

Iridoid Synthase Activity Is Common among the Plant Progesterone 5 β -Reductase Family

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ABSTRACT

***Catharanthus roseus*, the Madagascar periwinkle, synthesizes bioactive monoterpenoid indole alkaloids, including the anti-cancer drugs vinblastine and vincristine. The monoterpenoid branch of the alkaloid pathway leads to the secoiridoid secologanin and involves the enzyme iridoid synthase (IS), a member of the progesterone 5 β -reductase (P5 β R) family. IS reduces 8-oxogeranial to iridodial. Through transcriptome mining, we show that IS belongs to a family of six *C. roseus* P5 β R genes. Characterization of recombinant CrP5 β R proteins demonstrates that all but CrP5 β R3 can reduce progesterone and thus can be classified as P5 β Rs. Three of them, namely CrP5 β R1, CrP5 β R2, and CrP5 β R4, can also reduce 8-oxogeranial, pointing to a possible redundancy with IS (corresponding to CrP5 β R5) in secoiridoid synthesis. In-depth functional analysis by subcellular protein localization, gene expression analysis, *in situ* hybridization, and virus-induced gene silencing indicate that besides IS, CrP5 β R4 may also participate in secoiridoid biosynthesis. We cloned a set of P5 β R genes from angiosperm plant species not known to produce iridoids and demonstrate that the corresponding recombinant proteins are also capable of using 8-oxogeranial as a substrate. This suggests that IS activity is intrinsic to angiosperm P5 β R proteins and has evolved early during evolution.**

Key words: *Catharanthus roseus*, *Medicago truncatula*, progesterone reductase, secoiridoid, monoterpenoid indole alkaloid, VEP1-encoded enone-reductases

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INTRODUCTION

Plants produce a wide range of specialized metabolites including the large classes of terpenoids and alkaloids, the source of many bioactive compounds that help plants to survive in their environment with interesting human applications. The evolution of the corresponding biosynthetic pathways required the evolution of new genes, for instance encoding enzymes with new activities or substrate specificities, which mainly occurred through gene duplications with successive diversifications and neofunctionalizations (Ober, 2010). The advent of ever cheaper and faster next-generation sequencing technologies in the past decade has led

to the generation of massive gene lists gathered from genomes and transcriptomes of numerous model, crop, medicinal, and other plant species. These offer unprecedented catalogs of enzyme-encoding genes, which can be used in synthetic biology programs and in the study of pathway evolution. This is well illustrated by the cytochrome P450 (P450) family, which appears to form the largest superfamily of enzymes, essentially due to its expansion in plants. P450s catalyze most of the rate-limiting

and irreversible reactions in plant-specific specialized metabolic pathways but are also involved in primary metabolic house-keeping functions, such as the synthesis of sterols, fatty acids, hormones, and other signaling molecules (Schuler and Werck-Reichhart, 2003; Renault et al., 2014).

Another protein superfamily linked to plant-specialized metabolism is that of the short-chain dehydrogenases/reductases (SDR), which include the Vein Patterning 1 (VEP1)-encoded enone-reductases (Jörnvall et al., 1995; Kavanagh et al., 2008). The latter enzymes were first isolated from cardenolide-producing plants and termed progesterone 5 β -reductases (P5 β Rs) because they enantioselectively convert progesterone, a precursor in cardenolide biosynthesis, to 5 β -pregnane-3,20-dione (Gärtner et al., 1994). Meanwhile, P5 β R genes have not only been identified in cardenolide-producing plant species, such as *Digitalis lanata* and *Erysimum crepidifolium*, but also in cardenolide-free plants, such as *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Today, over 100 distinct plant P5 β R genes can be found in the NCBI database, generally with several paralogs from a single species (see e.g., <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nucleotide/>). P5 β R likely originated in an α -proteobacterium and is thought to have been laterally propagated through nets of ecological interactions (Tarrío et al., 2011). Several P5 β R cDNAs have been functionally expressed in *Escherichia coli* and the corresponding recombinant enzymes are capable of reducing a large variety of substrates bearing an active C = C double bond by a 1,4-addition mechanism using NADPH as the co-substrate (Herl et al., 2006; Gavidia et al., 2007; Burda et al., 2009; Herl et al., 2009; Bauer et al., 2010; Munkert et al., 2011; Durchschein et al., 2012).

The wide occurrence of functional P5 β Rs within the angiosperm lineage (Bauer et al., 2010) and their relaxed substrate specificity raised the question whether P5 β Rs are involved in more biosynthetic pathways than previously assumed. Indeed, a P5 β R homolog, denominated iridoid synthase (IS), was recently isolated from *Catharanthus roseus* (JX974564) and reported to be involved in secoiridoid biosynthesis, since it was able to reduce 8-oxogeranial and form iridodial (Geu-Flores et al., 2012; Supplemental Figure 1). It was suggested that after the 1,4-addition reduction of 8-oxogeranial, an enol intermediate would be formed that is further converted into iridodial, either through a cycloaddition via an inverse-electron demand Diels–Alder reaction or through an intramolecular Michael addition.

The secoiridoid pathway is a monoterpenoid pathway that was recently fully elucidated (Geu-Flores et al., 2012; Asada et al., 2013; Salim et al., 2013; Miettinen et al., 2014; Salim et al., 2014). It starts with geraniol, comprises eight enzymes, including IS, that catalyze successive oxidation, reduction, glycosylation, and methylation reactions, and leads to secologanin as the branch end point. Secologanin is coupled to tryptamine by strictosidine synthase to form strictosidine, the universal precursor of the monoterpenoid indole alkaloids (MIAs), which are synthesized in a wide variety of plants. Many (seco)iridoids and MIAs have valuable bioactivities, including the well-known molecules vinblastine and vincristine from *C. roseus*, which are used for the treatment of several types of cancer.

In this study, we mined public *C. roseus* transcriptome databases and identified five other genes that show high sequence similarity

to IS and the other P5 β R entries in the NCBI database. All of them were cloned and functionally characterized. We assessed their substrate specificities to determine whether all are able to reduce progesterone, small enones, as well as the IS substrate 8-oxogeranial. Furthermore, we analyzed their subcellular accumulation, expression patterns, and *in planta* activity to investigate their participation in MIA biosynthesis in *C. roseus* plants. Finally, we cloned P5 β Rs from other, non-iridoid-producing angiosperm species and assessed their capacity to reduce 8-oxogeranial.

RESULTS

Identification of Six P5 β R Genes in *C. roseus*

Previously, we have reported on CathaCyc, a metabolic pathway database from *C. roseus* built from RNA-Seq data (www.cathacyc.org; Van Moerkercke et al., 2013). We screened this transcriptome database for candidate P5 β Rs by performing a TBLASTN search with a previously characterized P5 β R from *D. lanata* (GenBank accession number, AAS76634; Herl et al., 2006). Contigs corresponding to five full-length and several partial P5 β Rs were identified. To obtain the full-length open reading frames of the partial P5 β R sequences, a BLASTN search with the partial sequences was performed in the *C. roseus* transcriptome database from the Medicinal Plant Genomics Resource (MPGR) consortium (<http://medicinalplantgenomics.msu.edu/>), leading to the identification of a sixth full-length P5 β R sequence. The P5 β R sequences identified were denominated CrP5 β R1 to CrP5 β R6 (Figure 1), with CrP5 β R1 and CrP5 β R6 showing highest and lowest sequence similarity to DIP5 β R, respectively, and with CrP5 β R5 corresponding to the recently characterized IS (GenBank accession number, JX974564) involved in MIA biosynthesis (Geu-Flores et al., 2012). To avoid confusion, we suggest using the acronym P5 β R and adding a two-letter code indicating the plant origin and a consecutive number if more than one gene is present in a given species.

Phylogenetic Analysis of the CrP5 β Rs

The six *C. roseus* P5 β Rs isolated showed a sequence identity between 41% and 87% at the amino acid level, which was similar to the range when compared to P5 β Rs from other species, such as At4g24220, At5g58750, DIP5 β R1 (AAS93804), DIP5 β R2 (ADL28122), EcP5 β R1 (ADG56544), and EcP5 β R2, which had a sequence identity between 41% and 78%.

A phylogenetic analysis using the full-length amino acid sequences from the P5 β Rs from *C. roseus* and other plants demonstrated that the P5 β R family can be clustered into at least two groups, which we termed P5 β R cluster I and cluster II (Figure 2). Cluster I contains the *C. roseus* CrP5 β R1, CrP5 β R2, CrP5 β R3, and CrP5 β R4, which cluster together with DIP5 β R1 (AAS76634), EcP5 β R1 (ADG56544), and *Arabidopsis* At4g24220 (VEP1). CrP5 β R5/IS and CrP5 β R6, on the other hand, cluster together with DIP5 β R2 (ADL28122) and *Arabidopsis* At5g58750. Thus, P5 β R genes residing in one genome have paralogous sequences.

Characterization of Recombinant CrP5 β R Proteins Produced in *E. coli*

Paralogs may have similar functions or activities. To test this assumption, cDNA corresponding to all CrP5 β R genes was

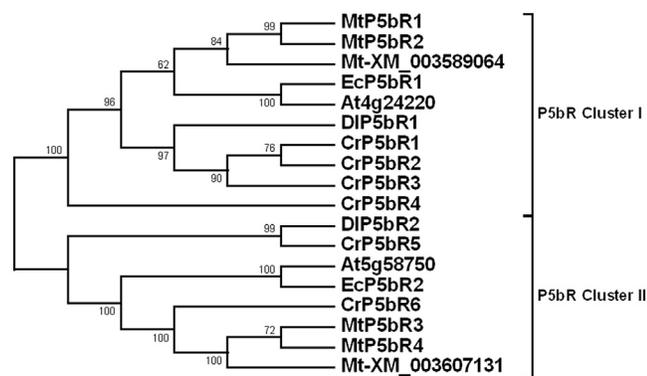


Figure 2. Cladogram of Different P5 β R Amino Acid Sequences Generated by MEGA 4.

The evolutionary history was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method. The optimal tree with the sum of branch length 3.45318782 is shown. The percentage of replicate trees, in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (1000 replicates), is shown next to the branches. The evolutionary distances were computed using the Poisson correction method and are in the units of the number of amino acid substitutions per site. All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated from the data set (Complete deletion option). There were a total of 353 positions in the final data set. Cluster I includes P5 β R from *M. truncatula* (MtP5 β R1, XM_003638410; MtP5 β R1, XM_003638414) as well as CrP5 β R1–4, EcP5 β R1 (ADG56544), DIP5 β R1 (AAS93804), and At4g24220. Cluster II contains CrP5 β R5–6, At5g58750, EcP5 β R2, DIP5 β R2 (ADL28122), and two *M. truncatula* reductases (MtP5 β R3, XM_003609687; MtP5 β R4, XM_003609689).

isolated and expressed in *E. coli*. Recombinant enzymes could be produced in sufficient amounts to allow further characterization of CrP5 β R1, CrP5 β R2, CrP5 β R4, CrP5 β R5, and CrP5 β R6, but not of CrP5 β R3 (Figure 3).

The kinetic data for the substrates progesterone, 2-cyclohexen-1-one, 8-oxogeranial, and methylvinylketone (MVK) (for chemical structures, see Supplemental Figure 1) were determined. Progesterone is a precursor in cardenolide biosynthesis (Gärtner et al., 1994; Kreis et al., 1998), whereas 2-cyclohexen-1-one was used as an alternative P5 β R substrate in several studies (Munkert et al., 2011; Bauer et al., 2012). MVK, a small toxic molecule that can also be reduced by P5 β R, was identified as a reactive electrophile that activates expression of defense genes and leads to a rise of jasmonate (JA) in *Arabidopsis* (Alméras et al., 2003). 8-Oxogeranial is the reported substrate for CrP5 β R5/IS (Geu-Flores et al., 2012).

Gas chromatography (GC)–mass spectrometry (MS) analyses revealed that all available recombinant (r)CrP5 β R enzymes reduced progesterone enantioselectively to 5 β -pregane-3,20-dione and thus qualified as P5 β R_s *sensu stricto* (Supplemental Figure 2). Most of the rCrP5 β R_s enzymes tested were able to reduce most of the substrates, including 8-oxogeranial (Table 1). After incubation of rCrP5 β R5/IS with 8-oxogeranial, iridodial was formed (Figure 4), reproducing the result of Geu-Flores et al. (2012). GC–MS and thin-layer chromatography analysis indicated that rCrP5 β R1, rCrP5 β R2, and rCrP5 β R4 were also able to form iridodial from 8-oxogeranial (Figure 4). In the case of rCrP5 β R6, only trace amounts of iridodial could be detected, hence it might also be capable of reducing 8-oxogeranial (Figure 4).

Next, enzymes were compared and classified using their catalytic efficacies (k_{cat}/K_M) as a measure. All kinetic constants were determined using a photometric assay for enzyme activity determination (Bauer et al., 2010). Apparent K_M , V_{max} , and k_{cat} values are shown in Table 1. 8-Oxogeranial was by far the best substrate for all rCrP5 β R_s (except rCrP5 β R6, which was not further tested with this substrate). The efficacies were up to 1300 times higher than those for progesterone. For rCrP5 β R5/IS with 8-oxogeranial as substrate, we determined K_M (8.8 μM) and k_{cat} (1.4/s) values very similar to those reported by Geu-Flores et al. (2012) (K_M , 4.5 μM ; k_{cat} , 1.6/s; Table 1). rCrP5 β R6 (cluster II) was more effective for progesterone than rCrP5 β R2 or rCrP5 β R4 of cluster I. Progesterone was only a very poor substrate for rCrP5 β R5. Therefore, reliable kinetic constants could not be determined for this particular enzyme/substrate combination. Although considerable variation was detected among the rCrP5 β R enzymes for the substrates 2-cyclohexen-1-one and MVK, a preference could be observed for both substrates with P5 β R_s from cluster I, in particular rCrP5 β R2 (Table 1).

All Six CrP5 β R_s Are Localized in the Cytosol

The differences in substrate specificity can be interpreted as the evolution of different physiological functions for the different CrP5 β R_s *in planta* but, conversely, the overlap in substrate range may point to genetic redundancy. The actual substrate range *in planta* is also determined by the subcellular localization of the enzyme. To assess the subcellular localization of all CrP5 β R_s, *Nicotiana tabacum* Bright-Yellow-2 (BY-2) cells were co-transformed with constructs coding for green fluorescent protein (GFP)-tagged CrP5 β R proteins and for free red fluorescent protein (RFP). Stable transgenic cultures emitting both red and green fluorescence were analyzed with confocal microscopy. The free RFP protein localized to the cytoplasm but was also present in the nucleus due to passive diffusion. The GFP signal of the GFP-CrP5 β R5 fusion protein indicated a predominant cytosolic localization of CrP5 β R5 (Figure 5A), which is in agreement with the previously reported localization of the protein in *C. roseus* cells (Geu-Flores et al., 2012). Likewise, all other CrP5 β R_s showed a localization pattern nearly identical to CrP5 β R5, indicating a predominant cytosolic localization of all six CrP5 β R enzymes (Figure 5B and 5C) and suggesting that at the subcellular level, all have potentially equal access to 8-oxogeranial.

Transcriptional Regulation of the CrP5 β R_s

Transcriptional regulation of gene expression is another regulatory level, if not the most important one, that determines the substrate range and specificity of the corresponding enzymes and eliminates apparent genetic redundancy. To investigate the transcriptional regulation of the CrP5 β R_s, we first analyzed their expression in the CathaCyc RNA-Seq atlas (Van Moerkercke et al., 2013; <http://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/orcae/overview/Catro>), which currently holds the expression data from the MPGR and SmartCell consortia and comprises a total of 30 different samples of different *C. roseus* plant organs, plants, suspension cells, and hairy roots under various conditions. A cluster analysis with all known MIA biosynthesis genes (Courdavault et al., 2014; Miettinen et al., 2014) confirmed the tight co-regulation of CrP5 β R5/IS with the other early genes of

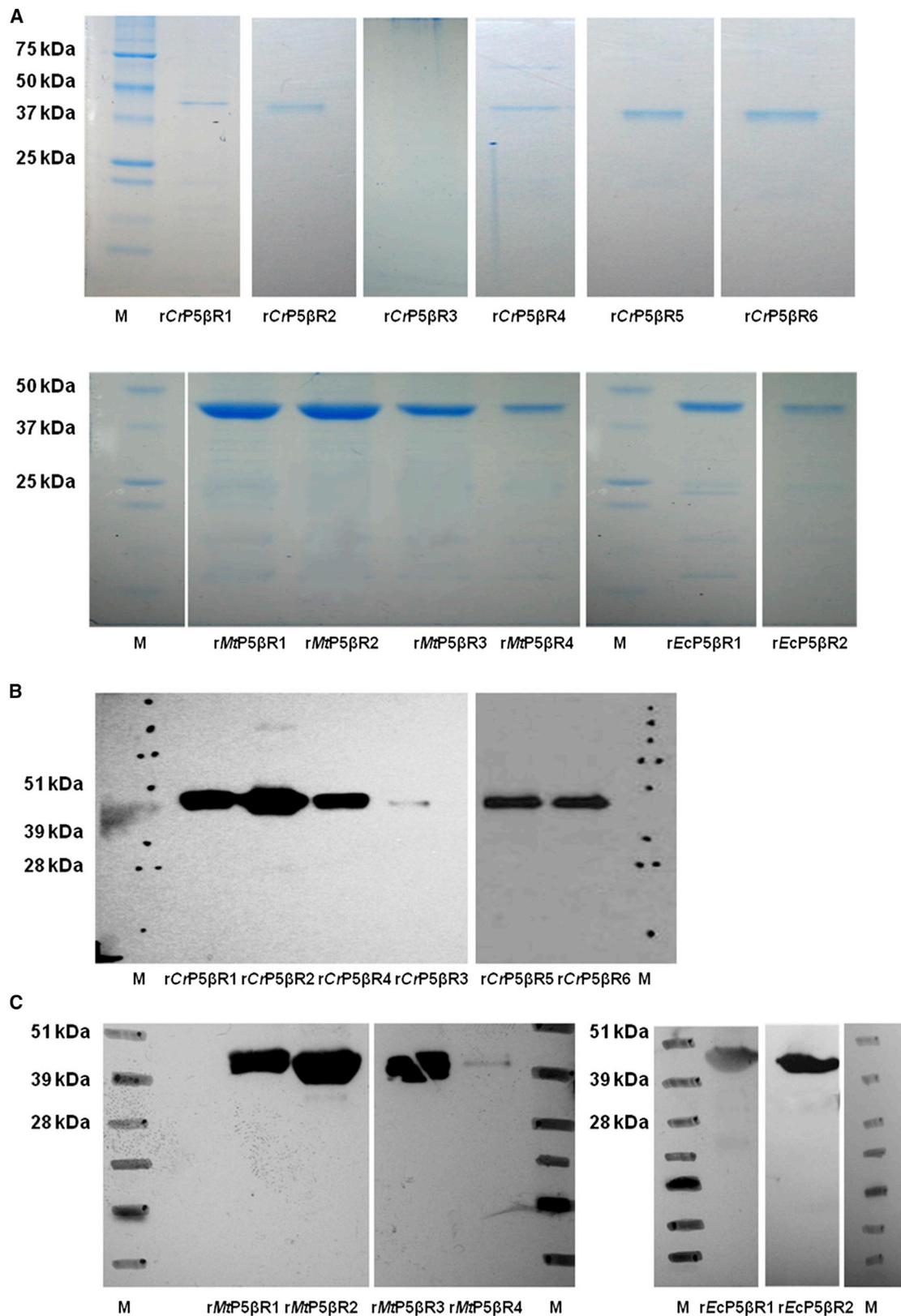


Figure 3. SDS-PAGE and Immunoblot Analyses of rCrP5βR, rMtP5βR, and rEcP5βR Proteins.

(A) SDS-PAGE analysis of recombinant CrP5βRs, MtP5βRs, and EcP5βRs. Purified rP5βR proteins have a size of about 42 kDa and were visualized with Coomassie-Brilliant-Blue R 250. For rAtVEP1, see Herl et al. (2009).

(B and C) Immunoblot analysis of rCrP5βRs (B), MtP5βRs and EcP5βRs (C) using anti-His antibodies (primary) and anti-mouse IgG-peroxidase antibodies (secondary). Chemiluminescence was used for detection. For rAtVEP1, see Herl et al. (2009).

Enzyme	Substrate											
	Progesterone			Cyclohexen-1-one			8-Oxogeraniol			MVK		
	K_M (μM)	k_{cat} (s^{-1})	k_{cat}/K_M ($\text{s}^{-1} \text{M}^{-1}$)	K_M (μM)	k_{cat} (s^{-1})	k_{cat}/K_M ($\text{s}^{-1} \text{M}^{-1}$)	K_M (μM)	k_{cat} (s^{-1})	k_{cat}/K_M ($\text{s}^{-1} \text{M}^{-1}$)	K_M (μM)	k_{cat} (s^{-1})	k_{cat}/K_M ($\text{s}^{-1} \text{M}^{-1}$)
P5βRs from Cluster I (see Figure 2)												
rCrP5 β R1	n.i.			n.i.			8.9	1.15	128 940	n.i.		
rCrP5 β R2	100	0.02	232.7	115.8	0.86	7426	10.1	1.22	120 731	148	0.86	5829
rCrP5 β R4	153	0.019	123	296	0.03	104	7.8	0.96	122 569	123	0.20	1562
rEcP5 β R1	77	0.01	130*	518	2.45	4730*	20	1.18	56 663	344	0.73	2143
rMtP5 β R1	144	0.50	3652	82.1	0.32	5321	9.3	0.91	97 780	136	0.54	3992
rMtP5 β R2	73	0.40	5631	214	0.04	220	11.7	0.76	64 889	111	0.08	701
P5βRs from Cluster II (see Figure 2)												
rCrP5 β R5	n.i.			231	0.01	43	8.8	1.4	155 560	110	0.04	364
rCrP5 β R6	75.5	0.40	5530	128	0.03	233	n.d.			118	0.03	261
rEcP5 β R2	82	0.045	552	325	0.007	20	n.d.			224	0.05	245
rMtP5 β R3	260	0.04	154	109	0.017	155	n.d.			86.7	0.02	201
rMtP5 β R4	n.i.			136	0.006	46	n.d.			89.9	0.016	185

Table 1. Kinetic Data of Different P5 β Rs from *Catharanthus roseus*, *Medicago truncatula*, and *Erysimum crepidifolium*.

SD $K_M \pm \leq 25\%$; n.i., not investigated; n.d., no *cis-trans* iridoid was detected as product.

*Munkert et al. (2011).

the iridoid pathway, such as *geraniol synthase* (*GES*), *geraniol 8-oxidase* (*G8O*), and *8-hydroxygeraniol oxidoreductase* (*8-HGO*) (Figure 6).

These four, as well as almost all other known MIA genes, were induced by methyl jasmonate (MeJA), both in cell suspension cultures and whole *C. roseus* plants (Figure 6; Supplemental Table 1). Nonetheless, the early iridoid pathway genes, such as *CrP5 β R5/IS* on the one hand, and the late iridoid and downstream MIA genes, such as *loganic acid O-methyltransferase* (*LAMT*), *secologanin synthase* (*SLS*), *strictosidine synthase* (*STR*), and *strictosidine β -glucosidase* (*SGD*) on the other hand, showed different induction characteristics and grouped in two distinct expression clusters (Figure 6). *CrP5 β R4* grouped in the *SLS/STR* cluster. In contrast to the *STR* gene, however, which is a known target of the transcriptional regulator *ORCA3* (van der Fits and Memelink, 2000), *CrP5 β R4* expression was not elevated in the *ORCA3* overexpressing cell suspension cultures. This was similar to *CrP5 β R5/IS*, but also to other iridoid genes acting downstream of *CrP5 β R5/IS* but before *LAMT*, and including *iridoid oxidase* (*IO*), *7-deoxyloganetic acid glucosyl transferase* (*7-DLGT*) and *7-deoxyloganic acid hydroxylase* (*7-DLH*), which also grouped in the *SLS/STR* cluster in our analysis (Figure 6; Supplemental Table 1). Overall, this supports a possible link with secoiridoid biosynthesis for *CrP5 β R4*.

In contrast, the *CrP5 β R1*, *CrP5 β R2*, *CrP5 β R3*, and *CrP5 β R6* genes were not inducible by MeJA and did not cluster with the known iridoid or MIA genes (Figure 6; Supplemental Table 1). In fact, *CrP5 β R1*, *CrP5 β R3*, and *CrP5 β R6* were hardly expressed and had constitutive low levels across all samples analyzed (Figure 6; Supplemental Table 2). *CrP5 β R2* also had a constitutive expression across all transcriptome samples, but

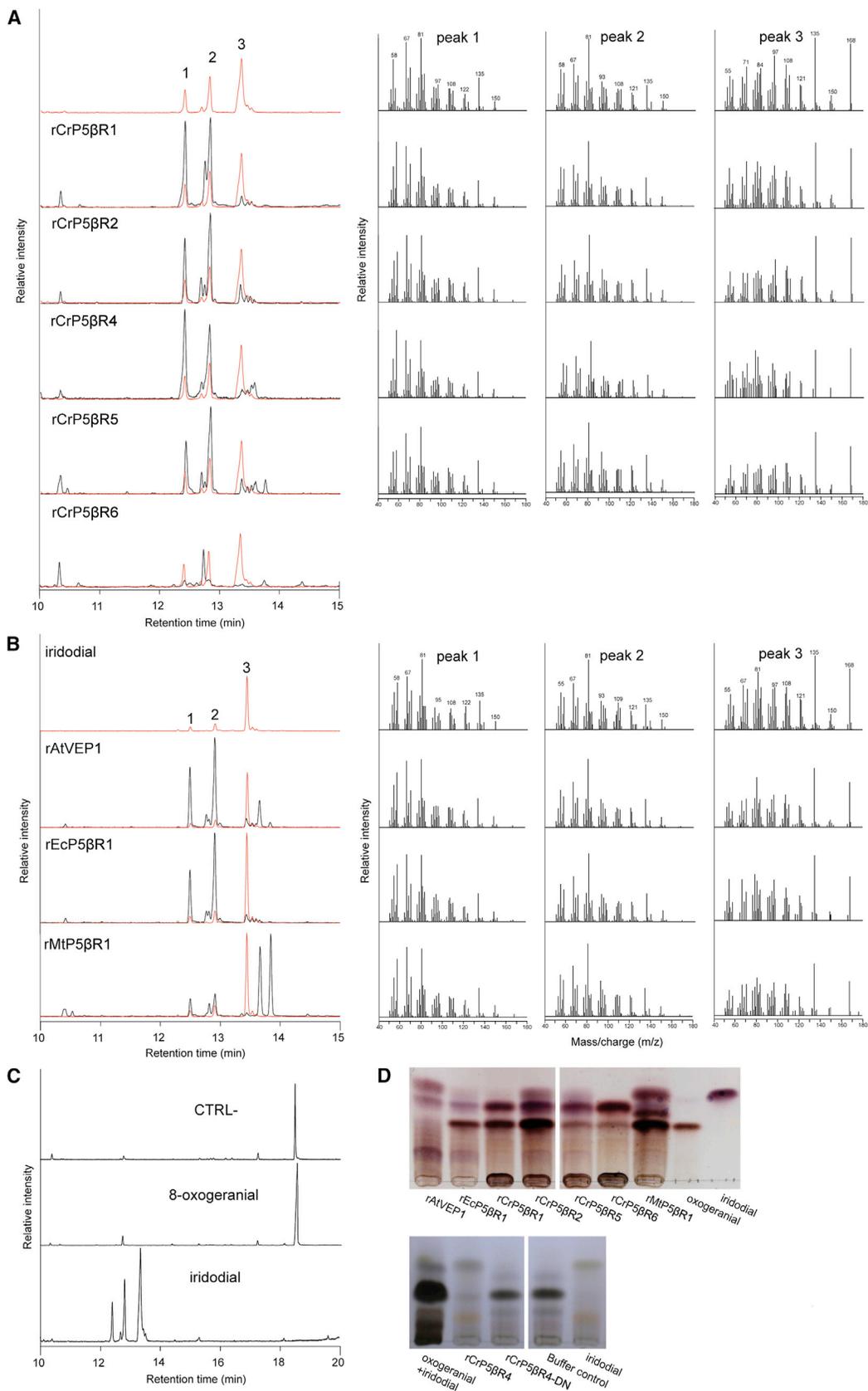
showed higher absolute transcript counts (Figure 6; Supplemental Table 2).

Transcripts of *CrP5 β R4* Colocalize with Those of *CrP5 β R5* in the IPAP Cells

The multicellular nature of the MIA biosynthetic pathway in *C. roseus* is well known, with the biosynthesis taking place in at least four different cell types. The early steps of the biosynthesis, from the MEP pathway up to the synthesis of loganic acid, take place in the internal phloem-associated parenchyma (IPAP) cells. The subsequent steps of the pathway take place in the epidermis, ending ultimately in laticifers and idioblasts, specialized alkaloid-accumulating cells (Courdavault et al., 2014).

Correspondingly, it was reported that the transcripts of *CrP5 β R5/IS* localize in the IPAP cells (Geu-Flores et al., 2012), as well as those of the early part of the secoiridoid pathway up to 7-deoxyloganic acid hydroxylase (*7-DLH*; Miettinen et al., 2014). Conversely, transcripts corresponding to the subsequent steps, such as *SLS*, *STR*, and *SGD*, localize in the epidermis (St-Pierre et al., 1999; Courdavault et al., 2014).

To further assess their possible involvement in iridoid synthesis, the localization of all *CrP5 β R* transcripts was investigated by RNA *in situ* hybridization performed on cross-sectioned apical parts of the plant, i.e., young developing leaves and flower buds. Using antisense probes, the transcripts of *CrP5 β R4* and *CrP5 β R5* were shown to localize in the IPAP cells of all developing aerial organs (Figure 7). As positive controls, antisense probes for *G8O* and *SGD* transcripts, which localize to the IPAP and epidermis cells, respectively (Burlat et al., 2004), were used (Figure 7). No signals were detected with the *CrP5 β R4* and *CrP5 β R5* sense probes used as negative controls. No signals



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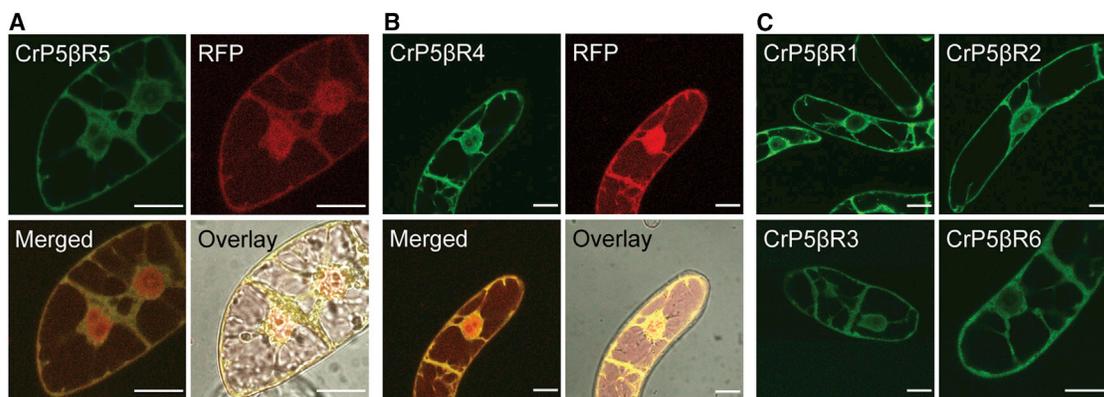


Figure 5. Localization of the Six CrP5βRs in BY-2 Cells.

(A and B) Confocal microscopy analysis of BY-2 cells co-transformed with a GFP-CrP5βR5 (A, top left) or a GFP-CrP5βR4 (B, top left) construct and a free RFP (A and B, top right) construct.

(C) Confocal microscopy analysis of BY-2 cells transformed with a GFP-CrP5βR1 (top left), CrP5βR2 (top right), CrP5βR3 (bottom left), CrP5βR6 (bottom right) construct. Scale bars, 20 μm.

were detected with the probes for the other *CrP5βRs*, which is likely due to the low transcript abundance in the tissues investigated (Supplemental Table 2). These data suggest that both *CrP5βR4* and *CrP5βR5* may be involved, redundantly or not, in MIA biosynthesis in *C. roseus* within the same aerial organs.

In Planta Silencing of *CrP5βR2* and *CrP5βR4*

To investigate whether *CrP5βR4* contributes to iridoid synthesis *in planta*, we used virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS) to down-regulate *CrP5βR4* in young *C. roseus* leaves. The *CrP5βR5/IS* that was previously studied (Geu-Flores et al., 2012) was also tested in this system. Because *CrP5βR1*, *CrP5βR3*, and *CrP5βR6* transcripts were hardly or not detectable in *C. roseus* (Supplemental Tables 1 and 2), they were not considered for VIGS experiments. In contrast, although *CrP5βR2* transcripts were not detectable by *in situ* hybridization (ISH) and were not MeJA inducible, a VIGS construct was also designed for *CrP5βR2*, because transcripts of *CrP5βR2* in *C. roseus* leaves showed absolute counts that were about half those of *CrP5βR4* and *CrP5βR5/IS* (Supplemental Tables 1 and 2).

Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) demonstrated that all VIGS constructs efficiently silenced the target *CrP5βR* gene(s) within 25 days after infection (Figure 8A–8C). As in Geu-Flores et al. (2012), we observed a significant and specific increase in the accumulation of three abundant putative iridoid peaks that

appear to be derived from the *CrP5βR* substrate 8-oxogeranial (m/z 526, 528, and 484; Figure 8E). In contrast to the previous study, we did not observe a significant difference in strictosidine and vindoline in the *CrP5βR5/IS* silenced lines (Figure 8D). A possible explanation could be the use of different *C. roseus* cultivars: Geu-Flores et al. (2012) used Little Bright Eye; we used Sunstorm Rose, which has lower levels of vindoline and other MIAs, but which became the preferred cultivar for VIGS because of its superior reproducibility due to more homogeneous growth rates. Alternatively, we used a different region of the gene for silencing, and this may affect the chemotype. Since *CrP5βR5/IS* silenced lines did show a significant and specific increase in the accumulation of three of the most abundant unidentified putative iridoid peaks (m/z 526, 528, and 484; Figure 8E), which were also specifically detected in the *CrP5βR5/IS* silenced lines in the study of Geu-Flores et al. (2012), this confirms the involvement of *CrP5βR5/IS* in secoiridoid biosynthesis also in the Sunstorm Rose cultivar, as well as the reliability of our experiment.

No significant differences in the vindoline and strictosidine peaks could be detected for any of the *CrP5βR2* or *CrP5βR4* silenced lines in comparison to the empty vector control, nor could any of the putative iridoid peaks be spotted that accumulate in the *CrP5βR5/IS* silenced lines (Figure 8E), suggesting that *CrP5βR2* and/or *CrP5βR4* do not contribute to secoiridoid synthesis *in planta*, at least not when *CrP5βR5/IS* is present.

Figure 4. Multiple rP5βR Proteins Convert 8-Oxogeranial to Iridodial.

(A) Overlay of GC chromatograms (left panels) of the reaction products of rCrP5βR proteins incubated with the substrate 8-oxogeranial (black) and an authentic *cis-trans* iridodial standard (red). Representative electron ionization–MS spectra (right panels) of the rCrP5βR reaction products. The spectrum is identical to the *cis-trans* iridodial authentic standard. For rCrP5βR6, no informative electron ionization–MS spectra could be included since only trace amounts of iridodial accumulated.

(B) Overlay of GC chromatograms of the reaction products of rAtVEP1, rEcP5βR, and rMtP5βR proteins incubated with the substrate 8-oxogeranial (black) and an authentic *cis-trans* iridodial standard (red).

(C) GC chromatogram of a control experiment showing a lack of conversion of 8-oxogeranial to *cis-trans* iridodial in the presence of denatured rCrP5βR proteins (CTRL–).

(D) Thin-layer chromatography of the reaction products from different rP5βR proteins with 8-oxogeranial as substrate. rCrP5βR4-DN, denatured rCrP5βR4.

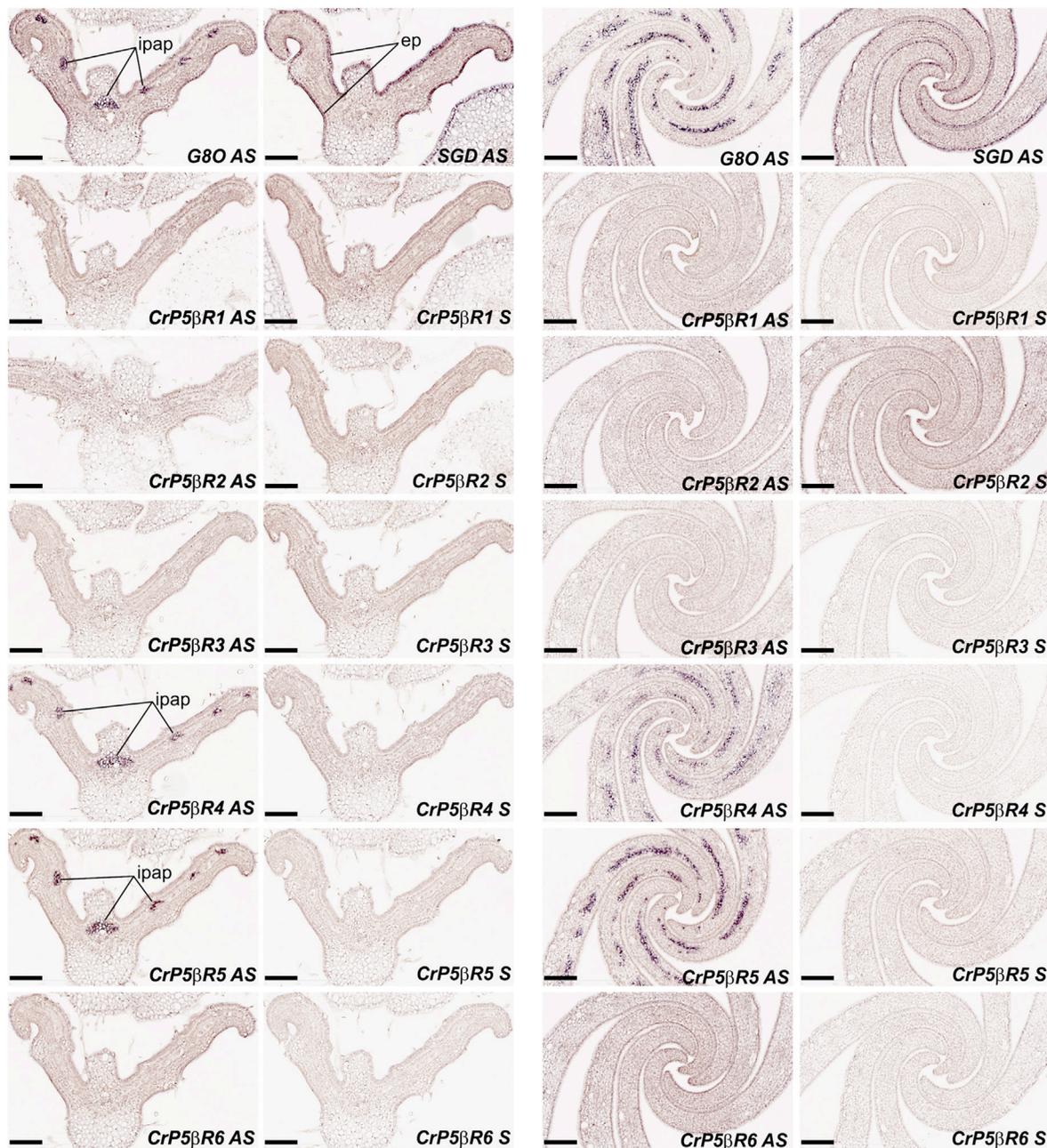


Figure 7. Co-expression of *CrP5βR4* and *CrP5βR5/IS* in the Internal Phloem-Associated Parenchyma (IPAP) Cells.

In situ hybridization on serial cross sections of young developing leaves (left columns) and flower buds (taken here at the petal level; right columns) was carried out with antisense (AS) probes, and as controls with sense (S) probes. Geraniol 8-oxidase (G8O) and strictosidine β -D-glucosidase (SGD) AS probes were used as IPAP and epidermis markers, respectively. Sense probe controls gave no signals. ep, epidermis; IPAP, internal phloem-associated parenchyma. The IPAP signal was also detected in other flower bud parts (stamen, sepals, carpels) for *CrP5βR4* and *CrP5βR5/IS* (data not shown). Scale bar, 100 μ m.

its rDpP5 β R cluster I paralog (Pérez-Bermúdez et al., 2010). However, for the *M. truncatula* rP5 β Rs it was vice versa. The efficacies of rMtP5 β R1 and rMtP5 β R2 (both cluster I) for progesterone were about 10–50 times higher than those of the cluster II MtP5 β Rs (Table 1).

rP5 β Rs from clusters I and II could be discriminated in their preferences for the substrates 2-cyclohexen-1-one and MVK. For the

substrate 2-cyclohexen-1-one, a preference with P5 β Rs from cluster I could be detected (e.g., rEcP5 β R1, rMtP5 β R1, or rCrP5 β R2). MVK was also accepted as a substrate by all P5 β Rs. Again, considerable variation was seen among the enzymes characterized and preferences with P5 β Rs from cluster I were observed. For rEcP5 β R1, rMtP5 β R1, rCrP5 β R2, or rCrP5 β R4, we could determine turnover rates between 0.5 and 0.87/s for MVK, whereas k_{cat} values measured for rEcP5 β R2 or

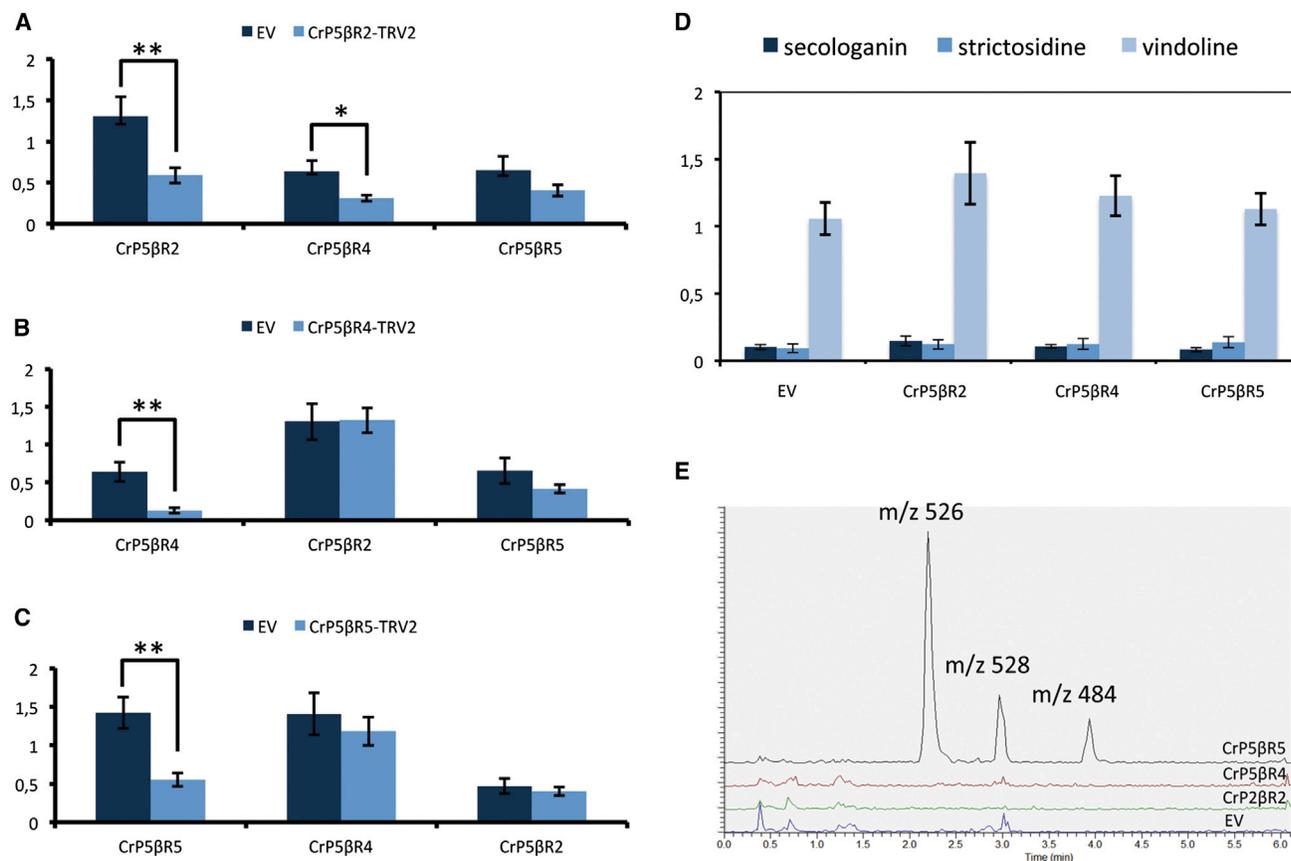


Figure 8. Assessment of the *In Planta* Role of *CrP5βR* Genes in Secoiridoid and Monoterpenoid Indole Alkaloid (MIA) Biosynthesis by Virus-Induced Silencing (VIGS) in *C. roseus* Leaves.

(A–C) Effect on transcript accumulation in lines silenced for *CrP5βR2* (A), *CrP5βR4* (B), and *CrP5βR5* (C). The y axis denotes the normalized relative transcript accumulation of the *CrP5βR* genes indicated in the x axis. Standard errors are shown ($n = 7$ for EV and $n = 10$ for *CrP5βR*; Student's *t*-test, $*P > 0.05$, $**P > 0.005$). EV, empty vector.

(D) Quantification of the major secoiridoids and MIAs by liquid chromatography–MS. EV, empty vector control. The y axis denotes the normalized intensity (peak area/leaf mass $\times 10^{10}$). Asterisks denote statistical significance ($P < 0.05$ on unpaired Student's *t*-tests). Error bars represent standard errors.

(E) Extracted ion chromatograms for *m/z* 526, 528, 484 in lines silenced for the different *CrP5βR* genes.

rCrP5βR6 and other rP5βRs of cluster II were only between 0.016 and 0.05/s (Table 1).

Modeling of the Binding Pocket of the CrP5βR Proteins

P5βRs are members of the large SDR superfamily of enzymes (Jörnvall et al., 1995). They all belong to the new class of SDRs characterized by Thorn et al. (2008). They can be classified as stereoselective enone-reductases capable of reducing activated C = C double bonds by a 1,4-addition mechanism. A hydride is transferred from NADPH to a carbonyl-activated double bond and the carbonyl is then protonated. An enol intermediate is formed, which tautomerizes to the final product (Thorn et al., 2008). Besides the two important amino acids in the catalytic site (K147 and Y179), five additional amino acids are highly conserved in the binding pocket. These amino acids are W106, G145, F153, M215, and F343 (Bauer et al., 2010; Supplemental Table 3). Here, we modeled the active sites and amino acid residues of the substrate binding site using DIP5βR (Protein Data Bank ID 2V6G) with progesterone docked in the catalytic site as a template (Figure 9). As far as the binding pocket is concerned, homology modeling using 2V6G as the template

revealed the high similarity between DIP5βR, CrP5βR1, and CrP5βR2. This structural feature coincides with very similar turnover rates for progesterone (ca. 0.02/s; Bauer et al., 2012; Figure 9A–9C). Furthermore, there is also a difference in the orientation of phenylalanine-343 in CrP5βR4. It is turned about 180° outward of the binding pocket. Because phenylalanine-153 and phenylalanine-343 normally work together as a clamp for the binding and holding of the substrate in the binding pocket, this different orientation of the CrP5βR4 phenylalanine-343 could be a reason for the lower turnover rate of the corresponding recombinant enzyme, especially with small substrates, such as MVK or 2-cyclohexen-1-one, compared to the efficacy of rCrP5βR2 (about 5–25 times less; Figure 9D). For rCrP5βR5, only a very low activity for progesterone was measured. A 180° rotation of the tryptophan in CrP5βR5 (W109) was observed (Figure 9E). With a distance of more than 5 Å, it is hardly possible to be involved in binding progesterone in the binding pocket. Because this different position of the tryptophan has no effect on the activity toward the other substrates tested, it seems to be only necessary for the binding of progesterone. Since CrP5βR6 (cluster II) belongs to a different phylogenetic cluster of P5βRs compared to DIP5βR1, CrP5βR1, or CrP5βR2,

many structure differences were seen (Figure 9F). The changes from phenylalanine-153 of DIP5 β R1 to isoleucine-138 of CrP5 β R6 and phenylalanine-343 of DIP5 β R1 to alanine-328 of CrP5 β R6 are especially interesting and may be responsible for a higher activity toward progesterone. Essential for this increased activity could be an improvement in the orientation of progesterone, because of the higher flexibility of small, but also hydrophobic, amino acids and of a second tyrosine (Y200/Figure 9F), which is located close to the substrate and might be beneficial for catalytic activity.

DISCUSSION

Plant-specialized metabolism is characterized by a huge diversity of chemical structures that play important roles in growth, development, or interaction with the environment. The plant kingdom is estimated to be able to synthesize over 100 000 different specialized metabolites. The evolution of the respective, often species-specific, biosynthetic pathways has required the evolution of new genes, for instance encoding enzymes and transporters, as well as new regulatory networks. Gene duplications with successive diversifications are a central mechanism in evolution and are regarded as the major driving force in the generation of the evolutionary variety in plant-specialized metabolism (Ober, 2010).

The *C. roseus* P5 β R Family, Redundant or Not?

In this study, this evolutionary principle is further illustrated. Previously, one P5 β R homolog, i.e., IS or CrP5 β R5, was isolated from *C. roseus* and shown to catalyze the reduction of 8-oxogeranial to iridodial in the secoiridoid branch of the MIA biosynthetic pathway (Geu-Flores et al., 2012). Here, through mining of transcriptome data, we identified five new members of the *C. roseus* P5 β R family, denominated CrP5 β R1 to CrP5 β R4 and CrP5 β R6. Biochemical characterization of rCrP5 β R proteins demonstrated that, besides rCrP5 β R5/IS, rCrP5 β R1, rCrP5 β R2, and rCrP5 β R4 can also convert 8-oxogeranial to iridodial, indicating that potentially multiple CrP5 β R proteins could be involved in secoiridoid biosynthesis in *C. roseus*.

To assess the above postulation, we investigated the expression, localization, and activity of the CrP5 β R proteins *in planta*. The actual substrate pool of an enzyme, and thus its activity *in planta*, is determined by its subcellular localization and that of its substrates. Modifications in this feature can be an important driver of the evolution of novel biosynthetic pathways, which has for instance been nicely illustrated for the biosynthesis of the anti-malarial sesquiterpenoid artemisinin in the medicinal plant *Artemisia annua*, involving the enzyme DBR2, which reduces the $\Delta^{11}(13)$ double bond originating in amorpho-4,11-diene (Zhang et al., 2008). DBR2 is a member of the enoate reductase family to which the ubiquitous peroxisomal 12-oxophytodienoate reductases (OPRs), involved in JA biosynthesis, also belong. An evolutionary mutation in DBR2, disrupting the Ser-Arg-Leu tripeptide peroxisomal targeting signal, caused DBR2 to accumulate exclusively in the cytosol, allowing it to be recruited to the artemisinin biosynthetic pathway that depends on cytosolic sesquiterpenoid precursors (Zhang et al., 2008). In the case of the CrP5 β R proteins, all showed a predominant cytosolic localization, similar to the CrP5 β R5/IS enzyme itself, suggesting they can theoretically

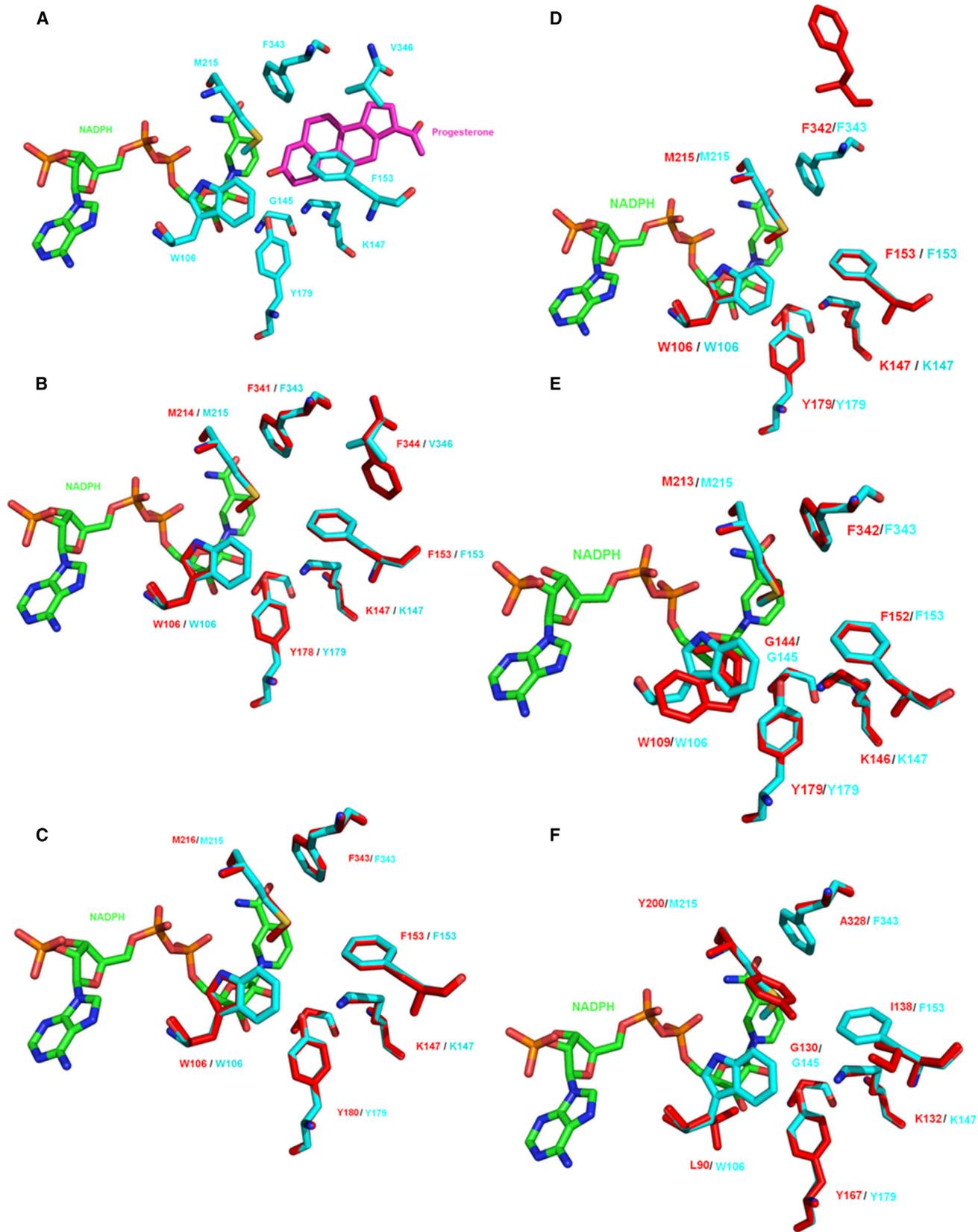
encounter 8-oxogeranial as a substrate at the subcellular level (Courdavault et al., 2014) and thus be involved in secoiridoid biosynthesis.

Transcriptional regulation is another level that determines substrate pool and specificity. In the case of secoiridoid biosynthesis in *C. roseus*, two important transcriptional regulatory levels exist. The first is the responsiveness to particular phytohormones and environmental signals and the second is the tissue specificity. All secoiridoid genes are responsive to (Me)JA, but display two distinct cellular expression patterns. Transcripts corresponding to the early enzymes in the pathway, up to 7-DLH and comprising CrP5 β R5/IS, localize in the IPAP cells, whereas those corresponding to the subsequent steps of the pathway localize in the epidermis (St-Pierre et al., 1999; Geu-Flores et al., 2012; Courdavault et al., 2014; Miettinen et al., 2014). Expression analysis of all CrP5 β Rs indicated that only one other member of the CrP5 β R family besides IS/CrP5 β R5, namely CrP5 β R4, was responsive to MeJA, and could be detected in the IPAP cells, thus limiting possible genetic redundancy between the CrP5 β R family members in secoiridoid biosynthesis to two. VIGS analysis was not conclusive in resolving this issue, however. It suggested that in the presence of CrP5 β R5/IS, CrP5 β R4 contributes little or nothing to secoiridoid and MIA biosynthesis *in planta*, but nonetheless, a role for CrP5 β R4 in this pathway, perhaps in particular conditions or tissues, could not be entirely ruled out yet.

CrP5 β R1, CrP5 β R3, and CrP5 β R6 were hardly expressed, as illustrated by the constitutive low levels across all RNA-Seq samples and the absence of detectable signals in the ISH analysis, and were thus not included in the VIGS experiments. In contrast, CrP5 β R2 also showed constitutive expression across all transcriptome samples, but with higher absolute transcript levels than CrP5 β R1, CrP5 β R3, and CrP5 β R6, but still about two-fold lower than CrP5 β R4 and CrP5 β R5/IS. Nonetheless, CrP5 β R2 transcripts could not be detected by ISH in either *C. roseus* leaves or flowers, which may point to ubiquitous or a less pronounced cell-specific expression and at least excluding IPAP-specific expression. Accordingly, VIGS analysis did not support a role for CrP5 β R2 in secoiridoid production *in planta*.

Can All Angiosperm P5 β Rs Catalyze 8-Oxogeranial Reduction to Iridodial?

P5 β Rs were termed as such because they convert progesterone to 5 β -pregnane-3,20-dione enantioselectively. P5 β R genes have first been identified in cardenolide-producing plant species, such as *D. lanata* and *E. crepidifolium*, but also in cardenolide-free plants of the angiosperm lineage, such as the model plant *Arabidopsis*. Most angiosperm species have several P5 β Rs encoded in their genome, and hitherto, all recombinant P5 β R enzymes tested have been found capable of reducing a large variety of substrates bearing an active C = C double bond by an 1,4-addition mechanism using NADPH as the co-substrate (Gärtner et al., 1994; Burda et al., 2009; Bauer et al., 2010). Accordingly, all rCrP5 β R proteins, except for rCrP5 β R3, which we were unable to produce as a recombinant protein, could reduce several substrates, such as progesterone and 2-cyclohexen-1-one, using NADPH as the co-substrate, and can thus be qualified as genuine P5 β Rs.



(legend on next page)

The fact that 8-oxogeranial can be taken as a substrate by nearly all CrP5 β R from both subclades raised the question whether this is an intrinsic capacity of other angiosperm P5 β R, or whether it is specific for the P5 β R from iridoid-producing plant species. Cloning and characterization of P5 β R from two other plant species that encode several P5 β R in their genome, i.e., the cardenolide- and iridoid-free model plants *M. truncatula* and *Arabidopsis*, and the iridoid-free but cardenolide-producing *E. crepidifolium*, demonstrated that nearly all rP5 β R tested were capable of taking 8-oxogeranial as a substrate. This suggests that IS activity is indeed an intrinsic capacity of angiosperm P5 β R proteins, which might have evolved early during evolution.

The wide substrate range can be interpreted as the evolution of different physiological functions for different P5 β R in *planta*. Besides the already elucidated role in iridoid and cardenolide biosynthesis, a role in the detoxification of small toxic molecules, such as MVK, is also plausible. Further interesting substrates for verifying this hypothesis, such as 2(*E*)-hexenal, traumatine or 2(*E*)-nonenal (Alm eras et al., 2003), have not been tested yet with the P5 β R identified here. Taking into account the occurrence of several paralogous *P5 β R* genes in a single plant species and the substrate promiscuity of the enzymes, it is possible that P5 β R are responsible for different functions within the same plant. Substrate-promiscuous enzymes sustain the formation of high numbers of small natural products that provide its producer with a selective advantage in an evolutionary context. Similarly, such enzymes might provide a selective advantage because of increased detoxification capacities for the organism.

The relaxed substrate specificity of angiosperm P5 β R clearly underscores their capacity to be involved or become recruited in more biosynthetic pathways than currently known. P5 β R have a wide occurrence within the angiosperm lineage (Bauer et al., 2010), and over 100 angiosperm *P5 β R* genes can currently be found in the NCBI database. It will be interesting to find out how many P5 β R, and from which species, eventually became recruited to specialized metabolic pathways, such as that of iridoid biosynthesis. Conversely, our findings might raise the question whether iridoid biosynthesis might be more widespread than currently assumed and may still be undiscovered in some plant species, for instance because of a highly cell-specific expression?

METHODS

Gene Isolation

All gene products were PCR amplified for Gateway (Invitrogen) cloning from a cDNA template of *C. roseus*, *M. truncatula*, or *E. crepidifolium* using the primer pairs shown in Supplemental Table 4.

For standard PCR, the following amplification program was used: 30 s at 98°C; 7 cycles of 10 s denaturation at 98°C, followed by 30 s annealing at 42°C, and 90 s extension at 72°C; 23 cycles of 10 s denaturation at 98°C, followed by 30 s annealing at 56°C and 90 s extension at 72°C; 5 min extension at 72°C. Amplified fragments of a size of ca. 1200 bp were cut out from a 1% agarose gel and were purified with the Fermentas GeneJET Gel Extraction Kit. Purified PCR fragments were introduced into pDONR221 and then transferred to the pDEST17 vector by Gateway recombination. *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) cells, transformed with the pDEST17 vector, were grown on LB medium containing 100 μ g/ml ampicillin.

Production of Recombinant Proteins

For the production of the recombinant P5 β R proteins, bacteria were cultivated at 37°C at 180 rpm on a rotary shaker until an OD₆₀₀ of 0.5–0.7 was reached. Then 0.1 mM isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactoside (IPTG) was added to induce the expression of the recombinant His-tagged fusion protein. The cells were kept at 4°C for up to 96 h under shaking at 100 rpm, after which the His-tagged protein was isolated by nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid (Ni-NTA) agarose purification following the procedure described in the QIAexpressionist handbook (QIAGEN) using an  kta purifier (GE Healthcare).

The Ni-NTA matrix was washed extensively with 20 mM imidazole (50 mM NaH₂PO₄, 300 mM NaCl, 20 mM imidazole, pH 8.0) before affinity-bound proteins were eluted with 250 mM imidazole (elution buffer: 50 mM NaH₂PO₄, 300 mM NaCl, 250 mM imidazole, pH 8.0). After purification of the recombinant proteins, the elution buffer was exchanged for the incubation buffer using PD-10 columns (GE Healthcare). The incubation buffer consisted of 100 mM HEPES-KOH (pH 8.0), 250 mM sucrose, 2 mM EDTA, and 10 mM β -mercaptoethanol or 20 mM MOPS buffer (pH 7.0). Protein was quantified according to Bradford (1976).

Proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and semi-dry immunoblotting was performed according to the QIAexpress Detection and Assay Handbooks (QIAGEN) with slight modifications. Recombinant proteins were separated on a 12% Bis-Tris polyacrylamide gel and then transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane by electroblotting. After blocking with 5% milk powder in 1 \times Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween 20, the membrane was incubated for 1 h with mouse anti-His antibodies (mixture of RGS-, Tetra-, and Penta-His antibodies; dilution 1:2000; QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). Anti-mouse IgG-peroxidase antibody (Sigma, Munich, Germany) was used as the detection antibody (dilution 1:10 000; incubation 1 h). Chemiluminescence of 3-aminophthalate released from luminol was used for detection.

Enzyme Assays for Recombinant P5 β R

To determine the kinetic constants of rP5 β R proteins, reductase activity was measured spectrophotometrically. The conversion of NADPH (0.4 mM) (AppliChem GmbH) to NADP⁺ was monitored at 340 nm in the presence of the respective substrates over a time course of 5 min or 60 s at 40°C. Depending on the rP5 β R investigated, between 0.01 and 0.1 mg/ml of recombinant protein, 0.4 mM NADPH, and varying concentrations of the substrate (0.01–0.4 mM) were used in the assay. An assay without the respective substrate was used as control. Progesterone,

Figure 9. Catalytic Pocket of CrP5 β R1, CrP5 β R2, CrP5 β R4, CrP5 β R5, and CrP5 β R6 Versus DIP5 β R Modeled on the Crystal Structure of 2V6G (DIP5 β R) with NADPH as Co-factor Created by PyMOL.

The catalytically important amino acids are marked.

- (A) Catalytic pocket of DIP5 β R with NADPH and docked progesterone; W106/Y179/K147/G145/F153/M215/F353 are catalytically important amino acids in the binding pocket after Bauer et al. (2010).
 (B) Catalytic pocket of CrP5 β R1 versus DIP5 β R.
 (C) Catalytic pocket of CrP5 β R2 versus DIP5 β R.
 (D) Catalytic pocket of CrP5 β R4 versus DIP5 β R.
 (E) Catalytic pocket of CrP5 β R5 versus DIP5 β R.
 (F) Catalytic pocket of CrP5 β R6 versus DIP5 β R.

Molecular Plant

2-cyclohexen-1-one, and MVK were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and 8-oxogeranial from Chiralix BV.

For GC–MS analysis of recombinant rP5 β R activity, assays were performed in either 100 mM HEPES-KOH (pH 8.0) or 20 mM MOPS (pH 7.0) buffer. The protein concentration was set to 0.05 mg/ml and the substrate concentration was 0.3 mM with a final assay volume of 1 ml. The reaction was stopped with 1 ml dichloromethane after 1 h at 23°C. The reaction products were extracted and the organic phase was evaporated at 23°C. For GC–MS analysis, the samples were dissolved in 100 μ l of dichloromethane. The authentic iridodial standard was purchased from Chiralix BV.

GC–MS analysis was carried out in an Agilent 7890A System coupled to an Agilent 5975C MS detector. A J&W GC column (30 m \times 0.25 mm \times 0.25 μ m) and helium gas at 1.2 ml/min was used. The program started at 60°C and ran at 5°C/min up to 150°C, a 20°C/min gradient up to 240°C, 20°C/min up to 290°C, and 5 min isothermal at 290°C.

In Silico Sequence Analysis

For phylogenetic analysis, P5 β R protein sequences were aligned with ClustalW and the phylogenetic tree was generated with the MEGA 4.0.1 software (Tamura et al., 2007) by the Neighbor-Joining method, and bootstrapping was done with 1000 replicates. The evolutionary distances were computed with the Poisson correction method, and all positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated from the data set (complete deletion option).

The SWISS-MODEL software (<http://swissmodel.expasy.org>) was used for protein structure homology modeling. The three-dimensional structural drawings were created with PyMOL (<http://www.pymol.org>).

Subcellular Protein Localization

For subcellular protein localization, Gateway recombination of the six CrP5 β R entry clones was carried out with the pK7WGF2 vector (Karimi et al., 2002), and the RFP entry clone (Karimi et al., 2007) was Gateway recombined with the pH7WG2 vector (Karimi et al., 2002). The resulting expression clones were transformed into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* LBA4404 cells. Recombinant *A. tumefaciens* was grown for 2 days in a shaking incubator (150 rpm) at 28°C in 5 ml of yeast extract broth medium, supplemented with appropriate antibiotics (100 μ g/ml spectinomycin, 300 μ g/ml streptomycin, 100 μ g/ml rifampicin, and 20 μ g/ml gentamycin). After incubation, the bacterial cultures were diluted five-fold, and incubated for one more day under the same conditions. For co-transformation, 150 μ l of each *A. tumefaciens* culture containing a CrP5 β R expression clone was mixed with 150 μ l of *A. tumefaciens* culture containing the RFP expression clone. The resulting mixture was transferred to a Petri dish containing 8 ml of a 3-day-old BY-2 culture (BY-2 medium: MS medium [pH 5.8] supplemented with 3% [w/v] sucrose, 0.02% [w/v] monopotassium phosphate, and 0.1% [v/v] BY-2 vitamin solution [0.02 g of 2,4-D; 0.05 g of thiamine, and 5.00 g of myo-inositol in 50 ml of water]). Co-cultivation of BY-2 cells and bacteria was allowed for 2 days at 24°C in the dark, after which the mixture was spread on horizontal Petri dishes containing solid BY-2 medium supplemented with antibiotics (100 μ g/ml kanamycin, 30 μ g/ml hygromycin, 500 μ g/ml carbenicillin, and 200 μ g/ml vancomycin). After 3 weeks of incubation at 24°C in the dark, transgenic calli with both red and green fluorescence were selected and subcultured onto new BY-2 plates with antibiotics. For maintenance, transgenic calli were subcultured every 4 weeks onto fresh BY-2 plates and incubated at 24°C in the dark. Confocal laser scanning microscopy was carried out with an LSM 510 confocal microscope (Zeiss) equipped with a 63 \times water-corrected objective (numerical aperture of 1.2). GFP was excited using 488 nm laser light and imaged using a 505–550 nm BP filter. RFP was excited using 543 nm laser light and imaged using an LP560 filter. For each construct, several independent transgenic calli were analyzed.

The *Catharanthus* Progesterone Reductase Family

In Silico Transcriptome Analysis

Average linkage hierarchical clustering of gene expression profiles from publicly available transcriptomes of *C. roseus* was conducted as described (Van Moerkercke et al., 2013).

In Situ Hybridization

Gene constructs containing the complete cDNA of the CrP5 β R_s, including the 5' and 3' untranslated regions (UTRs), were cloned into the pBluescript II SK+ vector using the restriction sites Sall and NotI. The synthesis of antisense and sense digoxigenin-labeled RNA probes was performed as described (Burlat et al., 2004) and the G80 and SGD antisense probes (Burlat et al., 2004; Guirimand et al., 2010) were used as IPAP and epidermal markers, respectively. Paraffin-embedded serial cross sections of young apex, including developing leaves and flower buds, were hybridized with digoxigenin-labeled RNA probes and localized with anti-digoxigenin antibodies conjugated with alkaline phosphatase (Mahroug et al., 2006). Slides were imaged using a high-resolution slide scanner at \times 20 objective lens (0.46 μ m/pixel; Nanozoomer 2.OHT, Hamamatsu Photonics, Tokyo, Japan). Image analysis was performed with the Hamamatsu (Tokyo, Japan) Photonics image viewer (NanoZoomer Digital Pathology, NDP) for virtual microscopy. Figures were assembled with images directly extracted from the scans.

Virus-Induced Gene Silencing

All constructs were cloned using Gateway technology (Invitrogen). For the CrP5 β R2-pTRV2 construct, the 5'-UTR and 3'-UTR regions were joined by an overlap-PCR strategy. The 5'-UTR and 3'-UTR were PCR amplified using primers 5'-AAAAAGCAGGCTcaccacagcagctcacgg-3' (partial AttB1 side capitalized) and 5-CTAAAGATCAGAggtgagattacaa aattgatg-3' (3'-UTR overlap region capitalized), and primers 5'- GTAA TCTCACCCctgatcttagttagaattgtc-3' (5'-UTR overlap region capitalized) and 5'- AGAAAGCTGGGTcaaaatgtgttagtttggttac-3' (partial AttB2 side capitalized), respectively. Both fragments were fused introducing full-length AttB1/2 sites using primers 5'- ggggacaagtgtgtacaaaaag caggct-3' and 5'-ggggaccacttgtacaagaagctgggt-3'. For CrP5 β R4 and CrP5 β R5, a similar strategy was used with the following primers: 5'-AAAAAGCAGGCTattttctctgaacatttcttg-3', 5'-CACTAACAAACcttcag gggataatgaaaatgg-3', 5'-ATCCCCTGAAGgtttgttagtcttctccttg-3', and 5'-AGAAAGCTGGGTgattgaagagctcaggaatg-3' for CrP5 β R4-pTRV2 and primers 5'-AAAAAGCAGGCTagccaagtcttctattgacattc-3', 5'-GGA ATAAACCcttcaccaccaactcattatgtc-3', 5'-GTGGTGAAGggtttattcctta gaatttgggtg-3', and 5'-AGAAAGCTGGGTcaccacaacaaaacaaattgcattag-3' for CrP5 β R5-pTRV2. To create the Protoporphyrin IX magnesium chelatase subunit H (ChLH) control construct, primers 5'-GGGGACAAGTTTG TACAAAAAGCAGGCTgtcagttgccacactagtaaatattgctgc-3' (AttB1 site capitalized) and 5'- GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTAgcatg gatattcttcccgttggc-3' (AttB2 site capitalized) were used (Liscombe and O'Connor, 2011). All AttB1/2 fragments were recombined into pDONR207 and subsequently into a Gateway-compatible pTRV2 vector (ABRC9080; YL279). Constructs were sequenced and transferred to the *A. tumefaciens* strain GV3101 (pMP90).

VIGS was performed essentially as described by Liscombe and O'Connor (2011) and Geu-Flores et al. (2012) using *C. roseus* cv. Sunstorm Rose. For CrP5 β R4 and CrP5 β R5 co-silencing, agrobacteria were mixed 1:1 before pinching. Plants were grown at 25°C in a 12 h/12 h light/dark cycle and material was harvested when ChLH-pTRV2 plants showed fully bleached leaves. Briefly, leaf tissue was ground using a Retsch ball mill, weighed, collected into 200 μ l of methanol containing 40 μ M caffeine as an internal standard and incubated at 60°C for 2 h. After a 30 min centrifugation step at 5000 g, an aliquot of the supernatant (50 μ l) was mixed with an equal volume of water and analyzed on a Thermo-Finnigan instrument equipped with a Deca XP ion trap detector. The column used was a Phenomenex Kinetix 5 μ C18 100A (100 \times 2.10 mm, 5 μ m), and the binary solvent system consisted of acetonitrile (ACN) and 0.1% formic acid in water. The elution program was as follows: 1 min isocratic at 12% ACN, 3.5 min gradient up

The *Catharanthus* Progesterone Reductase Family

to 25% ACN, 2.5 min gradient up to 50% ACN, 1 min gradient up to 100% ACN, 6 min isocratic at 100% ACN, 1 min gradient down to 12% ACN, and 2.5 min isocratic at 12% ACN. Peak areas were calculated using the ICIS algorithm in Finnigan's Xcalibur software and normalized by leaf mass (fresh weight) and the peak area of caffeine.

Total RNA from VIGS leaves was isolated using the RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen) and cDNA synthesized with the iStrip cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad). Primers were designed using Primer3 (http://biotools.umassmed.edu/bioapps/primer3_www.cgi) and are shown in Supplemental Table 4. The *C. roseus* N2227 (Caros011588.1) and *SAND* (Caros010066.1) genes (Van Moerkercke et al., 2013; <http://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/orca/overview/Catro>) were used as reference genes and qRT-PCR was performed with a Lightcycler 480 (Roche) using SYBR Green QPCR master Mix (Stratagene). Reactions were performed in triplicate and qBase was used to quantify relative expression (Hellemans et al., 2007).

ACCESSION NUMBERS

Sequence data from this article can be found in the GenBank data libraries under accession numbers KJ873882 (CrP5 β R1), KJ873883 (CrP5 β R2), KJ873884 (CrP5 β R3), KJ873885 (CrP5 β R4), KJ873886 (CrP5 β R5), KJ873887 (CrP5 β R6), KJ873888 (MtP5 β R1), KJ873889 (MtP5 β R2), KJ873890 (MtP5 β R3), and KJ873891 (MtP5 β R4).

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information is available at *Molecular Plant Online*.

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