreover, substantial interest lies in reconstituting morphinan alkaloid biosynthesis in yeast and *E. coli*.¹⁰⁻¹² Mutants with altered specificity such as *Ps*CODM $A_1A_2BC_1*C_2$ could provide important building blocks for these synthetic biology efforts.

III. Conclusions

We have altered the substrate specificity of a morphinan pathway enzyme codeine O-demethylase (*Ps*CODM). One *Ps*CODM mutant, mutant $A_1A_2BC_1*C_2$ (E338G I340L L341V K342E), exhibits demethylase activity exclusively toward codeine **10**, whereas the wild type *Ps*CODM exhibits demethylase activity with both codeine **10** and thebaine **5**. These results provide a starting point for rationalizing how *Ps*CODM and *Ps*T6ODM, two enzymes involved in morphinan biosynthesis with 73% identity at the amino acid level, facilitate O-demethylation regioselectivity on separate sets of substrates. In addition to providing insight into

O-demethylase substrate selectivity, this mutant could also be useful in biotechnological efforts to provide *P. somniferum* strains with augmented yields of codeine **10** and morphine **11** and diminished titers of oripavine **6**, an intermediate in a redundant pathway branch that has been associated with poor seed quality and low opium yields.⁹ In short, mutants with enhanced enzyme selectivity will allow us to explore how the targeted disruption of a redundant pathway branch affects downstream product yields and may enable more efficient production of these high value compounds. In addition to the potential biotechnological applications of this enzyme, these protein engineering efforts also provide a starting point for understanding how the subtle sequence differences of highly similar enzymes can impact substrate and regioselectivity.

IV. Methods

A. Construction of PsCODM Mutant Expression Plasmids

pQEDIOX1 (pQET6ODM) and pQEDIOX3 (pQECODM), which contain the open reading frames of *Ps*T6ODM and *Ps*CODM, respectively, were provided by Professor Peter Facchini and Dr. Jillian Hagel (University of Calgary). To obtain the 16 CODM mutants (Table 4.1), site-directed mutagenesis (SDM) was performed using the Stratagene QuikChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit. SDM primers are listed in the Supplemental Information (Table 4.1). The *Ps*CODM mutant constructs were sequenced to verify the DNA sequence and were subsequently transformed for expression into *E. coli* strain SG13009 (QIAGEN) via electroporation using standard protocols.
B. Heterologous Expression of PsCODM Mutants

A single transformed E. coli colony (strain SG13009 [QIAGEN]) was inoculated in 10 ml Luria-Bertani (LB) media supplemented with kanamycin (0.05 g/l) and ampicillin (0.1 g/l) and incubated overnight at 37°C with shaking at 225 rpm. Subsequently, 800 ml LB media supplemented with kanamycin (0.05 g/l) and ampicillin (0.1 g/l) was inoculated with an overnight culture (8 ml) and incubated at 37°C with shaking at 225 rpm until reaching an optical density 600 (OD₆₀₀) of 0.6. Protein expression was induced by the addition of isopropyl-β-Dgalactopyranoside (IPTG; final concentration 0.3 mM). Following induction, cells were incubated at 6°C with shaking at 225 rpm for 24 hr. Cells were harvested by centrifugation and lysed by sonication. The hexa-histidine-tagged PsCODM mutants were purified using Talon colbalt affinity column (Clontech) using the manufacturer's protocols. Eluted enzyme was subsequently buffer-exchanged into Tris buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 10% [v/v] glycerol, and 14 mM 2mercaptoethanol) and immediately assayed for activity. These enzymes were not stable upon extended storage.

C. In Vitro Activity Assay of PsCODM Mutants

The in vitro activity assay protocol was adapted from a previous report (Hagel and Facchini, 2010). Briefly, the assay for 2-oxoglutarate/Fe(II)dependent dioxygenase activity was performed using a 100 ml reaction mixture of 100 mM Tris-HCI (pH 7.4), 10% (v/v) glycerol, 14 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 0.25 mM alkaloid(s), 10 mM 2-oxoglutarate, 10 mM sodium ascorbate, 0.5 mM FeSO4, and 1 mM purified enzyme. Assays were carried out for 4 hr at 30_ C. Aliquots (25 ml) were quenched in 1 ml methanol containing yohimbine (500 nM) as an internal standard. The samples were centrifuged in a microcen- trifuge (13,000 rpm, 5 min) to remove particulates and then analyzed by LC-MS. Samples were ionized by ESI with a Micromass LCT Premier TOF Mass Spectrometer. The LC was performed on an Acquity Ultra Performance BEH C18, 1.7 μ M, 2.1 x 100 mm column on a gradient of 10%–90% acetonitrile/water (0.1% formic acid) over 5 min at a flow rate of 0.6 ml/min. The appearance of morphine **11** and oripavine **6** was monitored by peak integration and normalized to the internal standard. All chemicals were obtained from a commercial source (Sigma Aldrich).

D. Steady-State Kinetic Assay of Wild-Type CODM and A₁A₂BC₁*C₂ Mutant

Assay components were used in the following final concentrations: pH 7.4 Tris-HCI (67 mM) containing 10% (v/v) glycerol and 14 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, α-ketoglutarate (6.7 mM), sodium ascorbate (6.7 mM), iron (II) sulfate (333 mM), and enzyme wild type (4.1 mg/ml) or enzyme mutant (18 mg/ml), in an assay volume of 150 ml. The enzyme concentrations were estimated by Bradford assay. Assays were initiated by addition of iron (II) sulfate and conducted at 30°C. Aliquots (25 ml) were quenched every 30 min from 1 to 3 hr with 975 ml methanol containing 500 nM ajmaline as an internal standard. Prior to analysis, methanol quenched samples were centrifuged in a microcentrifuge at 13,000 rpm

146

for 5 min to remove any particulates. Liquid chromatography was performed on an Acquity Ultra Performance BEH C18, 1.7 μ M, 2.1 x 100 mm column. The gradient was 10%–90% acetonitrile over 4 min with water and 0.1% formic acid in water as the second solvent. The flow rate was 0.5 ml/min. We performed electrospray ionization (ESI) with a Micromass LCT Premier TOF Mass Spectrometer in positive ionization V-mode.

Product accumulation was measured to determine the kinetic parameters. A standard curve for morphine **11**, the demethylation product of codeine **10**, was constructed to determine the kinetic parameters of codeine **10** demethylation. However, oripavine **6**, the demethylation product of thebaine **5**, was unavailable; therefore, hydromorphonone, which was available, was used as a surrogate. Plotted experimental data were fit to a Michaelis-Menten curve using SigmaPlot version 9.0. Experiments were duplicated or triplicated to ensure reproducibility.

E. Computational modeling

Both wild type and mutant *Ps*CODM homology models were built using *A. thaliana* anthocyanadin synthase (*At*ANS) as a template in SWISS MODEL. Primary substrates were docked into the active site at the lowest catalytically competent conformation. The location of the iron-oxo species was postulated based on the position of histidine/aspartate facial triad.

147

V. References

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VI. Acknowledgements

Dr. Weerawat Runguphan and Prof. Sarah O'Connor designed and initiated the project. Dr. Weerawat Runguphan performed all cloning and developed in-house protein expression conditions. Computational models were produced collaboratively. We thank Dr. Jill Hagel and Prof. Pete Facchini for constructs with open reading frames for DIOX1 and DIOX3. Prof. Sarah O'Connor procured funding for this project.

Chapter 5

Conclusions and Future Work: The Alkaloids and Beyond

I. Conclusions

Chapter 1 opens the thesis by discussing current work in the understanding and manipulation of plant natural product biosynthesis. Specifically, chapter 1 surveys current research regarding monoterpene indole alkaloids, benzylisoquinoline alkaloids and the glucosinolates. These classes of compounds have been witness to heroic efforts aimed at enzyme discovery and engineering. These efforts have undoubtedly been energized by the desire to harness and improve yields of these highly bioactive compounds.

While many pathway segments of benzylisoquinoline biosynthesis—most notably the morphinan pathway¹—have been completely characterized, monoterpene indole alkaloid biosynthesis has not been fully elucidated in any organism. Fully elucidated pathways are more amenable to various engineering strategies. Moreover, we also have an impetus to study missing pathway steps because they may possess unique and interesting chemistry. Approximately three steps are missing in the biosynthesis of secologanin, a direct monoterpene indole alkaloid precursor in Madagascar periwinkle (Figure 5.1). Chapter 2 chronicles our efforts to discover 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase activity in periwinkle (Figure 5.1). This enzyme is positioned at the seat of iridoid biosynthesis and produces the substrate for the iridoid synthase, which assembles the characteristic iridoid molecular scaffold.^{2,3}

Despite having an incomplete understanding of monoterpene indole alkaloid biosynthesis, our lab has demonstrated several successful engineering strategies for this pathway, most notably the incorporation of halogens.⁴⁻⁶



Figure 5.1: Proposed biosynthesis of secologanin **13.** Chapter 2 focuses on the discovery of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase activity in *C. roseus.* 10-hydroxygeraniol reductase oxidizes both hydroxyl moieties of 10-hydroxygeraniol **5** to form 10-oxogeranial **6** (dotted line box), which is the substrate for Iridoid Synthase—the enzyme that assembles the iridoid scaffold. Approximately 4 steps are missing in the biosynthesis of secologanin **13**.

Runguphan et al. provides a seminal study on the de novo production of halogenated alkaloids by introducing prokaryotic genes that code for tryptophan halogenases into periwinkle, a terrestrial plant.⁵ This is the first example of *de novo* combinatorial biosynthesis in plants. In this study, Runguphan et al. produced 12-chloro-19,20dihydroakuammicine 13 at a titer of 25 µg per gram fresh weight.⁵ However, because of the metabolic bottleneck situated at tryptophan decarboxylase (TDC), the plant also accumulated 7-chlorotryptophan-the RebH/F product-at 50 µg per gram fresh weight (twice as high as the chlorinated alkaloid titer).⁵ We posited that the accumulation of 7chlorotryptophan-an analog to a canonical, proteinogenic amino acid that is structurally similar to an auxin growth hormone-caused the slow growth and browning morphology observed in Runguphan et al.'s intial study. Therefore, as highlighted in chapter 3, we explored two strategies to alleviate the metabolic bottleneck: (1) over-expressing endogenous TDC and (2) reengineering RebH to preferentially chlorinate tryptamine, a downstream and direct alkaloid precursor, instead of the native substrate L-tryptophan (Figure 5.2).⁶ While over-expressing endogenous TDC failed to fracture the metabolic bottleneck, we successfully circumnavigated the bottleneck by reengineering RebH to preferentially accept tryptamine (Figure 5.2).⁶ The tryptamine specific mutant RebH Y455W along with flavin reductase RebF was incorporated into periwinkle's metabolism, and we observed de novo production of 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine 13. In contrast to Runguphan et al., no 7-chlorotryptophan was observed when this mutant was employed, demonstrating its desired substrate selectivity (Figure 5.2).⁶

Pathways are more amenable to sophisticated engineering strategies (or only plausible) when the targeted pathway is completely characterized. The morphinan pathway, whose elucidation was completed in 2010 with the discovered of the two dioxygenases Codeine O-Demethylase (*Ps*CODM) and Thebaine 6-O-Demethylase



Chapter 3 - Circumvent TDC Bottlneck by Installing Chlorine on Tryptamine

Figure 5.2: RebH was reengineered to preferentially chlorinate tryptamine **11** instead of native L-tryptophan. This strategy successfully alleviated the metabolic bottleneck by circumventing it altogether. Incorporation of this mutant into the MIA metabolism of *C. roseus* (Madagascar periwinkle) led to the *de novo* production of halogenated metabolite 12-chloro-19,20-dihydroakuammicine **13**, without the accumulation of 7-chlorotryptophan, highlighting the reengineered specificity of the enzyme.

(*Ps*T6ODM) from *Papaver somniferum*, is particularly attractive as it produces codeine and morphine.¹ The pathway utilizes two separate routes to convert thebaine into morphine.¹ Chapter 4 archives our serendipitous discovery of a *Ps*CODM mutant that would presumably selectively disable one pathway—adventitiously, the pathway associated with poor licit opium and seed quality—while simultaneously committing thebaine to the route with more medicinally valuable compounds.⁷

The *Ps*CODM project began by attempting to switch the regioselectivity of *Ps*CODM (which selectively demethylates the 3 position of thebaine **18** and codeine **21**) and *Ps*T6ODM (which selectively demethyltes the 6 position of thebaine **18** and oripavine **22**). The enzymes' primary structures are highly similar, but sequence analysis pinpointed five regions of dissimilarity. We hypothesized that mixing-and-matching the regions of dissimilarity between the two sequences would alter the enzymes' regioselectivity and, in turn, offer some insight into how regioselectivity is controlled in this class of enzyme.

*Ps*T6ODM mutants were only poorly expressed; therefore, we focused our efforts on *Ps*CODM mutants. While most of the 16 mutants were inactive for either thebaine or codeine, one *Ps*CODM mutant (E338G I340L L341V K342E) selectivity demethylates codeine. This switch in selectivity does not readily correlate to the selectivities of the parent enzymes. Nonetheless, this mutant could fulfill a pivotal role in morphinan pathway reconstitution (Figure 5.3).



Chapter 4 - Reengineered Codeine O-demethylase (*Ps*.CODM) mutant commits thebaine exclusively to route A

Figure 5.3: *Ps*CODM mutant E338G I340L L314V K342E selectively demethylates thebaine **14**. This mutant disables route B, which has been associated with poor licit opium and seed quality and instead commits thebaine **14** to the more medicinally useful pathway that produces codeine **17** and leads to morphine **20**.

II. Future Directions – The Alkaloids and Beyond

Historically, altering metabolic pathways in plants to achieve a given end has been difficult. Metabolic engineering in plants is still in its infancy and until very recently has largely been confined to single-gene expression or silencing events in the background of endogenous plant cell metabolism. The complexity of the plant host's metabolism has been shown, in many cases, to effectively mute the engineering effort or lead to unpredictable results (Table 1.1). However, in recent years, a wealth of new approaches has expanded the capabilities of multi-gene pathway expression in both plants and microbes and has highlighted our increasing ability to engineer the production of plant natural products in both plants and heterologous systems. The increase in available and reliable sequencing and expression data enables the (relatively) facile discovery of gene, transporter and regulatory elements, the identification of which is often a prerequisite for multi-step metabolic engineering efforts. The three case studies described in Chapter 1 (MIAs, BIAs and glucosinolates) exemplify the challenges and progress in metabolically engineering plant-derived natural products. While we have made a special effort to highlight the advantages and pitfalls of individual techniques and efforts throughout this thesis, a number of grand challenges for plant metabolic engineering remain to be tackled in the coming years.

A. Effective Mining Strategies

Effective mining strategies, such as those employed by Giddings *et al.*,⁸ Hagel *et al.*,¹ Winzer *et al.*,⁹ Liscombe *et al.*,¹⁰ and Geu-Flores *et al.*,⁵ are required to sift through the mounting data of the sequencing age. Hanson *et al.* provides a recent comprehensive review of effective mining strategies and phylogenetic analyses. Traditionally, plant enzyme discovery methods have relied heavily upon time-intensive reverse genetics based strategies. Bioinformatic techniques that engage co-expression analyses and comparative metabolite profiling to limit the gene space to be investigated are greatly accelerating the discovery process in plant systems. Moreover, a suite of new silencing tools, including VIGS,¹² RNAi¹³ and the IL-60 system,¹⁴ can provide rapid insight into the physiological function of plant enzymes.

B. Metabolic Engineering in Native Versus Non-Native Hosts

Many efforts aimed at improving the yield of alkaloids in native hosts have focused on feeding precursors and over-expressing transcription factors or enzymes positioned at metabolic bottlenecks. While these efforts often result in modest improvements to yield (Table 1.1), many are often accompanied by adverse morphological effects that may significantly stunt the growth of plant and tissue cultures, highlighting the tight regulation of metabolic processes within highly organized plant cells and tissues. In native systems especially, the slow growth phenotypes may result from the depletion of cellular resources used in synthesizing a surfeit of transcripts and enzymes or from the accumulation of toxic intermediates that negatively impact growth and development. Engineering in native hosts or heterologous plant species is attractive because not having to build the starting substrates and supply the co-factors greatly simplifies engineering efforts. However, with this strategy, maintaining the balance between primary metabolism and the engineered metabolism—a feat that will likely improve growth morphologies—is complicated precisely because endogenous primary metabolite pools are expropriated for the overproduction of selected metabolites. Also, despite the advantage of minimal gene stacking, the often uncharacterized and unanticipated complex metabolism and regulatory elements of native systems can lead to engineering outcomes that are particularly difficult to control and predict. The industrial scale production of plant natural products will likely require more comprehensive engineering efforts than single-gene over-expression or silencing events in the context of native plant hosts. Engineering in faster-growing and "chemically silent" heterologous hosts may increase biomass accumulation and simplify purification.

C. Controlling Metabolic Flux through New Expression Constructs, Scaffolds and Tunable Regulatory Elements

The intricate relationship between primary metabolism (i.e. glycolysis, the TCA cycle) and the native or heterologous secondary metabolism (i.e. isoprenoid and alkaloid pathways) must be considered. In plants, Park *et al.* alluded to this interplay by

demonstrating that BBE expression levels vastly affect amino acid levels.^{15,16} As metabolic engineering strategies in plants become more sophisticated, we should also begin to consider flux analyses, taking into account that natural product pathways are evolutionarily optimized to channel intermediates toward product through a highly choreographed system of protein-protein interactions, localization and regulation.¹⁷ The overall goal is to maximally channel metabolic resources to the desired products without over taxing the host system.

Co-localization through scaffolding is a proven way to channel metabolites in *E. coli.* These systems attempt to mock natural megasynthases, which efficiently shuttle metabolites between adjacent active sites. Essentially, scaffolding increases the local metabolite and enzyme concentrations and effectively lowers the K_m of the substrate. These systems are widely modular and are known to improve titers, alleviate metabolic bottlenecks and reduce metabolic loads by preventing carbon from exiting the pathway. Under conditions of low enzyme expression (decreased metabolic load), Dueber *et al.* successfully achieved a 77-fold enhancement in mevalonate production by building a scaffold based on the protein-protein interactions of GBD, SH3 and PDZ domains and their cognate ligands.¹⁸ They built the scaffold on hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA reductase, the enzymatic bottleneck of mevalonate production.¹⁸ Notably, these scaffolding systems require that the enzyme at the metabolic bottleneck, the subsequent enzyme and the substrate be co-localized,¹⁸ underscoring why they may be untenable for some highly compartmentalized systems. Nonetheless, the prospect of engineering metabolons into plants is exciting.

The effective metabolic engineering of plant natural products will inevitably require advanced, but easy-to-use, gene stacking techniques. Traditionally, multi-gene expression in plants has been plagued with inadvertent silencing events, the incomplete incorporation of all genes and lengthy and technically challenging procedures.¹⁹ A

number of new technologies, however, are being developed to assemble and transplant large fragments of DNA.¹⁹ Golden Gate cloning and USER fusion have been used to clone multiple pathway elements.^{19,20} Additionally, synthetic plant chromosomes and the universal expression and silencing IL-60 platform both have the demonstrated capability of introducing multiple plant pathway elements into plants.^{19,21} For example, under the transformation-free IL-60 platform, Mozes-Koch *et al.* expressed an entire bacterial operon in tomato and produced pyrollinitrin, which they observed after only two days.²¹

A number of RNA-based silencing systems, including RNAi, have also been engineered and applied to medicinal plants.²² Notably, RNAi, which provides a permanent pheno- or chemotype, has been employed to block shunt pathways and channel metabolic resources toward a desired product, enhancing our ability to engineer in multiple dimensions.²²

Lastly, promoter libraries, engineered untranslated regions (i.e. 5' untranslated regions and intergenic regions), genetic circuit designs and biosensor regulators have been tremendously helpful in microbial engineering. Applying these design principles to the metabolic engineering of plants may greatly enrich our efforts to produce valuable and chemically diverse alkaloids. Notably, a variety of constitutive and inducible plant promoters and expression systems are now widely available. Synthetic RNA elements, ribosome binding site elements and a combination of different strength promoters strategically placed in front of stacked pathway genes could theoretically enable tunable protein expression.^{23,24} These elements could potentially limit the expression of toxic activities or the accumulation of toxic metabolites until the stationary phase (or an appropriate stage) of growth, thereby absolving the system of unsustainable metabolic burden.

D. Localization and Transport – Engineering in Multiple Dimensions

Many alkaloid biosynthetic pathways are highly compartmentalized at both the inter- and intracellular levels. For example, at least three cell types are required for the biosynthesis of many MIAs.²⁵ The impact that localization has on product yields is not currently well understood. The forward engineering of plant natural products will require sifting through the increasing amount of available sequencing and expression data and untangling the complexity of the plant cell and different tissue types. In addition to the linear design and channeling of metabolic pathways, the successful metabolic engineering of plant natural products will require engineering in the "third dimension," namely at the level of localization and cell type.²⁶

E. Physiological Relevance of Alkaloids

It is not entirely clear what role the alkaloids have evolved to fulfill, though it is commonly postulated that the alkaloids are defense compounds that protect the plant. Certainly that is a sensible hypothesis given that most alkaloids exhibit some degree of bioactivity. This hypothesis could potentially be tested first by studying how generalist herbivores feed on alkaloid-containing plants versus engineered plants devoid of alkaloids (e.g. the *C. roseus* tryptophan decarboxylase RNA interference line).²⁷ Increased feeding on lines devoid of alkaloids would suggest that the alkaloids are plant defense compounds. Secondly, introducing a non-canonical amino acid or radio-labeled tag into the plant may permit the direct study of what proteins are expressed in response to insect feeding. Notably, this strategy may also require that the plant's amino acids. Therefore, comparative transcriptomic, proteomic and metabolomic analyses may be cheaper, faster and easier, but potentially less direct. Up-regulation of known alkaloid

biosynthetic enzymes and alkaloid production would strongly implicate alkaloids in plant defense strategies.

F. Combinatorial Biosynthesis in Plants – Mixing and Matching Pathways and Engineering New Enzyme Specificities

De novo combinatorial biosynthesis in plant systems has gone largely underexplored. Most of the few efforts to engineer unnatural natural products have utilized precursor feeding or mutasynthesis-based approaches, which can be costly and time intensive.^{5,27} The *de novo* biosynthesis of unnatural natural products will require that constituent enzymes have reengineered or broad specificity. Notably, directed evolution has been successfully used to alter enzyme specificity. However, enzymeengineering efforts are greatly enhanced if protein structure is known and the mechanism is well understood. Then, the enzyme can be subjected to structure-guided techniques, such as site-directed mutagenesis and domain swapping, which create smaller protein libraries enriched with functional mutants.

Halogenation—particularly fluorination—is a typical lead editing strategy²⁸ Despite its value, chemical halogenation often suffers from low regio- and stereospecificity and is oftentimes non-catalytic.²⁷ Moreover, these reactions require harsh, anhydrous reactions conditions.²⁷ Notably, however, Halex reactions can be performed at room temperature, but still require anhydrous reaction conditions. For these reasons, enzymatic fluorination is highly attractive as it presumably would require only the addition of simple salts, and the reaction can be run under aqueous conditions.^{27.28} Though fluoride ions are potent nucleophiles, they are tightly solvated by water, which makes them effectively inert in aqueous media.²⁹ The binding of substrate SAM in the fluorinase (5'-fluoro-5'-deoxyadenosine synthase) from *Streptomyces*

cattleya—the only as yet characterized fluorinase—is predicted to desolvate fluoride and enable fluoride's $S_N 2$ displacement of methionine on the SAM substrate.

No nucleophilic aromatic fluorinase has yet been reported. To the best of our knowledge, no naturally occurring aromatic fluorometabolites have been reported either, suggesting that the enzymatic repertoire for nucleophilic aromatic fluorination either does not exist in nature or is very rare. Because of our interest in medicinally useful MIAs, we include as a future challenge the development of a nucleophilic aromatic fluorinase that

A. Design of Substrate Activated for Nucleophilic Aromatic Fluorination



Sigma complex demonstrating why electron withdrawing groups should be palced at positions 6 (middle) and 4 (right) to balance charge

B. Enzymatic Nucleophilic Aromatic Fluorination



Figure 5.4: A. Design of Substrate Activated for Nucleophilic Aromatic Fluorination. The Sigma complex suggests that electron withdrawing groups should be placed at positions 6 and 4, which are ortho and para to position 7, respectively. Position 7 has been selected as the position of fluorination because RebH—the well-characterized enzyme we propose to reengineer—regioselectively chlorinates at that position, though notably through an electrophilic aromatic substitution mechanism. B. Enzymatic nucleophilic aromatic fluorination mechanism. The first step is nucleophilic attack followed by a restoration of aromaticity. X represents a good leaving group whereas A and B represent electron withdrawing groups. accepts tryptamine 11, a direct MIA precursor. It is likely that if such an enzyme can be engineered, early engineered versions would require tryptamine analogs strongly activated for nucleophilic aromatic substitution (Figure 5.4). Therefore, we propose as one possible strategy the synthesis of a tryptamine analog with a good leaving group at position 7 (the proposed site of fluoride substitution), and strong electron withdrawing groups at positions 6 and 4, which are para and ortho to position 7, respectively, to help distribute the negative charge upon nucleoplhilic attack (Figure 5.4). After synthesizing a library of activated tryptamine analogs, RebH—a 7-tryptophan chlorinase that operates via electrophilic aromatic substitution—would need to be reengineered to function instead via nucleophilic aromatic substitution to accept these substrates. Alternatively, since the structure and mechanism of 5'-fluoro-5'-deoxyadenosine synthase are known and relatively well understood, it may be plausible to reengineer this fluorinase to accept non-native, aromatic substrates.

As we seek further to convert plants and microbes into the chemical factories to meet our medicinal needs, we should remember that, although many plant natural products are bioactive and serve as important lead compounds, they often require modification before making it to the clinic. Therefore, the forward engineering of "unnatural" or "new-to-nature" natural products must also be a grand challenge if plant natural products are to be shuttled from the annals of human tradition into the drug development programs and clinics of tomorrow.

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IV. Acknowledgments

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Biotech. Dr. Weerawat Runguphan and I collaboratively wrote this article.

Appendix A - Chapter 2

Discovery of 10-hydroxygeraniol Oxidoreductase Activity in C. roseus

I. Candidate DNA and Protein Sequences - Page 166

II. TLC Controls – Page 172

III. GC-MS Spectra – Page 174

Candidate 1786 open reading frame sequence from clone

ATGCAGATCATAACTTGCAAGGCTGTGGTGTGCTGGGCGGCCGGAGAGCCACCGGTGGT CTAGTCTTTGCCACACTGATGTCCTCGCCTGCAAGGGCTTCCCAACGCCCATGTTTCCT CGAGTTCTGGGACATGAAGGTGTCGGCGTGGTGGAGTGTGTGGGTGAAGGAGTTTCAGA ATTGTGAGTCAGGAAGAACGAATCTATGCCGAACTTACCCTTTGCAAGCATTCACAGGC TTAATGCCTGATGGTTCCTCAAGAATGTCTTCCGCCAAAGGAGGGGAAATGTTGTACCA ATTCCTTAGCTGCTCCACTTGGTCTGAGTATACTGTTATTGACGCCAACTATGCCGTGA AGATAGACTCCAGAATACCTCTGCCCCATGCTAGCTTCCTTTCTTGCGGCTTCACCACT GGGTTTGGGGCAACCTGGAAGGAAGCCAAGCTTCAAGAGGGATCCAGCACCGTTGCTGT CTCAAATAATAGGAATAGACATTAACGACAACAAACGTGAGAAAGGAGAAGCCTTCGGA ATGACTCATTTCATCAACCCCCAAAAAAGATAATAATAAATCCATTTCAGAATTAGTTAA AGAGTTAACAAAAGGACAAGGTGTGGACGTCTGTTTTGAATGCACGGGAGTCCCTGACT TGGTTAATGAAGCTCTTGAATCCACAAAGATCGGAACAGGAAATATGATAATGCTAGGA GCAGGAACCCAGAAAAGCATGACCATAAACTTCGTTTCACTATTGGGCTGCAGAACTTT CAAGTATTCTGTTTTCGGCGGGGTTAAGGTCCAATCCGACCTTCCTCATTATTCAGA AATGCTTAAATAAGGAAATACAGAAAATTGAGCAGCTTTTAACTCATCAAGTTCAACTG GAAGACATAAATAGAGCCTTTGAGCTGCTTAAGGAACCTGATTGCGTGAAGGTTCTCAT CACATTGTGA

Candidate 1786 protein sequence

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Residues predicted to be involved in zinc binding are shown in red, bolded and underlined.

Candidate 26 open reading frame sequence from clone

TGGATTTGAAACCTGCAAGAAATTGGCTTCTCAAGGGATCACTGTGGTCCTTACTGCTA GAGATGAAAAAAGAGGGCTCGATGCTCTTGAGAAGCTCAAAGAATTGGGTCTCTCTGGT AAGGTGCTATTTCATCAGCTTGATGTGACCGATTCATCCAGCGTTGCTTCCCTTGCAGA ATTTGTCAAGAAACAATTTGGAAGACTTGATATCTTGGTAAACAATGCAGGGGTTAATG GAGTGATTACTGATGTTGAAGCTGTGAAAAAGCTAAATCCTGCAGAAGATCCGGCCGAT GTCGACTTTAGCAAGATATACAAGGAAACATATGAGTTGGCTGAAGAATGCATTCAAAT TAACTACTTTGGAACAAAAAGAACCACTGATGCACTTCTTCCTCTTCTCCAATTATCTG CATCACCAAGAATCGTAAATATTTCCTCCATCATGGGACAGTTAAAGAACATACCAAGT GGTGATCAATAACTTCTTGAAGGACTTCAAGGAAGGATCCCTTGCAGCTAAGGGATGGC CTCCATCCTTTTCAGCTTATATAGTCTCAAAAGTTGTGGTGAATGCCTACACAAGAATT CTGGCCAAGAAGTATCCCAATTTCAAGATCAATTGTGTTTGTCCAGGGTTTGCCAAGAC AGATTTGAATCATGGCTTAGGCTTATTAACTGCAGAAGAAGCTGCTGAAAAACCCTGTGA AACTCGCTTTGCTGCCTGATGATGGTCCTTCGGGTTTGTTCTTTGATCGCAGCGAGGAG TCATCGTTTGAATGA

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Candidate 4319 open reading frame sequence from clone

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Candidate 7220 open reading frame from clone

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Candidate 7220 protein sequence

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Candidate 8694 open reading frame from clone

ATGACGTCGTCATCCTCGCCGTCGCCGTCGCCGTTGAAGGGAAAAGCTGTGGATAAAGA GGATGTATATAGTGTACGAAATGCTGTTCCAGCGGATCATGGCCAGTCATTTATCTAAT CCAATGCCTCTTCCGCCTCTGAATGAGCTTACTTTTGTAGTCACCGGCTCCACCAGCGG TATTGGCCGCGAAATCGCCCGTCAATTGGCAGAGTCCGGCGGGCACGTGATAATGGCTG TTAGAAATACCAAGGCAGCTAATGAATTAATTCGCAAATGGCAAGAGGAATGGTCTGGT CGCGGACTACCTCTTAATATTGAGGTGATGGAGCTGGATCTTCTATCATTGGATTCGGT TGTGAGATTTGCTGAGGCATTTAACGCACGTTCCGGACCTTTGAATGTGCTCATTAACA ATGCTGGCATATTTTCAATCGGAGAACCACAGAGGTTTTCAAAGGATGGTTATGAAGAA CACCTGCAAGTGAATCATCTAGCTCCAGCACTGTTGTCTATATTGCTCTTACCTTCTCT TATTAGAGGCTCTCCAAGCCGAATAGTTAATGTGAACTCTATAATGCATTATGTTGGAT TTGTTGATACGGAAGATATGAATGTTACATCTGGGAGAAGAAGTACAGCAGTTTAGTT GGATACTCTGGCAGCAAACTGGCAGAGGTGATGTTCAGTAGTGTCCTGCACAAACGGCT GCCTGCCGAATCTGGCATAAGTGTACTATGCGTATCGCCTGGAATAGTACACACAAATG TGGCTAGGGATCTTTCAAAAATTGTTCAAGCTGCTTATCATCTAATTCCCTATTTTATT TTTAGTCCTGAAGAAGGCTCTAGAAGCGCACTTTTTGCAGCTACAGATCCACAAGTTCC GGAGTACACTGAGATGTTAAAAGCAGATGAGTGGCCAGTTTGTGCTTTCATATCTCAAG ATTGCCGTCCAACAAATCCATCTGAAGAAGCACATAATGTTGAAACTTCTTACAAAGTC TGGGAGAAGACCTTGGAAATGGTTGGACTTCCATCAGATGTTGTGGAGAAGCTTATAGA AGGGGAAGAAGTTAAATGCAGATATGGGGGCTTCTCAAGAGTAA

Candidate 8694 protein sequence

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М	V	G	L	Ρ	S	D	V	V	Е	Κ	L	Ι	Е	G	Е	Ε	V	Κ	С	R	Y	G	А	S	Q	Ε	Stop		S

Candidate 2041 open reading frame from clone

ATGGGATACTACCATTATTATATTAGACAACCACTCACCACTGACCAATTGGTTTTATC TCTTCCTTCTATAATGGCAGTTCCATCGGCAGAAACAGCAAAGACAATCGAGGCCTATG GATGGGCAGCCAGAGACTCATCTGGGCTTCTCTCTCCCCTTCAAGTTCCAGAGACGGGCC ACATGTAGTCAAGAATTGGTTTGGCACCACCAACTATCCCATTGTACCTGGGCACGAGG CAGTGGGCGTGGTGACTGAAATCGGCAACAAGGTACAGAAATTCAAGATTGGGGGACATA GTAGGCGTTAGTACTTACATTCGAACATGTCGGAGCTGCGAGAGATGTAAAGAAGGTGA AGACAGTTACTGTCCCAGCTTAATAACAGGAGATGGAACTTCATTTAGTGATGGAAAAG **ATGCATTTTTCTATGATCCAAATGATGATAATACAAAAGAGACAACAAAAACATATGGC** TCATATTCCAATTTCACAGTTGTGGATGAATATTACGTTATTCGTTGGCCAGAAAACTT TCCTTTGGCTGCTGGAGTACCTCTTCTTGTGCTGGTACAGTTCCTTATAGTCCAATGA GGCACTTTGGATTTGATAAACCTGGAATTCATATTGGTGGGTTGGATTTGGTGGGATT GGCAAATTAGTTGTTAAATTTGCTAAGGCTTTTGGAGTTAAAGTAACAGTGATTAGTAC CTCCATTGATAAGAAGCATGAAGCTATTCATGAATATGGTGCTCATGGATTCTTACTCA GCAAAGAACCTCAGCAGCTTCAGGCTGCTATTAATACTATGGAAGGTATAGTTGATACA GTTCCTAAAGTTCACCCTATTCTTCCATTGATCAAATTGTTGAAATTCGATGGTACCCT TCTTATGCTCGGAGCACCGCCGGAGCCATATGAGTTTCCAATCTCCACATTGCTTATGG GGAGGAAGAGGGTGGTGGGAAGTGCTGGAGCGAGCATGAAGGAAACACAAGAAATGATG GATTTTGCAGCGAAGCACAACATAGTTGCAGATGTTGAATTAAACCTCAGCAAGCTTGC GGCCGCACTCGAGCACCACCACCACCACTGAGATCCGGCTGCTAA

Candidate 2041 protein sequence

MGYYHYYIRQPLTTDQLVLSLPSIMAVPSA E T A K T I E A Y G W A A R D S S G L L S P F K F Q R R A T TEHDVQLKILYCGMCDWDLHVVKNWFGT ΤN Y P I V P G H E A V G V V T E I G N K V Q K F K I G D I V G V S T Y I R T C R S C E R C K E G E D S Y C P S L I T G DG TSFSDGKDAFFYDPNDDNTKETTKTYGS YS TVVDEYYVIRWPENFPLAAGVPLLCAGT ΝF V P Y S P M R H F G F D K P G I H I G V V G F G G I G K L V VKFAKAFGVKVTVISTSIDKKHEAIHEYGA H G F L L S K E P Q Q L Q A A I N T M E G I V D T V P K V H PILPLIKLLKFDGTLLMLGAPPEPYEFPIS T L L M G R K R V V G S A G A S M K E T Q E M M D F A A K H NIVADVELNLSKLAAALEHHHHQPLRSGC Stop



Hexanes: EtOAc (1:1)

Figure A.1 – No NAD(P)+ and no enzyme controls. No product formation is observed when either enzyme or NAD(P)+ is missing from the assay mixture.



Hexanes: EtOAc (1:1)

Figure A.2 – No zinc controls. Product formation is still observed when zinc is omitted from the reaction, suggesting zinc binds during protein folding.



Hexanes: EtOAc (1:1)

Figure A.3 – Chelator controls. 1 mM EDTA was added to the assay mixture and zinc was omitted. Product formation is only quelled with the Candidate 1786-NADP+ assay, suggesting the zinc binds less tightly under those conditions.



Figure A.4: Authentic standard of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase substrate 10-hydroxygeraniol **8**.



Figure A.5: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol authentic standard. 10-hydroxygeraniol is the substrate for 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase.



Figure A.6: Mass spectrum of 10-hydroxygeraniol authentic standard.



Figure A.7: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-oxogeranial authentic standard. 10-oxogeranial is the enzymatic product of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase.



Figure A.8: Mass spectrum of 10-oxogeranial authentic standard.



Figure A.9: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 1786 and cofactor NAD+. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.10: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 1786 and cofactor NAD+ assay. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.11: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 1786 and cofactor NAD+ without the addition of ZnCl₂ to the assay mixture. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.


Figure A.12: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 1786 and cofactor NAD+ assay when ZnCl₂ is omitted from the assay mixture. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.13: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 1786 and cofactor NAD+ when EDTA to a final concentration of 1 mM was added to the reaction mixture and ZnCl₂ was omitted. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.14: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 1786 and cofactor NAD+ assay when EDTA is added to a final concentration of 1 mM in the assay mixture and ZnCl₂ is omitted. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.15: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 1786 and cofactor NADP+. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.16: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 1786 and cofactor NADP+ assay. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.17: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 1786 and cofactor NADP+ without the addition of ZnCl₂ to the assay mixture. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.18: Mass spectrum of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 1786+ and cofactor NAD when ZnCl₂ was omitted from the reaction. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.19: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screening with Candidate 1786 and cofactor NADP+ when EDTA to a final concentration of 1 mM was added to the reaction mixture and ZnCl₂ was omitted. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.20: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 1786 and cofactor NAD+ assay when EDTA is added to a final concentration of 1 mM and ZnCl₂ is omitted. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-hydroxygeraniol enables positive assignment as starting substrate, not product.



Figure A.21: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 1786 in the absence of either NAD+ or NADP+. No peak co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard; the region of 10-oxogeranial elution is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.22: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 26 and cofactor NAD+. No peak co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard; the region of 10-oxogeranial elution is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.23: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 26 and cofactor NADP+. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.24: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 1786 and cofactor NADP+ assay. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.25: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 26 and cofactor NADP+ without the addition of ZnCl₂ to the assay mixture. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.26: Mass spectrum of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 26 and cofactor NADP+ when ZnCl₂ was omitted from the assay mixture. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.27: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 26 and cofactor NADP+ when EDTA to a final concentration of 1 mM was added to the reaction mixture and ZnCl₂ was omitted. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.28: Mass spectrum of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 26 and cofactor NADP+ when ZnCl₂ was omitted from the assay mixture. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.29: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 26 in the absence of either NAD+ or NADP+. No peak co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard; the region of 10-oxogeranial elution is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.30: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 4319 and cofactor NAD+. No peak co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard; the region of 10-oxogeranial elution is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.31: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 4319 and cofactor NADP+. No peak co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard; the region of 10-oxogeranial elution is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.32: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 5743 and cofactor NAD+. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.33: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 5743 and cofactor NADP+ assay. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.34: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 5743 and cofactor NAD+ without the addition of ZnCl₂ to the assay mixture. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.35: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 5743 and cofactor NAD+ assay when $ZnCl_2$ is omitted from the assay mixture. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.36: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 5743 and cofactor NAD+ when EDTA is added to a final concentration of 1 mM and ZnCl₂ is omitted from assay mixture. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.37: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 5743 and cofactor NAD+ assay when EDTA is added to a final concentration of 1 mM and ZnCl₂ is omitted from the assay mixture. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.38: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 5743 and cofactor NADP+. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.39: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 5743 and cofactor NADP+ assay. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.40: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 5743 and cofactor NADP+ when ZnCl₂ is omitted from the assay mixture. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.41: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 5743 and cofactor NADP+ assay when ZnCl₂ is omitted from the assay mixture. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.42: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 5743 and cofactor NADP+ when EDTA is added to a final assay concentration of 1 mM and $ZnCl_2$ is omited. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.43: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 5743 and cofactor NADP+ assay when EDTA is added to the assay mixture to a final concentration of 1 mM and $ZnCl_2$ is omitted. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-oxogeranial enables positive assignment.



Figure A.44: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 5743 in the absence of either NAD+ or NADP+. No peak co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard; the region of 10-oxogeranial elution is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.45: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screen with Candidate 7220 and cofactor NAD+. No peak co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard; the region of 10-oxogeranial elution is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.46: GC-MS chromatogram of 10-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase candidate screening with Candidate 7220 and cofactor NADP+. The peak that co-elutes with the authentic 10-oxogeranial standard is highlighted in purple.



Figure A.47: Mass spectrum of highlighted peak from Candidate 7220 and cofactor NADP+ assay. Similarity to the mass spectrum of authentic 10-hydroxygeraniol enables positive assignment as starting substrate, not product.


Figure A.48: No enzyme control with NAD+ cofactor. No 10-oxogeranial product is observed. The single peak shown co-elutes with substrate 10-hydroxygeraniol.



Figure A.49: Mass spectrum of no enzyme control with cofactor NAD+. Averaging of the single peak in the GC-MS chromatogram displays a mass spectrum signature consistent with 10-hydroxgeraniol, the substrate.



Figure A.50: No enzyme control with NADP+ cofactor. No 10-oxogeranial product is observed. The single peak shown co-elutes with substrate 10-hydroxygeraniol.



Figure A.51: Mass spectrum of no enzyme control with cofactor NADP+. Averaging of the single peak in the GC-MS chromatogram displays a mass spectrum signature consistent with 10-hydroxgeraniol, the substrate.

Weslee S. Glenn

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Education

2011-present	The John Innes Centre, Norwich, UK
	Visiting Postgraduate Student, Department of Biological Chemistry
	Laboratory of Professor Sarah E. O'Connor
2008-present	Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA
-	Ph.D. Candidate in Biological Chemistry, Department of Chemistry
	National Science Foundation Predoctoral Scholar (2010-13)
2004-2008	Hampton University, Hampton, VA
	Bachelor of Science in Chemistry, 2008 - Summa cum laude
	Honors College, 2008 – Summa cum laude
	Cumulative GPA: 4.01 GPA in major: 4.06
	(A + = 4.1, A = 4.0)
	National Science Foundation - Historically Black College Undergraduate
	Program Scholar (2005-2008)
	Presidential Scholar (2004-2008)

Research Experience

1/2009-present	Laboratory of Professor Sarah E. O'Connor
-	The John Innes Institute, Department of Biological Chemistry
	Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Department of Chemistry
	Metabolic engineering of plant alkaloid metabolism
6/2008-7/2008	Laboratory of Professor Shanthi Paranawithana
	Hampton University, Department of Chemistry
	Gene expression and activity assay development of a putative
	transcriptional regulator in Mycobacterium tuberculosis
6/2007-8/2007	Laboratory of Professor Sarah E. O'Connor
	Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Department of Chemistry
	Substrate specificity of Tabersonine 16-Hydroxylase from C. roseus
1/2007-5/2007	Laboratory of Professor Edmund Ndip
	Hampton University, Department of Chemistry
	Computational research on two photon absorbers – optical switching
6/2006-8/2006	Laboratory of Robert H. Grubbs
	California Institute of Technology, Division of Chemistry and Chemical
	Engineering
	Development of a more active and stable ruthenium catalyst for
	tetrasubstituted olefin formation
9/2005-5/2007	Laboratory of Professor Charles Bump
	Hampton University, Department of Chemistry

Toward the development of a morphing wing - computational research on piezoelectric polymers and smart materials

Publications

4/2013	Recent Progress in the Metabolic Engineering of Alkaloids in Plant
	Systems
	Weslee S. Glenn [†] , Weerawat Runguphan [†] and Sarah E. O'Connor († -
	equal authorship)
	Current Opinion in Biotechnology, 2013, 24(2), pp. 354-65.
12/2012	An Alternative Route to Cyclic Terpenes by Reductive Cyclization in
	Iridoid Biosynthesis
	Fernando Geu-Flores, Nathaniel H. Sherden, Vincent Courdavault,
	Vincent Burlat, Weslee S. Glenn, Cen Wu, Ezekiel Nims, Yuehua Cui
	and Sarah E. O'Connor
	Nature, 2012, 492(7427), pp. 138-42.
6/2012	Redesign of a Dioxygenase in Morphine Biosynthesis
	Weerawat Runguphan [†] , Weslee Glenn [†] and Sarah E. O'Connor († - equal
	authorship)
	Chemistry and Biology, 2012, 19, pp. 674-678
12/2011	Reengineering a Tryptophan Halogenase to Chlorinate a Direct
	Alkaloid Precursor
	Weslee S. Glenn, Ezekiel Nims and Sarah E. O'Connor
	Journal of the American Chemical Society, 2011, 133 (48), pp. 19346-
	19349

Research and Academic Grants

Massachusetts Institute of Technology

9/2010-9/2013	National Science Foundation Predoctoral Fellowship (bioorganic)
5/2010-8/2010	Walter L. Hughes Graduate Fellowship in Biochemistry
9/2009- 5/2010	Henry A. Hill Fellowship
9/2008-5/2009	Chemistry/ Biology Interface Program Training Grant
9/2008-5/2009	Institute Fellowship

Hampton University

5/2005-5/2008	Historically Black College/ University Undergraduate Program
	Scholarship (sponsored by the National Science Foundation)
9/2004-5/2008	Presidential Scholarship (Full tuition, room and board)

Other Awards

Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the John Innes Centre

3/2012	Friends of John Innes Outreach presentation voted "Most worthy of
	additional funding"
	Getting Plants to Make Medicines
2/2011	Massachusetts Institute of Technology Martin Luther King, Jr.
	Leadership Award
	(awarded for work on reducing stereotype threat in the science
	classroom)

Hampton University

5/2008	Chemistry Excellence in Service Award
5/2008	Merck Index Excellence in Undergraduate Chemistry Award
5/2008	School of Science flag bearer for 2008 Commencement Exercises
4/2008	All-Virginia Collegiate Honors Council Poster Award Winner
4/2008	Honors Council Award 2008 – Chemistry
4/2008	Honors Council Award 2008 – Honors College
12/2007	ACS Award for Achievement in Physical Chemistry
12/2006	Beta Kappa Chi Scientific Honor Society Inductee
12/2006	ACS Award for Achievement in Organic Chemistry
11/2006	Golden Key International Honour Society Inductee
10/2006	Alpha Kappa Mu Honors Society Inductee
3/2006	"Future Nobel Prize Nominee – Chemistry" 2006 Honors Council
	Award
12/2005	ACS Award for Freshman Achievement in Chemistry

Professional Activities

Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the John Innes Centre

3/2012-present	Contract science editor (for scientists who are non-native English speakers)
	American Journal Experts
6/2011	Future Faculty Workshop of MIT
6/2010-8/2010	Developed an interactive workshop to mitigate the effects of
	stereotype threat in teaching assistants at the Massachusetts
	Institute of Technology
	Howard Hughes Medical Institute Professor Program
	Professor Catherine L. Drennan (MIT)
9/2009-7/2010	Mentor for middle school-aged children interested in STEM
	Office of Education and Outreach Programs (MIT)
9/2008-9/2009	Co-chair of National Organization for the Professional Development of Black Chemists and Chemical Engineers

Hampton University

9/2007-5/2008	Chemistry Club – Co-President
9/2006-5/2008	Department of Chemistry – Head Tutor
9/2006-5/2007	Chemistry Club – Special Projects Chair
9/2005-5/2008	Honors College – Winner's Circle Chair

Conferences and Presentations

3/2012	Getting Plants to Make Medicines
	(Invited outreach lecture)
	Friends of John Innes
11/2011	Hijacking Monoterpene Indole Alkaloid Biosynthesis for the
	Production of Unnatural Natural Products
	John Innes Institute, Department of Biological Chemistry
12/2010	Optimizing Engineered Halogenation in Periwinkle Plant Culture
	(Invited lecture)
	Hampton University, Department of Chemistry
11/2010	Optimizing Engineered Halogenation in Periwinkle Plant Culture
	National Organization of Black Chemists and Chemical Engineers
	Northeastern Regional Conference
10/2009	Engineering Halogenation into Periwinkle (poster)
	National Organization for the Professional Development of Black
	Chemists and Chemical Engineers Regional Conference
7/2008	Toward a Fluorescence Based Activity Assay of Rv 1151c in
	Mycobacterium tuberculosis
	Hampton University Center for Research Excellence in Science and
	Technology – Internal Review
4/2008	Substrate Specificity of Tabersonine 16-Hydroxylase-Reducatase in
	Catharanthus roseus (poster)
	All Virginia Honors Council Conference
4/2008	Substrate Specificity of Tabersonine 16-Hydroxylase-Reductase in
	Catharanthus roseus (Poster)
	American Chemical Society Southeast Regional Meeting
3/2008	Substrate Specificity of Tabersonine 16-Hydroxylase-Reducase in
	Catharanthus roseus (Invited lecture-selected paper in the Rohm and
	Haas National Undergraduate Competition)
	National Organization for the Professional Development of Black
	Chemists and Chemical Engineers Conference
10/2007	Development of a More Active and More Stable Ring-Closing
	Metathesis Catalyst
	Historically Black College/ University Undergraduate Program
	National Conference

Teaching and Education Experience

Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the John Innes Centre

10/2011-5/2012	Postgraduate Mentor to Master's Student
	Laboratory of Professor Sarah E. O'Connor
9/2010-3/2011	Certificate in Teaching College Science and Engineering
	Teaching and Learning Laboratory (MIT)
6/2010-9/2010	Diversity training – Reducing Stereotype Threat
	Professor Catherine Drennan's Howard Hughes Medical Institute
	Professor's Program
9/2009-5/2010	Middle School Counselor
	Office of Engineering Outreach Programs (MIT)
8/2009-12/2009	General Chemistry (5.111) Teaching Assistant

Hampton University

6/2008-7/2008	Mentor to High School Science Student
	Laboratory of Professor Shanthi Paranawithana
6/2008-7/2008	Organic Chemistry Laboratory Teaching Assistant
6/2008-7/2008	Middle school counselor for the "Young Doctors' Program"
9/2005-8/2008	General Chemistry and Organic Chemistry Tutor
9/2005-12/2005	Elementary School Tutor
	Read: For the Future

References

Professor Sarah E. O'Connor (advisor) sarah.o'connor@jic.ac.uk (E-Mail) The John Innes Centre Department of Biological Chemistry

Professor Catherine L. Drennan (committee chair) cdrennan@mit.edu (E-Mail) Massachusetts Institute of Technology Department of Chemistry

Professor Barbara Imperiali (committee member) imper@mit.edu (E-Mail) Massachusetts Institute of Technology Department of Biology