



Engineering *Nicotiana benthamiana* as a platform for natural product biosynthesis

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Nicotiana benthamiana is a model plant, widely used for research. The susceptibility of young plants to *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* has been utilised for transient gene expression, enabling the production of recombinant proteins at laboratory and commercial scales. More recently, this technique has been used for the rapid prototyping of synthetic genetic circuits and for the elucidation and reconstruction of metabolic pathways. In the last few years, many complex metabolic pathways have been successfully reconstructed in this species. In addition, the availability of improved genomic resources and efficient gene editing tools have enabled the application of sophisticated metabolic engineering approaches to increase the purity and yield of target compounds. In this review, we discuss recent advances in the use of *N. benthamiana* for understanding and engineering plant metabolism, as well as efforts to improve the utility of this species as a production chassis for natural products.

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Introduction

Many organisms produce metabolites with properties that are of interest to health and industry. However, these molecules sometimes occur in complex mixtures or within a limited number of cell types reducing accessibility. Furthermore, complex stereochemistry can limit the feasibility of chemical synthesis. Consequently, global demands can place unsustainable pressure on the species in which they occur. For example,

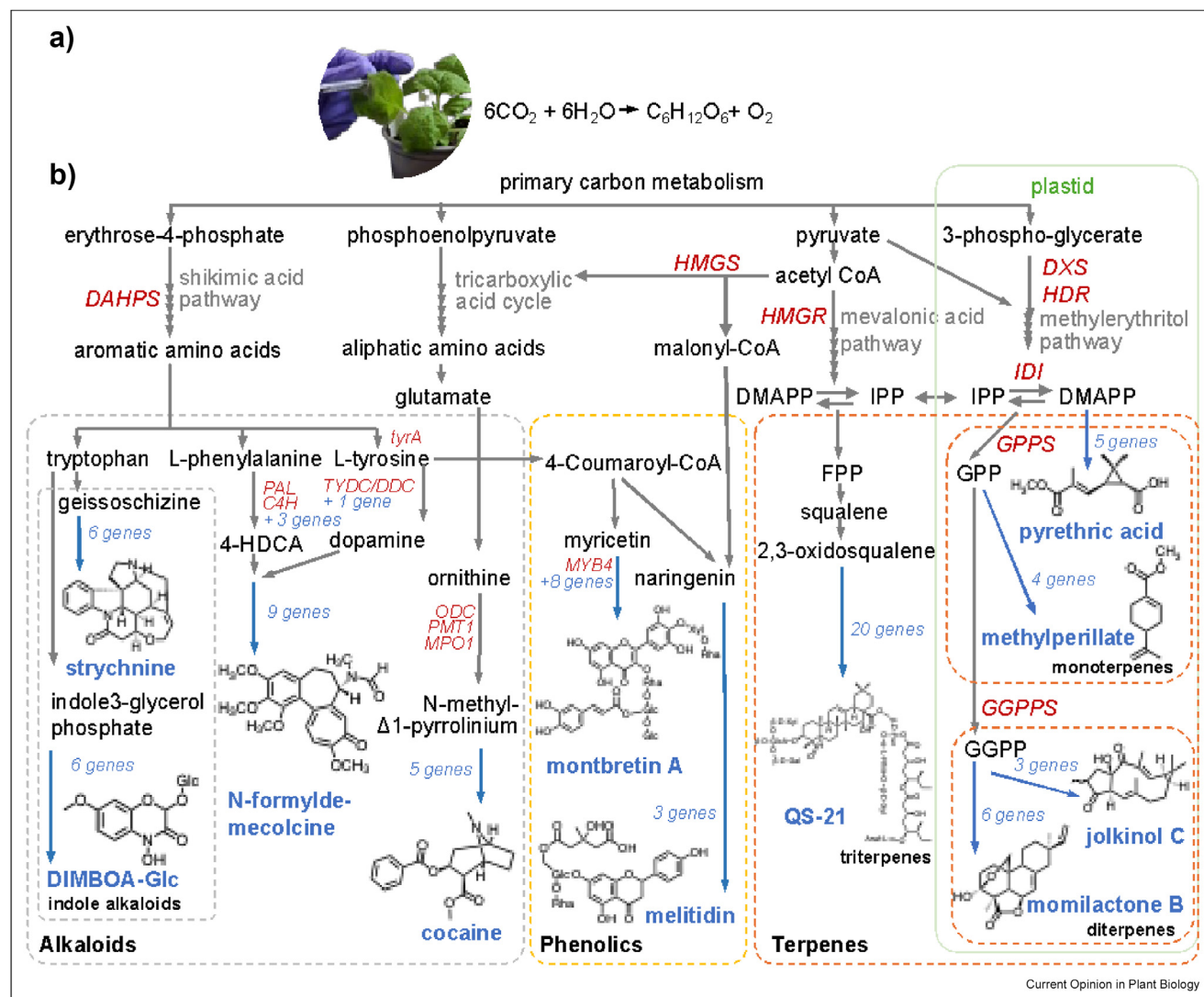
the extraction of paclitaxel from the bark of the Pacific yew (*Taxus brevifolia*) led to a 30% decline in population, resulting in the species being listed as ‘near threatened’ [1].

Reconstruction of plant metabolic pathways in microbial hosts provides an alternative route for production. This can enable high yields and allow enzymes from different species to be combined into novel pathways to produce new-to-nature molecules. However, as an emerging industry, it remains difficult to predict commercial competitiveness. Furthermore, the sustainability of some of the feedstocks used to cultivate industrial microbes has been questioned [2]. Photosynthetic chassis, including plants, provides an attractive alternative. Advantages include accessibility to metabolic precursors derived from the products of photosynthesis, the presence of multiple subcellular compartments, and that most enzymes are functional when heterologously expressed [3]. In contrast, genetic manipulation is often more laborious. Here, we discuss the recent explosion in the use of *Nicotiana benthamiana* for the elucidation and reconstruction of metabolic pathways, with a focus on advances in metabolic engineering to improve the utility of this species as a production chassis.

Nicotiana benthamiana, a plant chassis for pathway elucidation and reconstruction

N. benthamiana is an Australian relative of field tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*), utilised for decades as a model species for fundamental research. The widely utilised ‘LAB’ strain descended from a single collection of specific ecotype that carries a disruptive insertion in its RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (Rdr1) gene, weakening its immunity [4]. A prized feature of *N. benthamiana* is its amenability to rapid, transient expression using a technique known as agroinfiltration, in which strains of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* carrying genes or pathways of interest are injected into leaves (Figure 1a). This results in high-level expression after just a few days. Recent efforts to optimise agroinfiltration include the development of an ‘E-platform’ for whole-plant vacuum infiltration [5] and targeted mutagenesis of genes involved in immunity and flowering to maximise biomass [6,7]. In addition, viral vectors that self-replicate following agroinfiltration have also been used to increase yields [8,9].

Figure 1



Examples of plant biosynthetic pathways reconstructed in *Nicotiana benthamiana*. **a)** The infiltration of *Agrobacterium* strains carrying pathway genes into leaf tissues enables the conversion of endogenous metabolites, themselves derived from the products of photosynthesis, to target compounds. **b)** Examples of multigene heterologous pathways reconstructed in *Nicotiana benthamiana*. Black/grey text indicates endogenous metabolites/pathways; red text indicates endogenous enzymes targeted for metabolic engineering by over expression of endogenous or heterologous isoforms; blue text indicates heterologous pathways and products. C4H, cinnamate 4-hydroxylase; DAHPS, 3-deoxy-D-arabinoheptulosonate 7-phosphate synthase; DXR, 1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductase; DXS, 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase; GGPPS, geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate synthase; GPPS, geranyl pyrophosphate synthase; HMGR, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase; HMGS, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A synthase; IDI, isopentenyl diphosphate isomerase; MPO, N-methylputrescine oxidase; MYB4, R2R3-subfamily transcription factor; ODC, ornithine decarboxylase; PMT, putrescine N-methyltransferase; PAL, phenylalanine ammonia lyase; tyrA, prephenate dehydrogenase; TYDC/DDC, L-tyrosine/L-DOPA decarboxylase; DXS, deoxyxylulose 5-phosphate synthase.

The use of *N. benthamiana* has now expanded to the elucidation and reconstitution of increasingly complex biosynthetic pathways (Figure 1b). The ability to simultaneously co-infiltrate multiple *Agrobacterium* strains facilitates the reconstruction of such pathways, negating the requirement to assemble large DNA constructs; candidates for unknown pathway steps can be tested simply by substituting single strains [10]. To date,

several classes of molecules have been successfully produced in *N. benthamiana*. Recent achievements in the production of monoterpenoids include methylperillate, valued as a functionalised substrate for the production of terephthalic acid [11], and the insecticidal pyrethric acid [12]. Examples of diterpenoid production include jolkinol C [13], the anticancer paclitaxel [14], and the allelopathic momilactone B [15]. Examples of triterpenoids

include immunostimulant triterpene glycosides [16,17], the early biosynthetic steps of limonoids and tetranortriterpenoids used as bioinsecticides [18]. Reported yields of terpenoids differ considerably: while yields of heterologously produced momilactone B were far higher (167 µg/g dry weight (DW)) than those obtained from rice husks [15], yields of QS21 were three to five times lower than those reported for *Quillaja saponaria* (soap bark tree) [17]. It is important to note, however, that transient expression takes only a few days; thus, biomass production is far greater than from slow-growing tree species.

Successfully expressed phenolic compounds include the phytotoxic sorgoleone [19], the terpenophenolic cannabigerolic acid [20], and the acylated flavonol glycosides, montbretin A [21,22] and melitidin [23]. *N. benthamiana* has also been utilised to elucidate the pathway of a large number of alkaloids including strychnine [24], the benzoxazinoid 2-(2,4-dihydroxy-7-methoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one)-β-d-glucopyranose [25], the colchicine precursor N-formyl demecolcine [26], cocaine [27], diosgenin [28], and piperine [29].

The power of agroinfiltration to facilitate the screening gene combinations was particularly well highlighted by the identification of auxiliary genes to alleviate metabolic bottlenecks in the production of the glucosinolate, glucoraphanin [30]. The advantages of co-infiltration have also been used to enable the production of new-to-nature compounds. Combining genes from different species enabled the production of novel β-amyrin-based triterpenes [31], whereas co-infiltrating unnatural substrates enabled the production of novel monoterpene indole alkaloids [32].

Scaling up: transient vs. transgenic expression

Large-scale facilities for the scale-up of *N. benthamiana* agroinfiltration have been developed. However, these typically require an artificially lit and heated or cooled plant growth facility, peat-free media or substrate for plant cultivation, feedstocks for culturing *A. tumefaciens* strains, and specialised infrastructures for moving plants for infiltration [33]. It remains uncertain if such platforms will be economically viable for the production of natural products that are not of exceptionally high commercial value.

In contrast, stable transgenics take a considerable amount of time to produce and characterise, and the regulatory processes for field growth of transgenic plants remain challenging. However, field cultivation is comparatively cheap and easy to scale. Transgenic approaches often seek to integrate transgenes into the nuclear genome. To facilitate transmission to progeny generations, it is desirable to integrate transgenes as a single multigenic cassette. Furthermore, to avoid silencing, plants with single-integration loci are

preferred. This means that yields of target products are considerably lower (per unit of leaf tissue) than those obtained by transient infiltration [34]. Although *N. benthamiana* is a relatively small species, closely related species such as *N. tabacum* accumulate considerable biomass. Ultimately, to compare the commercial feasibility of transient and field production, calculations of yield per unit of input cost are likely to be a more useful measure than µg/g. This is similarly true for comparisons to microbial production, for which different units (e.g. g/L) are used to report yields.

A further challenge of stable transgenics is controlling gene expression. Strong, constitutive expression of heterologous metabolic pathways can impact plant growth and development, as observed in lines producing fatty-acid-based insect sex pheromones [35]. While these impacts can be overcome by the use of inducible promoters, it is challenging to maintain high yields [34]. The same study also noted that the assembly of pathway genes onto a multigenic construct altered the relative gene expression of pathway genes, which then affected the yields of the target products [34]. Furthermore, coassembly of genes onto single cassettes requires access to a diversity of regulatory elements to avoid gene silencing; constructs with repeated elements were observed to reduce yields of monoterpene indole alkaloids [36].

Transplastomic plants, in which transgenes are integrated into plastid genomes, exploit the high copy number of plastid genomes. This has been utilised to achieve high yields of recombinant proteins. Importantly, Schmidt et al. demonstrated that production of bacterial cellulase from transplastomic *N. tabacum* plants reduced costs by three orders of magnitude over current cell-culture methods [37]. However, plastid production of natural products may be limited by the fact that plastids contain only a subset of plant metabolic pathway precursors. This may be overcome by the expression of additional enzymes to enable a wider range of pathways to be reconstructed. For example, the normally cytosolic artemisinin biosynthetic pathway was reconstructed in transplastomic *N. benthamiana* plants by expressing a farnesyl pyrophosphate synthase (FPPS) to enable the pathway to utilise C₅ isoprenoid products of the plastidial methylerythritol phosphate (MEP) pathway [38]. The concentration of artemisinic acid in transplastomic plants reached up to 1.2% DW, favourable to yields obtained from *Artemisia annua* (0.01–1% DW) [38]. However, transient expression experiments in which diterpene biosynthesis was rerouted from the chloroplast to the cytosol to make use of the high-flux mevalonate pathway, improved yields of momilactone B [15]. Further, redirecting cytosolic enzymes from the strictosidine biosynthesis pathway to the plastid reduced yield [39]. These data indicate that while the copy number of the plastid genome may be

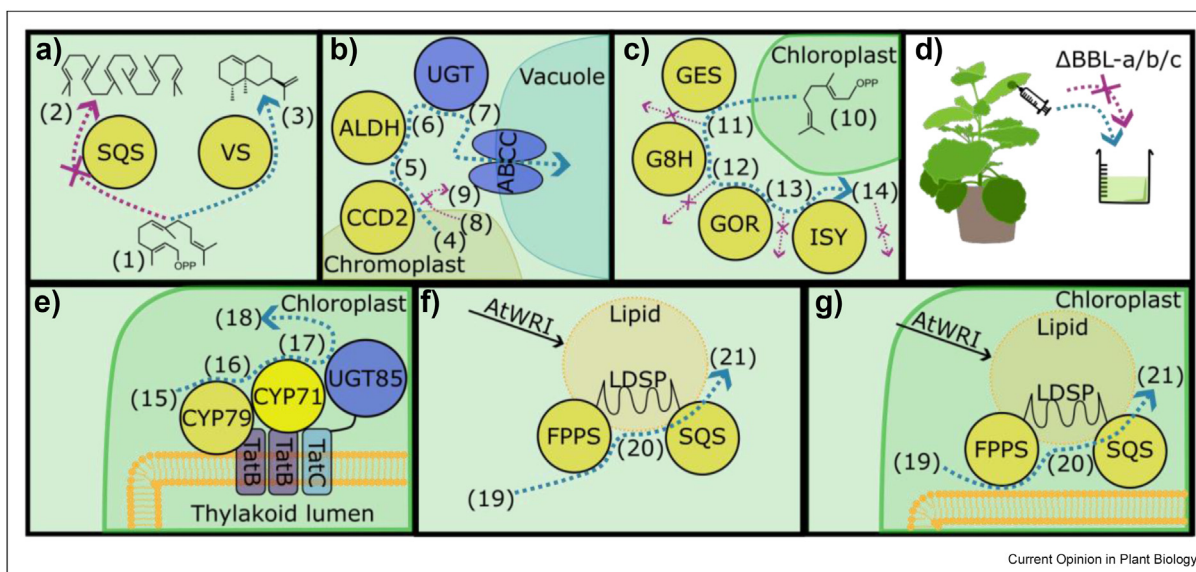
advantageous compared to nuclear encoded transgenes, metabolic flux and enzyme environment are critical for maximising yields.

Metabolic engineering to increase precursor availability

Recent years have also seen advances in *N. benthamiana* metabolic engineering. This includes the application of technologies such as RNAi and gene editing to manipulate endogenous metabolism (Figure 2 a-d) and synthetic biology strategies to engineer pathway localisation (Figure 2 e-g). The conservation of plant central metabolism means engineering the production of precursors is rarely required to produce plant natural products in *N. benthamiana*. However, precursor availability can be yield-limiting. Knocking down the expression of

endogenous pathways that compete for the same precursor has been shown to increase yields of target molecules [40,41] (Figure 2a). Similarly, co-expressing genes encoding rate-limiting steps in the mevalonate pathway increased production of triterpenes and sesquiterpenes by increasing the pool of C₅ precursors [31,42]. Further increases in the yields of triterpenes and sesquiterpenes have been achieved using a translational fusion of FPPS and 3-hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-coenzyme A reductase (HMGR), or by expression of a feedback-insensitive HMGR [31,43]. Similarly, overexpression of *Arabidopsis* deoxyxylulose 5-phosphate synthase and hydroxymethylbutenyl diphosphate reductase (HDR) increased yields of linalool, casbene, and lathyrane (jolkinol C) in *N. benthamiana* by increasing the pool of C₅ precursors from the plastidial MEP pathway [13,42].

Figure 2



Metabolic engineering strategies to increase the yield and purity of target compounds in *Nicotiana benthamiana*. Panels A–D illustrate the manipulation of endogenous metabolism using gene silencing or editing approaches. Panels E–G illustrate synthetic scaffolding of pathways. Blue arrows represent the desired reactions, and purple arrows represent unwanted reactions. **a)** Silencing the gene encoding squalene synthase (SQS), which competes for the pool of (1) farnesyl pyrophosphate (FPP) to produce (2) squalene, increased the yields of (3) (+)-valencene from heterologous expression of *Callitropsis nootkatensis* valencene synthase (VS) (Cankar et al., 2014). **b)** Crocin production was engineered by heterologous expression of *Crocus sativus* carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase 2 (CCD2) to convert (4) zeaxanthin to (5) crocetin dialdehyde, an aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH31) to convert (5) to (6) crocetin, and a UDP-glycosyltransferase (UGT91P3) to convert (6) to (7) crocins. CCD2 can also utilise (8) lutein as an alternative substrate resulting in the accumulation of (9) 3-OH- ϵ -apo-8'-carotenal. This unwanted reaction was reduced by mutating endogenous zeaxanthin epoxidases (ZEP1 and ZEP2) to reduce the production of (8) lutein [43]. **c)** In the early iridoid pathway (10), geranyl pyrophosphate is converted to (14) *cis-trans* nepetalactol via (11) geraniol, (12) 8-hydroxygeraniol, and (13) 8-oxogeraniol by the action of geraniol synthase (GES), geraniol 8-oxidase (G8H), and iridoid synthase (ISY). Reconstruction of the *Catheranthus roseus* early iridoid pathway in *N. benthamiana* resulted in the accumulation of pathway intermediates with unwanted pentose- and hexose-sugar-modifications. This derivatisation was reduced in plant lines with loss-of-function mutations in endogenous UGTs (Dudley et al., 2022). **d)** Loss-of-function mutations in endogenous berberine bridge-like enzymes (BBLs) reduced the accumulation of alkaloids including nicotine, which can complicate product purification from *N. benthamiana* [51]. **e)** In *Sorghum bicolor* (18) Dhurrin is biosynthesised from (15) tyrosine via (16) p-hydroxyphenylacetaldoxime and (17) p-hydroxymandelonitrile by two cytochrome p450s (CYP79 and CYP71) and a UDP-glucosyltransferase (UGT85). Fusing these enzymes to *Arabidopsis thaliana* twin arginine translocation proteins B and C (AtTatB and AtTatC) created a synthetic metabolon in the thylakoid membrane, increasing yields and reducing product derivatisation [42]. **f)** (21) Squalene is produced from (19) isopentyl pyrophosphate to (21) squalene via (20) farnesylpyrophosphate by farnesyl pyrophosphate synthase (FPPS) and squalene synthase (SQS). The accumulation of squalene was increased by tag-mediated scaffolding of these enzymes on lipid-droplets produced via the expression of the *Arabidopsis thaliana* WRINKLED1 (AtWRI1) transcription factor. **g)** When reconstructed in chloroplasts, these lipid droplets reduced the negative effects of squalene production on photosynthesis [53].

Coexpression of an MYB transcription factor from montbretia (*Crocodynia × crocosmiiflora*) to upregulate the phenylpropanoid pathway together with a flavonol synthase and a flavonol 3',5'-hydroxylase enhanced production of the aglycone precursor myricetin [21]. Similarly, Selma et al. used a Cas9 activator system (dCas9EV2.1) to selectively upregulate pathways demonstrating increased production of naringenin, eriodictyol, kaempferol, and quercetin [44]. Finally, maximising precursor flux into a heterologous pathway was enabled by fusing pathway enzymes to Tat proteins, anchoring them to the thylakoid to make synthetic metabolons. This led to a five-fold increase in dhurrin yields [45] (Figure 2e).

The availability of the correct precursors is also important to avoid nonspecific reactions. For example, when reconstructing casbene biosynthesis, it was noted that removal of HDR leads to a bottleneck that results in the incorporation of 4-hydroxy-3-methyl-but-2-enyl pyrophosphate to make 16-hydroxy-geranylinalool, reducing yield [46]. Furthermore, glycosylation of montbretin A was found to be nonspecific when reconstructed in *N. benthamiana*, but coexpression of three genes from the shikimate shunt of the general phenylpropanoid pathway enabled production of the caffeoyl-CoA group required for montbretin A activity [22]. Genome editing was used to engineer *N. benthamiana* carotenoid-biosynthesis to predominantly accumulate zeaxanthin as precursor for crocin production, evading the promiscuity of the first enzyme of the native pathway, *Crocus sativus* carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase 2, for alternative substrates [8] (Figure 2b). Similar approaches have been proposed for increasing yields of the methionine-derived glucosinolate, glucoraphanin, as *N. benthamiana* produces more leucine and isoleucine-rich glucosinolates [30].

Strategies to engineer the accumulation and purity of target compounds

An often-reported difficulty of expressing natural products in *N. benthamiana* is the derivatization of pathway intermediates and target compounds. An early report demonstrated the action of endogenous glycosyltransferases on artemisinic acid to make artemisinic acid-12-b-diglucoside [43]. Subsequently, modifications including glutathione conjugates, cysteine conjugates, hydroxylation, and glycosides have been detected when producing monoterpenes, monoterpene-indole alkaloids, diterpenes, and sesquiterpenes [39,47–50]. This may also affect a wider range of compounds: although studies of *N. benthamiana* UDP-glycosyltransferases (UGTs) are limited, UGTs with high promiscuity to a range of substrates from different chemical classes have been identified in other plant species [51]. UGTs are primarily cytosolic, and relocating the dhurrin biosynthetic pathway to the plastids

reduced derivatization five-fold [45]. A reduction in the derivatization of early intermediates of monoterpene indole alkaloid biosynthesis was observed in *N. benthamiana* lines with loss-of-function mutations in endogenous UGTs [39] (Figure 2c). *N. benthamiana* also produces alkaloids including nicotine that are likely to complicate purification of target compounds. The production of the thaumatin II protein required a chromatographic step to reduce alkaloids to acceptable levels [52], and separation from natural products is likely to be even more complex. To address this, genome editing has been used to produce low-nicotine lines of *N. benthamiana* and *N. tabacum* [53,54] (Figure 2d). Multiplexed genome engineering combined with further characterisation of *N. benthamiana* enzyme families may therefore provide routes for further improvements to this production chassis.

Engineering of *N. benthamiana* has also focussed on increasing the ability to store target compounds. For example, Delatte et al. increased the production of lipid bodies by expression of a triglyceride-synthesising enzyme, diacylglycerol acyltransferase-1 (AtDGAT1), from Arabidopsis together with transcription factors (AtWRI1 and AtOLE1) to upregulate fatty-acid biosynthesis [55]. When expressed with pathway genes, this strategy enabled a two-fold increase in stored α -barbatene and (*E*)- β -caryophyllene. Bibik et al. also expressed AtWRI1 to form lipid droplets, combining this with the fusion of squalene biosynthetic enzymes (farnesyl-pyrophosphate farnesyltransferase and squalene synthase) to a lipid-droplet surface protein from the microalga *Nannochloropsis oceanica* to target them to the lipid droplets for direct storage of squalene [56] (Figure 2f). Heterologous expression of some pathways has been shown to be detrimental to photosynthesis [56,57]. Relocating the lipid-droplet strategy to the chloroplast reduced this impact [56,57] (Figure 2g). Other groups found that the number of lipid bodies in *N. benthamiana* could be increased by expression of a WRI1 homologue from *Perilla frutescens*, which may be utilised for further yield increases [58].

Conclusions

In the last few years, *N. benthamiana* has been utilised for the elucidation of numerous complex plant biosynthetic pathways (Figure 1). In particular, agroinfiltration has facilitated the testing and comparison of candidate genes for unknown pathway steps. However, the feasibility of agroinfiltration as a scalable platform for commercial production of natural products largely remains untested. To date, only a few molecules have been produced at a scale sufficient to enable purification and technoeconomic feasibility assessments are limited. Importantly, variability in the methods and units used to quantify product yields, combined with a limited understanding of production costs make it challenging to

compare production in *N. benthamiana* to other production chassis.

Other plant species being explored as scalable bio-production chassis include the bryophytes *Marchantia polymorpha* and *Physcomitrella patens* [59,60]. These platforms offer the advantage of rapid biomass accumulation. However, although transformation methods are established and are faster than for many vascular plants, the timelines are still lengthy, compared to agroinfiltration, which makes them less attractive for prototyping and pathway elucidation. As the number and types of pathways reconstituted in *N. benthamiana* have increased, issues such as unwanted derivatization have become more apparent. The last few years have seen a focus on metabolic engineering to increase the yield, purity, and accumulation of target products (Figure 2). The availability of multiomic resources for *N. benthamiana* is likely to lead to further rapid advances [61]. However, there is still a pressing need for better molecular toolkits that enable the precise control of gene expression and efficient gene-editing to increase the throughput of metabolic engineering cycles.

Author contributions

NJP and CT were responsible for conceptualisation. DG and CT were responsible for graphics. All authors contributed to writing and editing. NJP and CT were responsible for supervision. NJP was responsible for fundraising.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

No data were used for the research described in the article.

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