Functional expression of cytochrome P450 in *Escherichia coli*: An approach to functional analysis of uncharacterized enzymes for flavonoid biosynthesis

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Abstract  Biochemical analyses of metabolic enzymes are performed using in vitro assays with enzymes and substrates. Enzyme samples are generally prepared from heterologous cell expression systems, which are also used as tools to obtain substrates that are not commercially available or cannot be easily isolated from natural sources. Cytochrome P450 (CYP) comprises a widely distributed family of monooxygenases that are commonly used for biosynthesis of natural products. Since CYP activity requires an electron transport system with membrane bound CYP reductase (CPR), it has been believed that CYP is not easily expressed in *Escherichia coli*, despite multiple advantages as a heterologous system compared with other systems that employ eukaryotic yeast and insect cells. In this study, we demonstrated simple and efficient methods for functional expression of CYPs in *E. coli* using commercially available vectors in which the transmembrane-domain truncated CYP was co-expressed with CPR as a discrete polypeptide, and we also used them to identify CYP81E11, CYP81E12, and CYP81E18 of soybean as isoflavone 2′-hydroxylase. Culture conditions were optimized for the bioconversion of I2′H, and the highest production was 161 mg l⁻¹ of medium under optimized conditions. Subsequently, six other CYPs that are involved in flavonoid biosynthesis were tested for their applicability in the *E. coli* expression system. Establishment of the present method may facilitate functional expression of CYPs for preparation of CYP products, including substrates for enzymatic reactions, valuable natural products, and their unnatural derivatives.

Key words:  Bioconversion, cytochrome P450, *Escherichia coli*, heterologous expression, isoflavone 2′-hydroxylase.

Functional characterization of genes is generally performed by two approaches: the biochemical and genetic analyses. Recent technological innovations have facilitated complete genome sequencing of many organisms and the accumulation of comprehensive “omics” information. The molecular genetic approach to functional identification of genes is increasingly feasible because of accumulating genomic and post-genomic information. However, the molecular genetic approach is not always available, necessitating continued use of complementary biochemical approaches. Biochemical functional analyses involve in vitro enzymatic assays using enzyme proteins and their substrates; heterologous cell expression systems are popular methods for obtaining these enzymes. Although target enzymes are sometimes purified directly from research materials, heterologous expression systems are useful for producing enzymes with cloned genes or cDNA encoding the target enzyme. Preparation of substrates, which is essential for the biochemical approach, is achieved by isolation from biological materials, chemical synthesis, or by use of commercial products. If the substrate for an enzyme assay is not readily available, its preparation from a more available precursor using a heterologously expressed enzyme will be a powerful alternative.

Cytochrome P450 (CYP) is a heme-protein of the monooxygenase family, which is widely distributed in multiple organisms. CYPs of plants are involved in the biosynthesis of phytohormones and primary and secondary metabolites, and comprise electron transport systems with CPR in membranes such as those of the endoplasmic reticulum. Therefore, eukaryotic cells such as insect and yeast cells, are preferred over prokaryotic cells such as *Escherichia coli*, for heterologous expression of CYPs. However, eukaryotic cell systems have some limitations, and insect cells are not easy to culture and are unsuitable for production purposes because they die after baculovirus transformation. Although culturing yeasts is easier, low accumulation of the recombinant proteins and slow
growth speed are the drawbacks of yeast systems. Thus, an efficient functional CYP expression system in *E. coli* may facilitate biochemical functional characterization of CYPs and biosynthetic preparations of substrates that involve CYPs.

Almost all higher plants produce flavonoids as major secondary metabolites. Leguminous plants also produce a distinct class of flavonoids, isoflavonoids, and leguminous isoflavonoids account for more than 90% of the total isoflavonoids (Dewick 1993). Some isoflavonoids act as phytoalexins and some have beneficial activities for mammals. Among isoflavonoids, glyceollins have a characteristic tetracyclic structure and are known as pterocarpan. Glyceollins are synthesized via glycine as the major phytoalexin in soybeans (*Glycine max*) and are known for their antibiotic and antitumor activities (Boué et al. 2009; Salvo et al. 2006; Weinstein et al. 1981). Medicarpin is another pterocarpan-type phytoalexin that is distributed in various legume lineages, including *Canavalia*, *Cicer*, *Glycyr rhiza*, *Medicago*, *Melilotus*, and *Trifolium*. Vestitol is biosynthesized by reductive cleavage of the dihydrofuran ring of medicarpin (Akashi et al. 2006) and is distributed in various genera, including *Glycyr rhiza*, *Medicago*, and *Lotus*.

Several leguminous CYPs are involved in the biosynthesis of isoflavonoids, and among these 2-hydroxyisoflanalone synthase (IFS), a member of the CYP93C subfamily, plays particularly important roles (Akashi et al. 1999a; Steele et al. 1999). In addition, isoflavone 2′-hydroxylase (I2′H) belongs to the CYP81E subfamily and participates in the initial stage of pterocarpan biosynthesis (Figure 1). Isoflavonoids of legumes vary in the functional group at the 4′ position and are classified as 4′-hydroxy and 4′-methoxy types; cDNA clones for I2′H have been isolated from the plants that predominantly accumulate 4′-methoxy type phytoalexin, such as *Glycyrrhiza echinata* (CYP81E1) (Akashi et al. 1998b), *Lotus japonicus* (CYP81E6) (Shimada et al. 2000), and *Medicago truncatula* (CYP81E7) (Liu et al. 2003). I2′H from these plants is highly active towards 4′-hydroxy substrates. On the other hand, although no cDNA or gene for I2′H has been identified from soybean, the specificity of its I2′H to 4′-hydroxy substrates is expected because of predominant accumulation of 4′-hydroxy type pterocarpan phytoalexins in soybean. In contrast with leguminous isoflavonoids, flavones are widely distributed in higher plants and are produced by the CYPs flavanone 2-hydroxylase (F2H) or flavone synthase II (FNS II) (Figure 1), which have been identified separately in multiple plant species (Akashi et al. 1999a, 1999b; Du et al. 2010a, 2010b; Fliegmann et al. 2010; Kitada et al. 2001; Lam et al. 2014; Martens and Forkmann 1999; Nakatsuka et al. 2005; Zhang et al. 2007).

In previous studies of plant CYP expression in *E. coli*, functions of uncharacterized genes have been demonstrated, CYP proteins have been produced for crystal structure analyses, and metabolites of interest have been prepared using biotransformation methods. In particular, in vitro and in vivo assays with *E. coli* expression systems have been exploited to characterize the roles of CYP74 in allene oxide and aldehyde biosynthesis, CYP79 and CYP83 in glucosinolate biosynthesis, and CYP71 in the hydroxylation of sesquiterpenes (Brash 2009; Harada et al. 2011; Nafisi et al. 2006). *E. coli* expression systems have been used for large-scale preparation and purification of IFS and p-coumarate 3-hydroxylase (CYP98A). In these studies, the N-terminal region of plant CYPs was substituted with that of a mammalian CYP to maximize expression efficiency (Kim et al. 2011). In other studies, the fusion protein of IFS and CPR was expressed in *E. coli* to produce isoflavones by biotransformation (Kim et al. 2009; Leonard and Koffas 2007). Flavonol and flavanone have also been produced through biotransformation in *E. coli* expressing flavonoid 3′-hydroxylase (CYP75B) and flavonoid 3′,5′-hydroxylase (CYP75A) fused with CPR, and various other flavonoid biosynthetic enzymes (Leonard et al. 2006; Zhu et al. 2014). In many cases, CYP was expressed as a fusion protein with CPR (Hotze et al. 1995; Kim et al. 2009; Leonard et al. 2006; Leonard and Koffas 2007; Zhu et al. 2014) because it has been believed that prokaryotic cells lack membranous scaffolding for the electron transport chain, and thus fusion with CPR has been believed to be essential for functional expression of CYP in *E. coli*.

In the present study, we report simple and efficient bioconversion methods for CYP-expression in *E. coli*.
using commercially available vectors, which would expedite functional analyses of uncharacterized CYPs and preparation of enzyme assay substrates which are not available by other means. For convenience of vector construction, CYPs were expressed as distinct polypeptides from CPR with minimum modification, i.e., N-terminal truncation of the transmembrane domain. Accordingly, temperatures and culture supplements were optimized. Among supplements, isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) was added to induce heterologous proteins, 5-aminolevulinic acid (ALA) or hemin were added to provide CYP prostatic groups, ammonium iron (II) sulfate was added to provide iron, and ethanol was used to induce molecular chaperones (Thomas and Baneyx 1996, 1997). The efficiencies of various vector constructs were then compared, and the optimized method was used to analyze the function of soybean I2'H candidates, CYP81E11, CYP81E12, and CYP81E18. High yields of 2'-hydroxydaidzein were then achieved using bioconversion in E. coli expressing I2'H, demonstrating efficient synthesis of valuable CYP products.

Materials and methods

Chemicals

Daidzein, formononetin, and (±)-naringenin were purchased from LC Laboratories (Wobum, MA, USA), Toronto Research Chemicals (Toronto, Ontario, Canada), and Tokyo Chemical Industry Co., Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan), respectively. (2S)-Liquiritigenin and 2'-hydroxydaidzein were obtained from laboratory stocks and 5-aminolevulinic acid hydrochloride was purchased from Cosmo Bio Co., Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan). Hemin was purchased from Tokyo Chemical Industry Co., Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan). Isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside, 99.5% ethanol, and ammonium iron (II) sulfate hexahydrate [Fe(NH₄)₂(SO₄)₂·6H₂O] were purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd. (Osaka, Japan).

cDNA cloning

Total RNA was isolated using a SV Total RNA Isolation System (Promega Corporation, Madison, WI, USA), and templates for cDNA cloning were synthesized using a SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis System for RT-PCR (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Sources of mRNA were as follows: a callus culture of soybean cv. Nipponbare for CYP93G2. The cDNA clone GMFL01-20-B13 was provided by the National Bioresource Project (NBRP) and was used as a template for CYP81E12 (NCBI RefSeq accession number NP_0012411200). The cDNA clones for CYP81E1, CYP93B1, CYP93B4, CYP93C2, and LjCPR1 were from laboratory stocks (Akashi et al. 1998a, 1998b, 1999a, 1999b; Seki et al. 2008). CYP nomenclature was based on that recommended on Dr. Nelson's web site (http://drnelson.ut HCI.edu/CytochromeP450.html). Codon-optimized coding sequences of Δ2-23-CYP81E1 and Δ2-23-CYP81E6 (DDBJ accession numbers LC043097 and LC043098) were designed using GeneOptimizer® (Invitrogen) and the synthesized DNA samples (Invitrogen) were used to construct expression vectors.

Expression vectors for CYPs and LjCPR1

CYPs and LjCPR1 were co-expressed using the dual plasmid method and the tandem construct method. Membrane-binding regions (MBR) of CYPs and LjCPR1 were predicted using WolFPSORT (http://wolfpsort.org/) and SOSUI (http://bp.nuap.nagoya-u.ac.jp/sosui/), and MBR-truncated coding sequences were PCR amplified using KOD Plus Ver.2 (Toyobo, Tokyo, Japan), PrimeSTAR HS DNA Polymerase (Takara, Shiga, Japan), or PrimeSTAR MAX DNA Polymerase (Takara). Primer sets and DNA polymerases used for vector construction are listed in Table 1.

In the dual plasmid method, PCR products of CYPs and LjCPR1 were introduced into pET46 Ek/LIC (Novagen, Madison, WI, USA) and pCDF2 Ek/LIC vectors (Novagen), respectively (Figure 2A), using a ligation-independent cloning (LIC) method according to the manufacturer's instructions. In the tandem construct method, MBR-truncated LjCPR1 was initially introduced into the pET46 Ek/LIC vector, and CYPs were amplified with a T7 promoter using the CYP-introduced pET46 Ek/LIC vectors described above as templates. The amplified T7 promoter–CYP was integrated into the LjCPR1-containing pET46, which was treated with Xho I, using an Infusion HD Cloning Kit (Clontech, Mountain View, CA, USA) (Figure 2B).

As an alternative method for tandem construction, a Gateway cassette was amplified using Gateway cassette-Fw and Gateway cassette-Rv primers and the Reading Frame B of a Gateway Vector Conversion System (Invitrogen) as a template; the cassette was then integrated into the pET46 and the cassette was amplified with the T7 promoter. The amplified T7 promoter–Gateway cassette was amplified using GeneOptimizer® and the synthesized DNA fragments were obtained from library stocks (Shiga et al. 2000) for CYP81E6; and 10-day-old seedlings of Oryza sativa
were introduced into the Gateway cassette in the LjCPR1-containing pET46 via pDONR221 (Invitrogen) using successive BP and LR reactions of the Gateway technology according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

**Fermentation**

*E. coli* strain C41 (DE3) (Lucigen Corporation, Middleton, WI, USA) was transformed with the expression vectors mentioned above. A 10 ml of cold LB medium containing 50 mg l⁻¹ carbenicillin and 50 mg l⁻¹ spectinomycin for dual plasmid method, or 50 mg l⁻¹ carbenicillin for tandem construct method, was inoculated with a 1 ml overnight culture of recombinant *E. coli* in the same medium, and was cultured in a 50 ml CELLSTAR® filtertop spheroid cell culture tube (Greiner Bio-One, Tokyo, Japan) to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.4–0.5. IPTG and 2–4 mg of substrate were dissolved in 20 µl of a mixture of dimethyl sulfoxide and polyoxyethylene (80) sorbitan monooleate (1:1, v/v). These were then added to cultures with...
other supplements and were incubated for 24 h. The tentative standard supplements used in optimization experiments (Figure 4) included 0.5 mM IPTG, 1 mM ALA, 1 mM thiamine, 50 mM FeCl₃, 1 mM MgCl₂, and 2.5 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄. See the Results for the optimized composition of supplements.

HPLC analysis
A 200 µl aliquot of culture was mixed with an equal volume of ethyl acetate, was vortexed for a few seconds, and was then centrifuged at 13,300 g for 1 min at 4°C. Prior to IFS and F2H assays, cultures were treated with 1 M HCl in a boiling water bath for 10 min, and then mixed with ethyl acetate. An aliquot of organic phase (150 µl) was then dried using blowing air and was dissolved in 100 µl of methanol. Samples were analyzed using HPLC on a Shim-pack PREP-ODS column (20 mm; Kieselgel F254, Merck, Kenilworth, NJ, USA) with the solvent system (JEOL, Tokyo, Japan). The reaction products were monitored using a multiwavelength detector (MD-2010, JASCO, Tokyo, Japan). The reaction products were identified using comparisons of retention times and UV spectra with those from the authentic samples.

1H-NMR analysis of 2′-hydroxydaidzein and 2′-hydroxygenistein
The reaction products of CYP81E18 using daidzein and genistein as substrates were isolated from the ethyl acetate extract of the culture medium by column chromatography on a silica-gel column (26×100 mm) with chloroform:methanol (99:1–80:20, v/v) using a flash chromatography system (YFLC AI-580, Yamazen, Osaka, Japan). 2′-Hydroxydaidzein was purified by thin-layer chromatography on a silica gel plate (Kieselgel F254, Merck, Kenilworth, NJ, USA) with the solvent toluene:ethyl acetate:methanol:light petroleum (6:4:1:3, v/v) and HPLC on a Shim-pack PREP-ODS column (20×250 mm; Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) with 35% (v/v) acetonitrile at a flow rate of 10 ml/min⁻¹. 2′-Hydroxygenistein was purified by silica-gel thin-layer chromatography with chloroform:methanol (9:1, v/v). The NMR spectra were recorded on a JMN ECA-500 system (JEOL, Tokyo, Japan). 2′-Hydroxydaidzein, 1H-NMR (methanol-d4) δ: 6.38 (1H, d, J=2.5, 8.5 Hz, H-5′), 6.39 (1H, d, J=2.5 Hz, H-3′), 6.83 (1H, d, J=2.5 Hz, H-8), 6.93 (1H, dd, J=2.5, 9.0 Hz, H-6), 7.04 (1H, d, J=8.5 Hz, H-6′), 8.04 (1H, d, J=9.0 Hz, H-5), 8.11 (1H, s, H-2). 2′-Hydroxygenistein, 1H-NMR (methanol-d4) δ: 6.22 (1H, d, J=2.5 Hz, H-6), 6.35 (1H, d, J=2.5 Hz, H-8), 6.37 (1H, dd, J=2.5, 8.5 Hz, H-5′), 6.39 (1H, d, J=2.5 Hz, H-3′), 7.04 (1H, d, J=8.5 Hz, H-6′), 8.00 (1H, s, H-2).

Results
The optimum culture conditions
The basic principle of this method depends on expression of CYP as a polypeptide that is distinct from CPR in E. coli with minimum modification using commercially available expression vectors. To test this principle, bioconversion was performed in recombinant E. coli. CYP81E12 was arbitrarily selected among the candidates for soybean I2′H. Coding sequences for transmembrane-domain-truncated CYP81E12 and LjCPR1 were integrated into pET46 and pCDF2 vectors, respectively, for use in the dual plasmid method (Figure 2A). Subsequently, recombinant E. coli were cultured in LB medium supplemented with IPTG, daidzein (substrate), ALA, ethanol, and ammonium iron (II) sulfate. After fermentation for 24 h, the reaction product was extracted with ethyl acetate and was analyzed using HPLC/PDA. CYP81E12 showed I2′H activity and converted daidzein into 2′-hydroxydaidzein (Figure 3).

Since the functional expression of CYP81E12 and LjCPR1 proved possible using the dual plasmid method, we further improved the conversion efficiency by optimizing temperature and culture supplements in the culture medium. Subsequently, 2′-hydroxydaidzein production was determined after 24 h fermentation and was expressed relative to the highest production for each condition. In these experiments, the optimal temperature was 25°C and production was reduced to 70% at 20°C, 22% at 30°C, and was undetectable at 37°C (Figure 4A). Addition of the heme precursor ALA was essential for functional expression of CYP81E12, and yields increased with increasing ALA concentrations up to 1.0 mM; however, further improvement of efficiency was not shown by increasing concentrations of ALA (Figure 4B). IPTG induces heterologous proteins via the lactose operon. Thus, we compared the two widely used concentrations of 0.5 mM and 1 mM, but no significant difference was observed (Figure 4C). Ethanol was added as an inducer of molecular chaperones, and it increased...
2′-hydroxydaidzein production by about two-fold at 1% and decreased production at higher concentrations (Figure 4D). Addition of hemin instead of ALA yielded lower production, and the use of nutrition-rich TB medium instead of LB medium decreased the production (data not shown). Ammonium iron (II) sulfate was used as an iron source for heme production in previous studies (Harada et al. 2011); therefore, we determined the effects of ammonium iron (II) sulfate in preliminary experiment. The supplement of 100 μM ammonium iron (II) sulfate had a tendency to increase the productivity, although no statistically significant difference was observed (data not shown). According to these observations, standard conditions were established in LB medium supplemented with 0.5 mM IPTG, 1 mM ALA, 1% ethanol, and 100 μM ammonium iron (II) sulfate at 25°C.

**Comparison of dual plasmid and tandem construct methods**

In addition to the dual plasmid method, we tested a vector construction designated as the tandem construct method (Figure 2B, C). It enables the production of both polycistronic CPR-CYP and monocistronic CYP transcripts. Furthermore, CPR expression in the pET46 vector, whose copy number (more than 40) is larger than that of pCDF2 (20–40) according to the manufacturer’s instructions, may result in its increased production compared to the dual plasmid method. Growth of *E. coli* and production of 2′-hydroxydaidzein was compared between the two methods for up to 48 h after induction with IPTG (Table 2). Although no differences in growth rates and final cell densities at the stationary phase were observed, the tandem construct method produced yields that were about 1.4-fold higher than those of the dual plasmid method at 48 h after induction. Moreover, production continued to increase during the stationary phase (more than 10 h after induction) and produced 161 mg l⁻¹ of culture medium at 48 h after induction (Table 2).

**Bioconversion using E. coli expressing enzymes of CYP81 and CYP93 families**

According to public databases, soybean expresses at least two additional members of the CYP81E subfamily (CYP81E11 and CYP81E18). We tested the activity of the CYP81E members of soybean, together with CYP81E1 from *G. echinata* and CYP81E6 from *L. japonicus*, using the present optimized *E. coli* expression method (Table 3). All soybean I2′Hs were active toward the 4′-hydroxytype substrates daidzein and genistein but did not metabolize the 4′-methoxy-type I2′-hydroxygenistein. 2′-Hydroxydaidzein and 2′-hydroxygenistein were identified by 1H-NMR, as well as comparison of retention times and UV spectra with the authentic samples. On the other hand, CYP81E6 showed 4′-methoxy-type I2′H activity but CYP81E1 did not. No activity of CYP81E1 was observed even when the N-terminal truncation site was changed or the N-terminal region was substituted with that of CYP81E12. CYP81E1 and CYP81E6 were also expressed using the codon-optimized construct for

**Table 2. Comparison of dual plasmid and tandem construct methods for co-expression of CYP81E12 and LjCPR1.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fermentation time after IPTG induction (h)</th>
<th>2′-Hydroxydaidzein (mg l⁻¹)</th>
<th>Cell density (OD₆₀₀)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tandem construct*</td>
<td>Dual plasmid*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>ND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.4±0.04</td>
<td>0.6±0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>26±1.0</td>
<td>13±0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>77±3.0</td>
<td>58±2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>161±5.6</td>
<td>113±7.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The production of 2′-hydroxydaidzein from daidzein and the growth of recombinant *E. coli* are shown. Each value is the mean±SD (n=3). *Productivity differed significantly between the two methods (two-way ANOVA, p<10⁻¹⁰). ND, not detected.
E. coli, and the biotransformation efficacies were tested. The activity of CYP81E6 increased by about two fold, whereas the optimized CYP81E1 did not yield detectable amounts of product (Table 3). However, other flavonoid biosynthetic CYPs, including IFS (CYP93C2), F2H (CYP93B1 and 93G2), and FNSII (CYP93B4), showed functional expression in E. coli (Table 3).

**Discussion**

In this study, we established a series of efficient functional expression methods for plant CYPs in E. coli and performed functional analyses of previously uncharacterized CYPs of soybean. For simplicity and suitability of the present method, we avoided modifications of E. coli (Leonard et al. 2006; Zhu et al. 2014) and construction of CPR–CYP fusion proteins for purpose of its application to the preparation of various substrates for biochemical analysis of biosynthetic enzymes and to the production of various natural products of importance. Since optimal expression conditions generally vary depending on expression vectors and types of recombinant DNA expressed, fermentation temperatures and culture supplements were optimized for higher efficiency of bioconversion by soybean CYP81E12. The resulting optimal temperatures and concentrations of IPTG and ALA were similar to those in previous reports of E. coli expression systems for CYP (Figure 4A, B, C). The fermentation temperature should influence several aspects that affect the final productivity: total amount of translated enzyme, the proportion of active-form enzyme in the bacterial cells, the stability of enzyme during the fermentation, and the reaction rate. The optimum productivity observed at 25°C can be due to the best balance among them. The addition of ethanol to the culture medium was tested for molecular chaperone induction and recombinant protein stabilization (Thomas and Baneyx 1996, 1997). In contrast with a previous study that showed an optimal ethanol concentration of 3% (Sahu et al. 2009), yields from the present system were increased 2-fold after addition of 1% ethanol (Figure 4D). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report to demonstrate the effects of ethanol supplementation on CYP expression in E. coli. Furthermore, comparisons of dual plasmid and tandem constructs under optimal conditions (Figure 2) showed about 1.5-fold higher production with the tandem construct than with the dual plasmid construct. This observation may reflect efficient translation of CYP and CPR by the polycistronic transcript derived from the tandem construct or increased CPR copy number, and the highest production of 2′-hydroxydaidzein was 161 mg l⁻¹ of culture medium (Table 2). Previous reports show production of flavonoids such as daidzein, genistein, eriodictyol, and quercetin by bioconversion using E. coli expressing CYP of 1.1–107 mg l⁻¹ (Kim et al. 2009; Leonard et al. 2006; Leonard and Koffas 2007; Zhu et al. 2014). Hence, the present in vivo CYP expression system using E. coli offers a highly efficient method for production of substrates for enzyme assays and for synthesis of natural products of commercial value.

CPR is an essential redox partner for functional expression of CYP, and previous studies of CYP expression have employed endogenous CPR in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Substrate (Product)</th>
<th>CYP</th>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Vector construction</th>
<th>Product*(mg l⁻¹)</th>
<th>Functional identification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I2′H</td>
<td>Daidzein (2′-Hydroxydaidzein)</td>
<td>CYP81E11</td>
<td>G. max</td>
<td>DP</td>
<td>47±5.4</td>
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<td>CYP81E12</td>
<td>G. max</td>
<td>DP</td>
<td>58±2.1</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CYP81E18</td>
<td>G. max</td>
<td>DP</td>
<td>60±11</td>
<td>This study</td>
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<td>Genistein (2′-Hydroxygenistein)</td>
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<td>G. max</td>
<td>DP</td>
<td>Trace</td>
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<td></td>
<td>CYP81E12</td>
<td>G. max</td>
<td>DP</td>
<td>Trace</td>
<td>This study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CYP81E18</td>
<td>G. max</td>
<td>DP</td>
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<td>This study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formononetin (2′-Hydroxyformononetin)</td>
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<td>G. max</td>
<td>DP</td>
<td>ND</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>G. max</td>
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<td>CYP81E18</td>
<td>G. max</td>
<td>DP</td>
<td>ND</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CYP81E1</td>
<td>G. echinata</td>
<td>TC</td>
<td>ND</td>
<td>Akashi et al. 1998b</td>
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<td>CYP81E1 optimized</td>
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<td>ND</td>
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<td>This study</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CYP81E6</td>
<td>L. japonicus</td>
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<td>CYP81E6 optimized</td>
<td>L. japonicus</td>
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<td>This study</td>
<td></td>
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<td>IFS</td>
<td>(±)-Naringenin (Genistein**)</td>
<td>CYP93C2</td>
<td>G. echinata</td>
<td>TC</td>
<td>0.6±0.04</td>
<td>Akashi et al. 1999a</td>
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<td>(2S)-Liquiritigenin (Daidzein**)</td>
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<td>27±2</td>
<td>Akashi et al. 1999a</td>
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<td>F2H</td>
<td>(±)-Naringenin (Apigenin**)</td>
<td>CYP93B1</td>
<td>G. echinata</td>
<td>TC</td>
<td>25±1.6</td>
<td>Akashi et al. 1998a</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>CYP93G2</td>
<td>O. sativa</td>
<td>TC</td>
<td>3.7±0.2</td>
<td>Du et al. 2010b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNS II</td>
<td>(±)-Naringenin (Apigenin)</td>
<td>CYP93B4</td>
<td>T. hybrida</td>
<td>TC</td>
<td>66±7.8</td>
<td>Akashi et al. 1999b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Each value is the mean±SD (n=3). **Converted from the direct product by treatment with HCl. Trace, Detectable (more than 300 μg l⁻¹) but not determined; ND, not detected (less than 300 μg l⁻¹); DP, Dual plasmid method; TC, Tandem construct method.
eukaryotic hosts such as yeast (Katsuyama et al. 2007), or have co-expressed heterologous (Harada et al. 2011; Kim et al. 2009; Leonard and Koffas 2007; Zhu et al. 2014) or homologous CPR (Harada et al. 2011; Hotze et al. 1995; Leonard et al. 2006). Moreover, genetic distances between the sources of the CPR and CYP reportedly influenced the enzyme activity (Kim et al. 2009). However, the LjCPR1 used in this study was selected from three paralogous CPRs of the leguminous plant *L. japonicus* for its ability to confer the highest IFS activities of *G. echinata* and was previously used as a redox partner for functional identification of licorice CYPs (Seki et al. 2008, 2011). Moreover, LjCPR1 was effective for legume CYPs (CYP81E6, CYP81E11, CYP81E12, CYP81E18, and CYP93C2), rice F2H (CYP93G2), and for Torenia FNSII (CYP93B4). Taken together, these studies of LjCPR1 indicate that heterologous plant CPR may be of versatile use for functional expression of plant CYPs.

Soybean CYP81E11, CYP81E12, and CYP81E18 show more than 80% amino acid sequence identity but only 60% identity to I2′H from *G. echinata* and *L. japonicus* (CYP81E1 and CYP81E6, respectively); therefore they have not been simply predicted to be orthologous to CYP81E1 and CYP81E6. The present characterization using the *E. coli* expression system demonstrated I2′H activities of these CYPs for the first time. Moreover, the present data show that these CYPs are active towards the 4′-hydroxy type substrates daidzein and genistein but not towards the 4′-methoxy substrate formononetin (Table 3). This substrate preference may reflect the production of 4′-hydroxy type phytoalexins by soybean and is in contrast with that of *G. echinata* I2′H (CYP81E1), which was shown to have selectivity for 4′-methoxy substrates over 4′-hydroxy substrates in an in vitro assay using a yeast expression system (Akashi et al. 1998b). The substrate specificity of I2′H so far characterized is in good agreement with the type of the end products, phytoalexin.

The activities of some CYPs tested in this study had also been investigated using a yeast expression system (see the references in Table 3), and thus the substrate preference and relative activity among the orthologous CYPs can be compared between the two expression systems. The IFS (CYP93C2) of *G. echinata*, which predominantly produces 5-deoxy isoflavonoids from liquiritigenin, showed preference for liquiritigenin over the 5-hydroxy type substrate naringenin (Table 3). Moreover, the activity of the CYP93B1 is quite higher than CYP93G2 in the present system (Table 3) and in a yeast expression system (unpublished data). Hence, these data indicate little differences in substrate specificity or relative CYP activities between heterologous expression systems in *E. coli* and yeast. However, CYP81E1 gave no detectable product in the *E. coli* system, even when the N-terminal truncation site was changed, the N-terminal region was replaced with that of CYP81E12, or the codon usage was optimized. The reason for the unsuccessful bioconversion by CYP81E1, which should be its failure of expression or failure of enzymatic activity, remained unclear because the expression level of CYPs in *E. coli* was not enough to detect, even in the case that the CYP yielded a high amount of product. In contrast, CYP81E6 of *L. japonicus*, which has 83% amino acid sequence identity to CYP81E1, successfully converted formononetin with improved efficiency after optimization of codon usage (Table 3). Although this discrepancy remains unresolved, these data indicate that failure of the *E. coli* expression system can be accommodated by use of another orthologous CYP.

In conclusion, the present study demonstrates functional characterization of a CYP following biotransformation into an *E. coli* expression system using N-terminal-MBR truncated CYP and CPR expression vectors. Under optimized conditions, this system produced 161 mg l⁻¹ of product, indicating high efficiency for use in commercial and other applications that require products of CYP enzymes. Although some CYP enzymes may not be viable using this system, the present method may accelerate functional identification of uncharacterized CYPs and other biosynthetic enzymes, and it promises application to large-scale production of important natural products.

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