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Research review paper

Improvement of hairy root cultures and plants by changing biosynthetic pathways leading to pharmaceutical metabolites: Strategies and applications

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ABSTRACT

A plethora of bioactive plant metabolites has been explored for pharmaceutical, food chemistry and agricultural applications. The chemical synthesis of these structures is often difficult, so plants are favorably used as producers. While whole plants can serve as a source for secondary metabolites and can be also improved by metabolic engineering, more often cell or organ cultures of relevant plant species are of interest. It should be noted that only in few cases the production for commercial application in such cultures has been achieved. Their genetic manipulation is sometimes faster and the production of a specific metabolite is more reliable, because of less environmental influences. In addition, upscaling in bioreactors is nowadays possible for many of these cultures, so some are already used in industry. There are approaches to alter the profile of metabolites not only by using plant genes, but also by using bacterial genes encoding modifying enzymes. Also, strategies to cope with unwanted or even toxic compounds are available. The need for metabolic engineering of plant secondary metabolite pathways is increasing with the rising demand for (novel) compounds with new bioactive properties. Here, we give some examples of recent developments for the metabolic engineering of plants and organ cultures, which can be used in the production of metabolites with interesting properties.

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Introduction

Over the last decades natural products, which are produced by plants and microorganisms, became more important for pharmaceuticals, crop-protection agents (Naumann, 2000) and agrochemicals (Jeschke, 2010). The production of secondary metabolites with

beneficial properties in food and cosmetics industry, as well as medicinal applications, has therefore received tremendous attention. While the identification of active substances is one major point, the demand for large amounts of individual compounds or plant extracts or pulverized plant materials as drugs is the second issue that needs to be addressed. In many cases it is an issue that the source plant cannot be easily cultivated or that the plant material is protected. For example, hairy roots of Devil's claw (*Harpagophytum procumbens*) are alternative cultivation systems of a plant from Namibia, which so far cannot be

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66 cultivated. It was shown that these organ cultures, like many others
67 already known before (reviewed in Georgiev et al., 2007; 2010), can
68 be cultivated in bioreactors and that they produce the bioactive
69 compounds, harpagide and harpagoside (reviewed in Georgiev et al.,
70 2013), which have been made responsible for the anti-inflammatory
71 effect of the plant's extract.

72 In addition, the variation in secondary metabolites extracted from
73 naturally grown plants is very high due to unfavorable environmental
74 conditions, such as biotic and abiotic stresses and seasonal changes.
75 For these reasons it is obvious that alternative methods for the produc-
76 tion of bioactive plant metabolites are needed. This led to the develop-
77 ment of cell and hairy root culture systems with enhanced production
78 of secondary metabolites. Furthermore, these cultures can be upscaled
79 for growth in bioreactors leading to more and reproducible biomass
80 production. Examples of high-value molecules produced by hairy
81 roots are the anticancer drug camptothecin, the antimalarial compound
82 artemisinin, the anti-inflammatory verbasoside and the anticholinergic
83 scopolamine (reviewed in Georgiev et al., 2012). Another interesting
84 feature of hairy roots is that they may accumulate metabolites that are
85 not detectable in mother plants (Gyurkovska et al., 2011; Pollier et al.,
86 2011). Many approaches have been established so far to increase sec-
87 ondary metabolite production in cultures of a given plant species.
88 Among these are: 1) generation of cell or organ cultures with subse-
89 quent selection for high metabolite production; 2) elicitation of cultures
90 with stressors or chemicals to enhance production; 3) genetic engineer-
91 ing of cell or hairy root cultures with heterologous genes (see below);
92 and 4) transformation of whole plants (e.g., *Arabidopsis*) or plant ex-
93 plants. The literature is full of reports on such culture systems for pro-
94 duction of a single metabolite or a family of related compounds. Also,
95 there is a wealth of reviews compiling these data (e.g., Chandra and
96 Chandra, 2011; Ono and Tian, 2011; Georgiev et al., 2010, 2012). In
97 this review only some aspects of genetic engineering of hairy roots
98 and plants to achieve tailored metabolite production will be discussed.

99 The question arises which transgenic strategies will lead to the
100 desired metabolic changes in plants or cultures. In general, it should
101 be possible to transform the plant material in question with one of
102 the classical strategies, for example *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* and
103 *Agrobacterium rhizogenes*, or via protoplast or chloroplast transforma-
104 tion by particle bombardment. The latter can be also used for other or-
105 ganelles. While transformation and regeneration of the desired plant
106 species is sometimes difficult and usually time consuming, the alterna-
107 tive to create cell or organ cultures can often circumvent this problem.

108 For improving the metabolic pathways (Georgiev et al., 2010;
109 Chandra and Chandra, 2011) it is essential to know as much as possible
110 not only the pathway to be manipulated, but also the related pathways.
111 There are three basic aims in engineering of biosynthetic pathways: to
112 increase the content of a desired metabolite, to reduce unwanted by-
113 products or to produce new structures that do not occur in the plant
114 species, which is the origin of the culture. Pioneering work on engineer-
115 ing of hairy roots started in the 1970s for example with the experiments
116 of Hamill et al. (1990), who were able to increase nicotine accumulation
117 in tobacco by overexpressing a yeast gene. While much work on hairy
118 roots from different plant species has followed, which is summarized
119 in many reviews, we decided to focus on some recent developments
120 on targeted changes in metabolism in the following paragraphs.

121 In this paper we use the term "hairy root" for hairy root lines that
122 were induced with wild type *Agrobacteria* and thus are transformed
123 only with the transfer DNA of the root inducing plasmid (pRi). Hairy
124 root lines carrying additional transgenes are referred to as "engineered
125 hairy roots". This can be done by hairy root induction with wild type
126 *Agrobacteria* on transformed plants or by co-transformation. For the sec-
127 ond strategy wild type plants and *Agrobacteria* harboring both a pRi and
128 a binary plasmid with the gene(s) desired for the engineering approach
129 are used for hairy root induction (Simpson et al., 1986). Usually 20–30%
130 of the emerging hairy roots carry the desired construct additionally to
131 the root inducing genes.

This review will discuss some general concepts for bioengineering, 132
e.g., introduce the necessity to think of endophytic microorganisms as 133
possible producers of interesting substances and give examples for 134
strategies to achieve altered metabolic patterns. The production of α - 135
tocopherol and how that can be achieved in plants and plant cultures 136
will be described as one example for increasing a desired metabolic 137
pathway. In addition, the expression of bacterial genes in plants with re- 138
spective consequences on metabolite patterns will be discussed. Also, 139
some thoughts how to reduce either unwanted or toxic pathways will 140
be presented. 141

142 Metabolic engineering – some approaches

143 Concepts for metabolic engineering

144 The potential of plants to produce pharmaceutically valuable bioac-
145 tive products is high, but it needs to be exploited and optimized. For
146 the modulation of biosynthetic pathways some general issues have to
147 be taken into account (Georgiev et al., 2010; Chandra and Chandra,
148 2011). Problems for metabolic engineering of biosynthetic pathways
149 come from 1) rate-limiting enzymatic steps, 2) competing pathways for
150 the same substrate or intermediate, 3) compartmentation of pathways
151 and thus the need for transport of the metabolite across the membranes,
152 4) co-factors for the reaction are limiting and 5) feedback-inhibition of in-
153 dividual enzymes by accumulating end-products. These bottlenecks in
154 the natural biosynthesis suggest themselves as targets for bioengineering.
155 Of course, the alteration of specific pathways will demand that other,
156 eventually occurring problems will be taken into account.

157 The increase of a desired metabolite can be achieved if a single met-
158 abolic step can be identified, which is rate limiting. Subsequently, the
159 gene encoding for this enzyme can be overexpressed. Ideally, such trans-
160 gene will lead to the overproduction of a desired metabolite. When the
161 expression of a specific gene in a pathway should be increased, using
162 the gene from the same plant is sometimes disadvantageous, because it
163 might lead to the phenomenon known as co-suppression (Matzke and
164 Matzke, 1995). A solution could be to use genes from a different organ-
165 ism, but with the same function. In some cases it can be beneficial to
166 downregulate a competitor pathway to increase the metabolic flow
167 into the desired direction (e.g., Davies et al., 2003).

168 Changing metabolite biosynthetic pathways can be achieved by
169 transformation with, for example, microbial genes. Thus, it has been
170 shown that bacterial halogenases can be expressed in plant hairy
171 roots, leading to the production of novel halogenated alkaloids
172 (Runguphan et al., 2010; see also *Altering the pattern of metabolites
173 by heterologous gene expression*). Transformation of foreign or homol-
174 ogous genes into the nuclear DNA limits the number of genes that can
175 be co-expressed, but plastid transformation could be used to express
176 polycistronic messages (Lu et al., 2013).

177 Generally, the biosynthesis of secondary metabolites has to be regu-
178 lated in a timely and spatial manner, because of the large energy costs
179 associated. The plant cannot provide the complete range of secondary
180 metabolites needed for survival of stress situations at all times. There-
181 fore, good knowledge on the regulation of the pathway in question is re-
182 quired. Genes for transcription factors controlling several steps in a
183 pathway are therefore good candidates for transformation and increas-
184 ing yields of a given metabolite (reviewed in Yang et al., 2012), when
185 this pathway is complex and therefore difficult to engineer. This has
186 been shown to work in the metabolic engineering of anthocyanins in
187 cauliflower, where the expression of one MYB-family transcription
188 factor led to the formation of pink colored heads (Chiu et al., 2010).

189 Synthesis of secondary metabolites by plants or endophytes?

190 Endophytes are coming more and more into the focus of researchers
191 due to their capacity to produce diverse classes of plant-associated sec-
192 ondary metabolites (Aly et al., 2013) such as the antimicrobial agent

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