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**FERNANDA FLEIG ZENKNER**

**METABOLISMO DE NICOTINA NO GÊNERO *NICOTIANA*:**  
**Identificação e análise evolutiva da subfamília CYP82E e seu papel na**  
**conversão de nicotina em precursores de nitrosaminas com potencial**  
**cancerígeno**

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requisito parcial para obtenção do título  
de mestre em Genética e Biologia  
Molecular.**

**Orientadora: Dra. Márcia Pinheiro Margis  
Co-orientador: Dr. Alexandro Cagliari**

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## DISSERTAÇÃO DE MESTRADO

### DADOS DE IDENTIFICAÇÃO

**Executora:** Fernanda Fleig Zenkner, Bacharel em Ciências Biológicas, graduada pela Universidade de Santa Cruz do Sul (UNISC). E-mail: fzenkner@gmail.com

**Linha de Pesquisa:** Genética e Biologia Molecular Vegetal

**Orientadora:** Dra. Márcia Pinheiro Margis

**Co-orientador:** Dr. Alexandro Cagliari

**Local de execução:** Laboratório de Genética Molecular Vegetal da UFRGS

**Palavras-chave:** *Nicotiana tabacum*, CYP82E, nicotina, nornicotina.

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## RESUMO

O tabaco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) pertence à família Solanaceae, sendo uma cultura de grande importância econômica. O Brasil é o segundo maior produtor e o maior exportador de tabaco em folha do mundo, e os três estados do sul do país são responsáveis por mais de 90% da produção. As plantas do gênero *Nicotiana* são conhecidas pela sua composição de alcaloides. A nicotina é o principal alcaloide encontrado nas plantas desse gênero, seguida por nornicotina, anabasina e anatabina. Contudo, a composição de alcaloides pode variar muito dependendo da espécie de *Nicotiana*. Os alcaloides são compostos muito importantes para as plantas, pois atuam na defesa contra herbívoros. A nicotina é sintetizada nas raízes das plantas através de um processo complexo, envolvendo diversas enzimas e transportadores. Após sintetizada, a nicotina é translocada pelo xilema até as folhas, onde é estocada nos vacúolos e/ou metabolizada em outros alcaloides. O primeiro capítulo deste trabalho consistiu em um artigo de revisão sobre a biossíntese, o transporte e o metabolismo da nicotina em *Nicotiana*. Assim, pode-se identificar as questões ainda não esclarecidas sobre essas vias, e que merecem mais atenção em futuros trabalhos. A nornicotina é o segundo alcaloide mais encontrado em *Nicotiana*, sendo sintetizada a partir da desmetilação da nicotina. A reação de desmetilação é catalisada por enzimas nicotina *N*-desmetilases (NND), codificadas por genes da subfamília *CYP82E*. A nornicotina, por sua vez, pode reagir espontaneamente com óxidos de nitrogênio presentes nas folhas de tabaco, dando origem a *N*-nitrosornicotina (NNN), uma substância cancerígena do grupo das Nitrosaminas Específica do Tabaco (TSNA – *Tobacco Specific Nitrosamines*). Considerando a importância dessa TSNA para a saúde humana, diversos estudos têm sido realizados a fim de reduzir a produção do seu precursor, a nornicotina, pelas plantas de tabaco. No segundo capítulo deste trabalho, apresentamos a identificação de novos genes putativos da subfamília *CYP82E* em diferentes espécies do gênero *Nicotiana*, e uma filogenia incluindo os novos genes identificados. Além disso, as sequências encontradas foram caracterizadas utilizando ferramentas *in silico*, e algumas predições em comum foram observadas para a maioria das sequências. Assim, conhecer todos os genes que codificam enzimas NND, bem como caracterizar essas enzimas e entender a organização da subfamília gênica *CYP82E*, podem ser fatores essenciais para desenvolver novas soluções com o objetivo de reduzir substâncias cancerígenas em produtos de tabaco, especialmente as TSNA.

**Palavras-chave:** *Nicotiana tabacum*. *CYP82E*. Nicotina. Nornicotina.

## ABSTRACT

Tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) belongs to the Solanaceae family, being a crop of great economic importance. Brazil is the second largest producer and the largest exporter of tobacco leaf in the world, and the three southern states account for more than 90% of production. *Nicotiana* plants are known by its alkaloid composition. Nicotine is the main alkaloid found in plants of this genus, followed by nornicotine, anabasine and anatabine. However, the alkaloid composition may vary widely depending on the *Nicotiana* species. The alkaloids are very important compounds to the plants, since they act in the defense against herbivores. Nicotine is synthesized in the plant roots through a complex process involving several enzymes and transporters. After synthesized, nicotine is translocated via xylem to the leaves, where it is stored in the vacuoles and/ or metabolized in other alkaloids. The first chapter of this work consisted of a review article on nicotine biosynthesis, transport and metabolism in *Nicotiana*. Thus, it was possible to identify the questions not yet clarified about these pathways, and that need further investigation. Nornicotine is the second most commonly found alkaloid in *Nicotiana*, being synthesized from nicotine demethylation. The demethylation reaction is catalyzed by nicotine *N*-demethylase enzymes (NND), encoded by genes of the *CYP82E* subfamily. Nornicotine, on its turn, can spontaneously react with nitrogen oxides present in the plant leaves, giving rise to *N*-nitrosornicotine (NNN), a carcinogen from Tobacco Specific Nitrosamine (TSNA) group. Considering the importance of NNN to the human health, several studies have been carried on to reduce the production of its precursor, nornicotine, by tobacco plants. In the second chapter of this work, we present the identification of new putative *CYP82E* genes in different *Nicotiana* species, and a phylogenetic analysis including the new genes identified. In addition, the sequences found were characterized using *in silico* tools, and we observed some identical predictions among most of the sequences. Thus, the identification of all genes encoding NND enzymes, as well as the characterization of these enzymes and the understanding of *CYP82E* subfamily organization, can be essential factors in the development of new solutions aiming the reduction of carcinogenic substances in tobacco products, especially the TSNA.

**Keywords:** *Nicotiana tabacum*. *CYP82E*. Nicotine. Nornicotine.

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## 1 INTRODUÇÃO

O tabaco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) é uma planta da família Solanaceae, de relevante importância econômica para o Brasil, especialmente para os três estados do sul do país (Bonato, 2007; Sinditabaco, 2017). Os alcaloides são os principais compostos encontrados em plantas de tabaco e em outras espécies do gênero *Nicotiana*. A composição de alcaloides pode variar conforme a espécie de *Nicotiana*, mas sabe-se que a nicotina é o mais encontrado na maioria das espécies (Hung et al., 2013).

Além da nicotina, nornicotina, anatabina e anabasina são alcaloides que também podem ser encontrados nessas plantas. A nornicotina é o segundo alcaloide mais encontrado nas espécies de *Nicotiana*, sendo sintetizada a partir da nicotina através da reação de desmetilação (Lewis et al., 2010). A nornicotina, por sua vez, pode ser precursora da *N*-nitrosornicotina (NNN), que é uma nitrosamina específica do tabaco (TSNA) com grande potencial carcinogênico (Gavilano; Siminszky, 2007).

Algumas das enzimas responsáveis por metabolizar a nicotina em nornicotina já foram identificadas em *Nicotiana*, sendo que todas fazem parte da subfamília gênica *CYP82E* (Lewis et al., 2010). Entretanto, poucos genes são conhecidos em espécies selvagens do gênero, e o controle da expressão gênica de *CYP82E* e a caracterização dessas enzimas não foram completamente elucidados.

Devido à importância econômica do tabaco para o país e considerando a questão de saúde da população que faz uso de produtos de tabaco, ressalta-se a relevância de estudos relacionados aos alcaloides de *Nicotiana*. A compreensão das bases genéticas da produção e metabolização dos alcaloides pelas plantas de tabaco pode contribuir para a produção de tabaco de alta qualidade e com baixos teores de TSNA.

Portanto, o presente trabalho teve como objetivo realizar uma revisão sobre a biossíntese e o metabolismo de nicotina no gênero *Nicotiana*, além de identificar e caracterizar os genes da subfamília *CYP82E*, responsáveis pela conversão de nicotina em nornicotina no gênero *Nicotiana*, buscando contribuir para o entendimento do processo de acúmulo de Nitrosaminas Específicas do Tabaco (TSNA).



## 2 REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA

### 2.1 Tabaco

A família Solanaceae compreende 90 gêneros contendo mais de 3000 espécies, incluindo plantas alimentícias, de uso medicinal, ornamental e econômico (Albuquerque et al., 2006). O tabaco pertence ao gênero *Nicotiana*, com cerca de 75 espécies conhecidas (Clarkson et al., 2004). Dentre essas, *Nicotiana tabacum* é uma das principais espécies utilizadas para fins comerciais, sendo cultivada há milhares de anos pelos aborígenes da Índia, México, América Central, Colômbia, Venezuela, Guianas e Brasil (Tso, 1990).

O tabaco comercial é uma espécie anfidiplóide ( $2n=4x=48$ ), proveniente de duas espécies silvestres hibridizadas no passado, *Nicotiana sylvestris* ( $2n=2x=24$ ) e *Nicotiana tomentosiformis* ( $2n=2x=24$ ) (Shibata et al., 2013). Existem indícios de que esta hibridação ocorreu no norte da Argentina ou no sul da Bolívia, já que as espécies parentais são encontradas nessa região (Sierro et al., 2013).

### 2.2 Histórico do tabaco

Acredita-se que o tabaco seja consumido há mais de 4 mil anos, sendo cultivado inicialmente pelos Maias na região da América do Norte e América Central, e por diversos outros povos indígenas que utilizavam a planta em cerimônias religiosas (Bonato, 2007). Os nativos chamavam de “tobago” o utensílio que utilizavam para fumar as folhas, e por isso a planta ficou conhecida como “tabaco”. As sementes de tabaco foram levadas primeiramente para a Europa, e entre 1650 e 1750 o seu consumo espalhou-se rapidamente por todo o mundo (Collins e Hawks, 1983).

Já no Brasil, a hipótese mais provável é que o tabaco tenha se difundido a partir dos Andes Bolivianos pelas migrações indígenas, principalmente de Tupi-Guaranis. Na época da chegada dos europeus no Brasil o tabaco era cultivado em toda a costa brasileira, e logo os colonizadores utilizaram esta produção para abastecer o mercado europeu. Nas três primeiras décadas do século XX o tabaco passou a ser cultivado em outros estados: Minas Gerais (MG), Goiás (GO), São Paulo (SP), Paraná (PR), Santa Catarina (SC) e Rio Grande do Sul (RS), sendo nos últimos três estados o cultivo relacionado aos imigrantes alemães e italianos, particularmente nas colônias de São Leopoldo e Santa Cruz do Sul (Bonato, 2007).

### **2.3 Importância econômica do tabaco**

O tabaco é consumido em diversos lugares do mundo, na forma de produtos para uso de diferentes maneiras: para fumar, mascar ou inalar (rapé) (Viegas, 2008). A produção do tabaco pode ocorrer em todos os locais onde o ambiente é favorável para o seu crescimento e desenvolvimento, o que está geograficamente representado entre as latitudes 60°N a 40°S. Entretanto, os maiores produtores de tabaco do mundo então localizados quase inteiramente entre as latitudes 45°N e 30°S (Tso, 1990).

O Brasil é o segundo maior produtor de tabaco do mundo, e o maior exportador de tabaco em folha, com 85% da produção destinada ao mercado externo (Sinditabaco, 2017). Dessa forma, a importância econômica da cultura do tabaco para o país traduziu-se em 2016 em uma receita de US\$ 2,09 bilhões, com 481 mil toneladas de tabaco exportado (Sinditabaco, 2017).

No Brasil, os três estados do Sul concentram aproximadamente 95% da produção nacional de tabaco. De acordo com o Sindicato Interestadual da Indústria do Tabaco - SindiTabaco, são 574 municípios produtores de tabaco no RS, SC e PR, sendo que 52% da área produtiva está no RS, 28% em SC e 20% no PR (Sinditabaco, 2017).

### **2.4 Métodos culturais e a composição química da folha de tabaco**

Após transplantadas para a lavoura, as plantas de tabaco continuam o seu crescimento, e desenvolvem-se até atingirem a maturidade, o que condiz com o início da senescência (Tso, 1990). Após colhidas, as folhas de tabaco devem passar por um processo chamado de cura. Esse processo tem dois objetivos principais: fornecer a temperatura e umidade ideais para que as modificações químicas e biológicas desejadas ocorram nas folhas de tabaco; e preservar as folhas através da sua secagem gradual para reter a sua qualidade (Collins e Hawks Jr., 1993).

A cura é diferente dependendo do tipo de tabaco em questão. Para o tabaco do tipo Burley, também chamado de tabaco de galpão, as plantas são curadas em um galpão de estrutura simples, sem nenhum equipamento para controle de temperatura e umidade (Tso, 1990). Já o tabaco Virgínia, ou tabaco de estufa, é curado em estufas que apresentam um sistema de aquecimento (Collins e Hawks Jr., 1993; Lewis et al., 2012).

A composição química da folha de tabaco é determinada por fatores genéticos, práticas culturais, condições climáticas e métodos de cura. As práticas de manejo da lavoura, como a adubação e o desponte, por exemplo, podem exercer efeitos consideráveis na composição química da folha curada (Cai et al., 2013).

A adubação nitrogenada das lavouras é diretamente proporcional aos níveis de alcaloides nas plantas de tabaco cultivadas (Roton et al., 2005). Isso ocorre, pois os alcaloides são compostos nitrogenados, e a sua síntese pode variar de acordo com a quantidade de nitrogênio disponível no meio (Baldwin et al., 1994). O desponte, por sua vez, consiste na remoção do botão floral junto com algumas folhas jovens da planta (Hibi et al., 1994). Essa prática estimula o crescimento de raízes, e a concentração de nicotina aumenta nas folhas de tabaco após o desponte (Xi et al., 2005; Shi et al., 2006). Já durante a cura, fatores como a alta temperatura e a baixa ventilação podem influenciar na formação de nitrosaminas específicas do tabaco (TSNA) a partir dos alcaloides, alterando a composição da folha (Roton et al., 2005).

Além disso, a maturidade das folhas e as técnicas de colheita são de grande importância na qualidade e usabilidade do tabaco. Assim, as práticas culturais devem preservar o sabor, o aroma, e a composição química da folha que é desejada pela indústria e pelo consumidor (Tso, 1990).

A nicotina é um alcaloide produzido como o principal metabólito secundário nas espécies do gênero *Nicotiana*, representando em *N. tabacum* até 95% do total de alcaloides e cerca de 2 a 5% do peso seco da folha (Hung et al., 2013). Quando as plantas de tabaco são feridas, a síntese de nicotina é estimulada nas raízes, onde são expressos os principais genes envolvidos em sua biossíntese (Shitan et al., 2014).

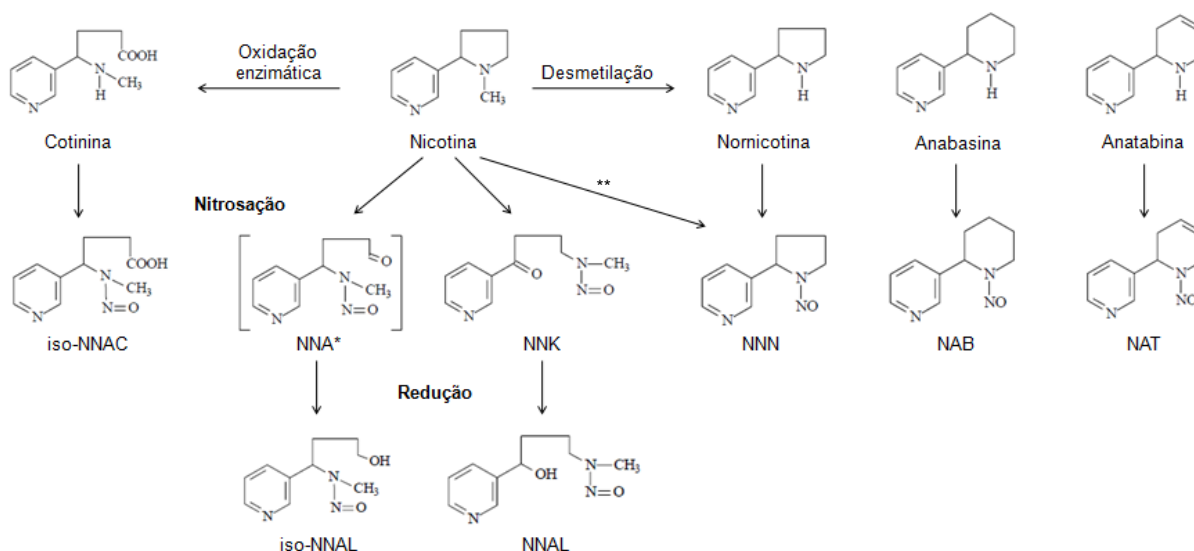
Após a síntese, a nicotina é translocada através do xilema para as folhas, onde é acumulada nos vacúolos. No xilema, a concentração de nicotina é de cerca de 1mM, e nos vacúolos das células epidérmicas e nas pontas das folhas essa concentração pode ser de até 60mM (Lochmann et al., 2001). Nas folhas, a nicotina desempenha um papel muito importante na defesa anti-herbivoria em função de ser extremamente tóxica ao sistema nervoso de insetos (Shitan et al., 2014).

## **2.5 Nitrosaminas específicas do tabaco**

Os alcaloides podem sofrer transformações dando origem a outros compostos, como as Nitrosaminas Específicas do Tabaco (TSNA – *Tobacco Specific*

*Nitrosamines*). Já foram identificadas 7 TSNA em produtos de tabaco: *N*-nitrosornicotina (NNN), 4-(metil-nitrosamino)-1-(3-piridil)-1-butanona (NNK), 4-(metil-nitrosamino)-1-(3-piridil)-1-butanol (NNAL), *N*-nitrosoanatabina (NAT), *N*-nitrosoanabasina (NAB), 4-(metil-nitrosamino)-4-(3-piridil)-1-butanol (*iso*-NNAL) e ácido 4-(metil-nitrosamino)-4-(3-piridil) butírico (*iso*-NNAC). Dessas, NNN, NNK e NAT geralmente ocorrem em maiores quantidades que as outras (Hecht, 1998).

A Figura 1 ilustra as estruturas químicas das TSNA, bem como os alcaloides precursores de cada uma. Os precursores das TSNA são os alcaloides e os nitritos. Alcaloides como a nornicotina, a anatabina e a anabasina podem reagir diretamente com óxidos de nitrogênio para formar NNN, NAT e NAB, respectivamente. Já a nicotina primeiro precisa sofrer oxidação nas pontes 1', 2' do anel pirrólico para formar a pseudo-oxi-nicotina (PON), seguida de nitrosação (adição de grupamento N=O) para produzir NNK (Shi et al., 2013). Além disso, apesar de a maior parte da NNN ser sintetizada diretamente a partir da nornicotina, sabe-se que uma pequena parte dessa TSNA pode ser formada diretamente através da nicotina (\*\* na Figura 1), principalmente ao final da cura do tabaco (IARC, 2007).



**Figura 1:** Estruturas químicas das Nitrosaminas Específicas do Tabaco (TSNA) e dos seus alcaloides precursores. *iso*-NNAC: ácido 4-(metil-nitrosamino)-4-(3-piridil) butírico; *iso*-NNAL: 4-(metil-nitrosamino)-4-(3-piridil)-1-butanol; NAB: *N*-nitrosoanabasina; NAT: *N*-nitrosoanatabina; NNA: 4-(metil-nitrosamino)-4-(3-piridil) butanal; NNAL: 4-(metil-nitrosamino)-1-(3-piridil)-1-butanol; NNK: 4-(metil-nitrosamino)-1-(3-piridil)-1-butanona; NNN: *N*-nitrosornicotina.

\* NNA é um aldeído altamente reativo e nunca foi quantificado no tabaco ou na fumaça de cigarros.

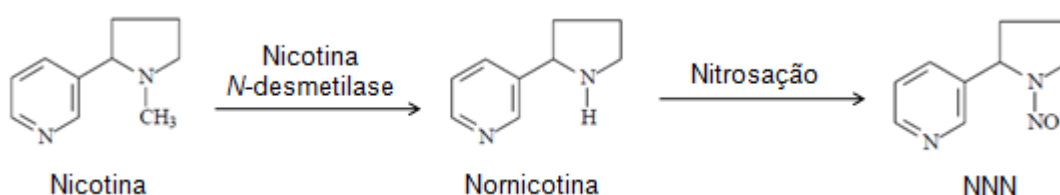
\*\* É possível que uma pequena parte da NNN seja sintetizada diretamente a partir da nicotina.

**Fonte:** Iarc, 2007.

Esses compostos podem ser formados por 2 vias diferentes. Em tabaco do tipo Burley, o rompimento das membranas celulares durante a cura libera exsudatos que servem como substratos para a proliferação de microrganismos naturalmente presentes nas folhas, e esses reduzem nitratos a nitritos. Os nitritos reagem com os alcaloides do tabaco formando TSNA (Shi et al., 2013). Já em tabaco do tipo Virgínia, os microrganismos têm sua atividade reduzida em função da temperatura mais alta dentro da estufa de cura. Dessa forma, a via de formação de TSNA nesse tipo de tabaco envolve a reação de óxidos de nitrogênio (NOx) produzidos como um subproduto da combustão utilizada para aquecimento da estufa, com os alcaloides presentes nas folhas de tabaco (Reed, 2008).

O grupo das nitrosaminas tem grande relevância do ponto de vista da saúde humana, pois muitas delas foram relacionadas à carcinogênese (Hecht, 1998; El-Bayoumy et al., 1999; Brown et al., 2003; IARC, 2007). As nitrosaminas NNN e NNK estão presentes em maiores quantidades no tabaco, e são consideradas carcinógenos grupo I, ou seja, carcinogênicas para humanos (Hecht, 1998; IARC, 2007). Além disso, NNN é considerada ainda mais nociva que NNK em função da sua taxa de formação ser muito mais alta (Gavilano; Siminszky, 2007).

Acredita-se que a maior parte da NNN seja formada a partir da nornicotina, que é o segundo alcaloide mais encontrado na maioria das variedades de tabaco. Por sua vez, a nornicotina é sintetizada diretamente a partir da nicotina através da reação de desmetilação, que é catalisada por enzimas nicotina *N*-desmetilases (NND) (Figura 2) (Lewis et al., 2010).



**Figura 2:** Formação de *N*'-nitrosornicotina (NNN) a partir da nicotina.

**Fonte:** Siminszky et al., 2005.

Adicionalmente aos efeitos carcinogênicos e mutagênicos caracterizados para as TSNA, a redução dos níveis de nornicotina também é muito importante em função de esse ser um alcaloide precursor da TSNA NNN. Foi previamente demonstrado que a nornicotina por si só é capaz de induzir a glicosilação anormal de proteínas, o que pode estar relacionado a doenças metabólicas em humanos (Dickerson; Janda,

2002). Além disso, a nornicotina também tem sido relacionada à degeneração macular relacionada à idade, uma das maiores causas de cegueira no mundo (Brogan et al., 2005).

Algumas práticas culturais podem auxiliar na redução de TSNA nas folhas de tabaco. A adubação nitrogenada, por exemplo, está diretamente relacionada com a formação de alcaloides, visto que o nitrogênio é o seu principal componente (Chandrasekhararao et al., 2014). O tabaco Burley possui níveis mais altos de nicotina do que o tabaco Virgínia, além de apresentar um conteúdo de nitratos cerca de 10 vezes maior (Shi et al., 2013). Assim, naturalmente espera-se que o tabaco Burley possua taxas maiores de nornicotina e, conseqüentemente, de NNN (Lewis et al., 2012). Além disso, o desponte, a colheita, a cura e a estocagem também podem influenciar na síntese de maior ou menor quantidade de TSNA em tabaco (Shi et al., 2013).

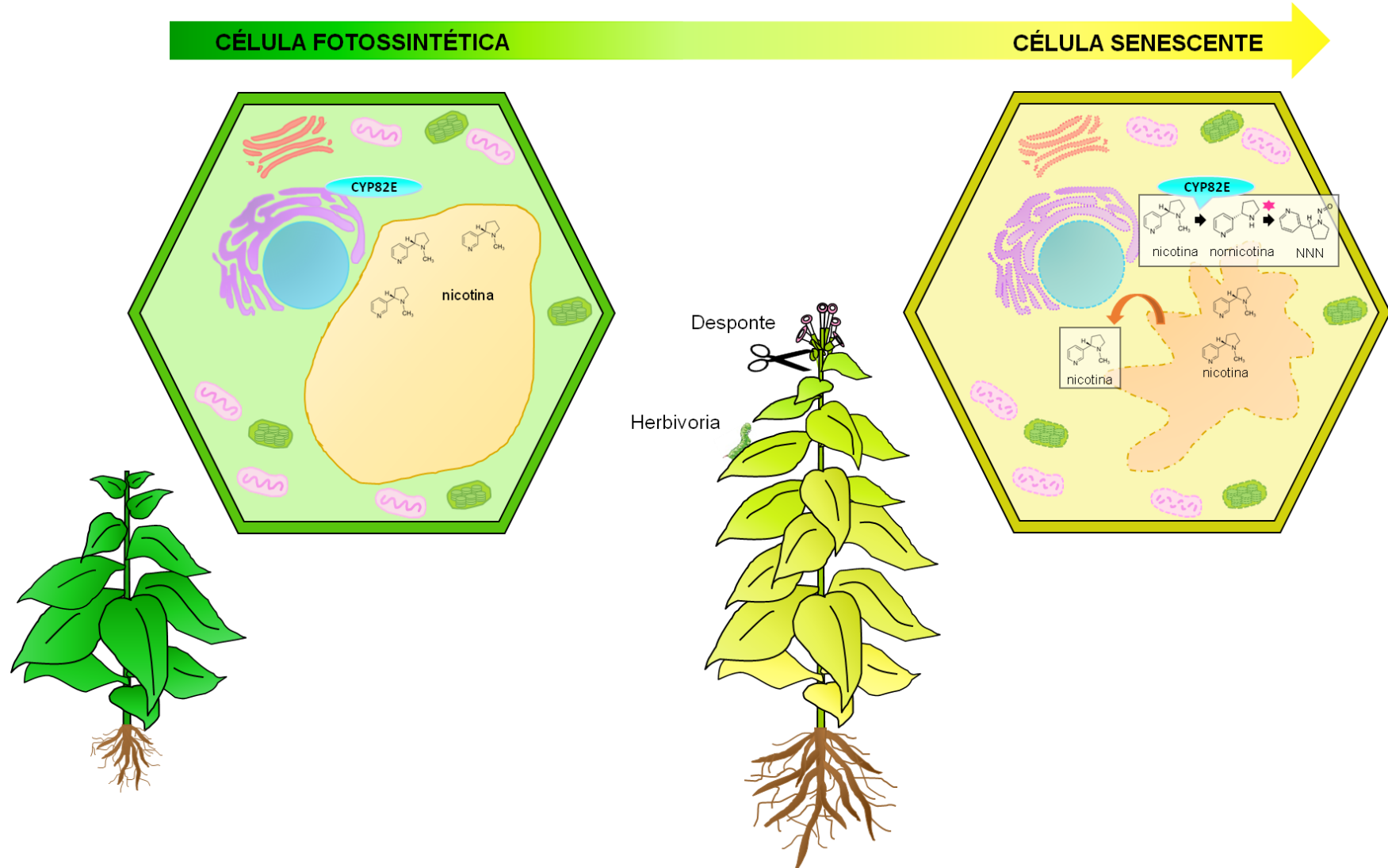
Entretanto, fatores genéticos também influenciam as taxas de conversão de nicotina em nornicotina. Em algumas plantas de tabaco, as chamadas plantas conversoras, alterações na expressão gênica em um locus instável do genoma leva plantas que inicialmente produziam quantidades pequenas de nornicotina a originarem uma progênie que converte até 98% da nicotina das folhas em nornicotina (Lewis et al., 2010). Por razões ainda desconhecidas, a frequência de reativação deste locus é muito maior em plantas de tabaco Burley do que de outros tipos de tabaco (Lewis et al., 2008).

## **2.6 Genes envolvidos na conversão de nicotina em nornicotina**

Com relação à formação de nornicotina em tabaco, seis genes da superfamília citocromo P450 que codificam enzimas nicotina *N*-desmetilases (NND) já foram caracterizados, todos pertencentes à subfamília gênica *CYP82E*: *CYP82E2*, *CYP82E3*, *CYP82E4*, *CYP82E5*, *CYP82E10* e *CYP82E21* (Lewis et al., 2010; Liedschulte et al., 2016). Entretanto, dois desses genes, *CYP82E2* e *CYP82E3*, sofreram mutações ao longo da evolução de *N. tabacum* e não apresentam atividade de *N*-desmetilase (Siminszky et al., 2005).

Quanto às enzimas funcionais, *CYP82E5* e *CYP82E10* possuem mínima atividade de *N*-desmetilase em folhas verdes e em raízes, respectivamente (Gavilano e Siminszky, 2007; Lewis et al., 2010). *CYP82E21* apresenta atividade apenas nas flores de tabaco (Liedschulte et al., 2016). Já *CYP82E4* é a principal

enzima responsável pela *N*-desmetilação da nicotina nas folhas de tabaco (Siminszky et al., 2005; Xu et al., 2007). Alguns estudos comprovaram que *CYP82E4* é expresso em níveis muito baixos em folhas verdes saudáveis, e que a sua expressão é fortemente induzida durante a senescência (Figura 3) (Siminszky et al., 2005; Gavilano et al., 2006; Chakrabarti et al., 2008).



**Figura 3:** A nicotina estocada nos vacúolos das células das folhas é liberada para o citoplasma durante a senescência, e convertida em nornicotina em uma reação catalisada por enzimas da subfamília gênica *CYP82E*. A nornicotina produzida pode reagir espontaneamente com óxidos de nitrogênio presentes na folha, dando origem à *N*-nitrosornicotina (NNN) (representado pela estrela de cor rosa na imagem).



A senescência é um processo fisiológico complexo que ocorre em resposta ao envelhecimento, podendo ser acelerado por estresses bióticos ou abióticos, como a seca e o ataque de patógenos, mas também pela ação de hormônios, como o ácido abscísico (ABA) e o etileno (Chakrabarti et al., 2008). Em tabaco, o amarelamento das folhas é um indicador visível da senescência. Nesse estágio, as folhas são consideradas maduras e apropriadas para a colheita (Lim et al., 2007).

Ao mesmo tempo que a colheita ocorre nesse estágio do desenvolvimento, é durante a senescência que a maior parte da nornicotina é formada através do processo de conversão da nicotina, catalisado pela enzima CYP82E4 (Chakrabarti et al., 2008). Entretanto, não é possível alterar a época de colheita com o objetivo de evitar a conversão da nicotina, pois as transformações químicas que ocorrem nas folhas durante a senescência, e os compostos que agregam valor comercial ao produto, seriam perdidos (Peek et al., 2008).

Diversos estudos tentando reduzir a formação de nornicotina e TSNA durante a senescência foram realizados, sendo a utilização da tecnologia de RNA de interferência (RNAi) (Gavilano et al., 2006; Lewis et al., 2008) e de mutações induzidas por etilmetanosulfonato (EMS) (Lewis et al., 2010) empregadas com a finalidade de reduzir a formação de nornicotina pelas plantas de tabaco. Entretanto, apesar do tabaco ser uma planta de fácil manipulação via técnicas de DNA recombinante, há certa relutância em implantar variedades comerciais de tabaco transgênico (Lewis et al., 2008).

As empresas que produzem sementes de tabaco normalmente realizam uma triagem em todas as plantas a fim de eliminar indivíduos que apresentem a taxa de conversão de nicotina maior que 3% (Carvalho et al., 2014). Embora o processo de triagem reduza significativamente o teor de nornicotina (e de NNN) em comparação as populações de tabaco não triadas, este processo nunca será perfeito, uma vez que plantas conversoras com alta produção de nornicotina podem espontaneamente surgir a cada geração (Lewis et al., 2010).

Portanto, o controle genético desta característica não é tão simples, e acredita-se que as plantas conversoras possam inesperadamente surgir a partir de alterações epigenéticas (Carvalho et al., 2014). Assim, apesar das informações disponíveis na literatura, ainda não está totalmente esclarecido como ocorre e quais são os fatores que regulam a transcrição de *CYP82E4*, o principal gene relacionado à formação de nornicotina em tabaco. Considerando o risco à saúde humana,

representado pela nornicotina e TSNAs, bem como pelo sabor desagradável que a nornicotina causa no cigarro, não há justificativa para impedir a redução da nornicotina em tabaco (Sun et al., 2015).

### 3 OBJETIVOS

#### 3.1 Objetivo Geral

Identificar e caracterizar os genes da subfamília *CYP82E*, responsáveis pela conversão de nicotina em nornicotina no gênero *Nicotiana*, buscando contribuir para o entendimento do processo de acúmulo de Nitrosaminas Específicas do Tabaco (TSNA).

#### 3.2 Objetivos Específicos

- a) Elaborar uma revisão sobre a biossíntese e metabolização da nicotina no gênero *Nicotiana*;
- b) Identificar os genes pertencentes à subfamília *CYP82E* em espécies do gênero *Nicotiana*;
- c) Realizar a análise filogenética dos genes pertencentes à subfamília *CYP82E* no gênero *Nicotiana*;
- d) Realizar a caracterização, *in silico*, das proteínas *CYP82E* identificadas;

## 4 RESULTADOS

Os resultados serão apresentados em dois capítulos. O primeiro capítulo apresenta uma revisão sobre a biossíntese e o metabolismo da nicotina no gênero *Nicotiana*. Neste capítulo são descritos os genes envolvidos no processo de síntese da nicotina e os transportadores responsáveis pelo seu transporte das raízes até a parte aérea das plantas, onde os alcaloides exercem um importante papel na defesa contra herbívoros. Além disso, a metabolização da nicotina em nornicotina e *N*-acil-nornicotina é discutida.

O segundo capítulo apresenta os resultados quanto à identificação e caracterização dos genes da subfamília *CYP82E*, responsáveis pela conversão de nicotina em nornicotina no gênero *Nicotiana*. Neste capítulo os genes identificados são caracterizados através de análises *in silico*, e uma filogenia para a subfamília *CYP82E* é proposta.

**CAPÍTULO I: NICOTINE BIOSYNTHESIS IN *NICOTIANA*: A METABOLIC  
OVERVIEW**

## NICOTINE BIOSYNTHESIS IN *NICOTIANA*: A METABOLIC OVERVIEW

Fernanda Fleig Zenkner<sup>1,2</sup>; Márcia Margis-Pinheiro<sup>1</sup>; Alexandro Cagliari<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Departamento de Genética, Programa de Pós-Graduação em Genética e Biologia Molecular, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul (UFRGS), PO Box 15053, Porto Alegre, RS CEP 91501-970, Brazil

<sup>2</sup> JTI Kannenberg Comércio de Tabacos do Brasil LTDA, Santa Cruz do Sul, RS, Brazil

<sup>3</sup> Universidade Estadual do Rio Grande do Sul (UERGS), Santa Cruz do Sul, RS, Brazil

### *Abstract*

The alkaloids are important compounds found in *Nicotiana* plants, essential in the plant defense against herbivores. The main alkaloid of *N. tabacum*, nicotine, is produced in the roots and translocated to the leaves. Nicotine is formed by a pyrrolidine and a pyridine ring, in a process involving several enzymes. The pyridine ring of nicotine is derived from the nicotinic acid, whereas the pyrrolidine ring is originated from the polyamine putrescine metabolism. After nicotine synthesis in the root cortical cells, a set of transporters is known to transport it upwards the aerial part and to store it in the leaf vacuoles. Moreover, nicotine can be metabolized in the leaves, giving rise to nornicotine through the *N*-demethylation process. Some *Nicotiana* wild species present acyltransferase enzymes, which allow the plant to produce *N*-acyl-nornicotine, an alkaloid with higher insecticide capacity than nicotine. However, although we can find a wealth of information about the alkaloid production in *Nicotiana*, our understanding about the nicotine biosynthesis, transport and metabolism is still incomplete. Thus, this review will summarize these pathways based on recent literature, as well as highlighting the questions that need further investigation.

### *1 Introduction*

Plants produce a diverse array of secondary metabolites, among which are some important compounds mainly used in the defense against pathogens and herbivores, the alkaloids (Memelink *et al.*, 2001; Steppuhn *et al.*, 2004). Historically, the use of alkaloid-containing plant extracts as medicines, drugs and poisons is widely known since the beginning of the human civilization (Kutchan, 1995). The Solanaceae (nightshade family) is a botanical family with several species producing alkaloids (Rushton *et al.*, 2008). Tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) is one of those

species, and it has become an economically important crop plant due to alkaloid production, although the entire *Nicotiana* genus is recognized for producing these type of metabolites (Kutchan, 1995; Sun *et al.*, 2013).

The alkaloids found in *Nicotiana* plants are toxic compounds, which play a major role in the defense against generalist herbivores (Shi *et al.*, 2006). The root represents the particular site of alkaloid synthesis in the *Nicotiana* species (Sisson e Severson, 1990; Sun *et al.*, 2013). After their production, the alkaloids are transported through the xylem and accumulated in the leaves which are the areas more susceptible to a herbivore attack (Shi *et al.*, 2006).

The alkaloid synthesis is elicited upon herbivore attacks via the canonical jasmonate-signaling pathway (Shoji *et al.*, 2008; Zayed and Wink, 2009). In undamaged tobacco plants, nicotine represents 0.1-1% of its dry mass, while in wounded plants or plants attacked by herbivores, the nicotine concentration increases to 1-4% (Baldwin, 1998). Thus, a basal level of alkaloids is constantly maintained in the plant tissues, and increases after wounding stimuli (Zayed e Wink, 2009).

Regarding its ecological importance, the alkaloid biosynthesis, specifically of nicotine and its derivatives, is a complex process that involves several enzymatic steps. Nicotine has two ring moieties, a pyrrolidine ring and a pyridine ring, derived from two branch pathways (Wang *et al.*, 2015). The pyridine ring of nicotine is derived from the nicotinic acid, whereas the pyrrolidine ring originates from the polyamine putrescine metabolism, which is gradually modified to *N*-methylpyrrolinium (Naconsie *et al.*, 2014). The condensation of a nicotinic acid derivative and *N*-methylpyrrolinium forms the nicotine (Sun *et al.*, 2013). Other *Nicotiana* alkaloids, such as anatabine and anabasine, are synthesized solely through the pyridine ring pathway, while nornicotine is mainly produced via a nicotine *N*-demethylation process (Siminszky *et al.*, 2005; Shoji *et al.*, 2010).

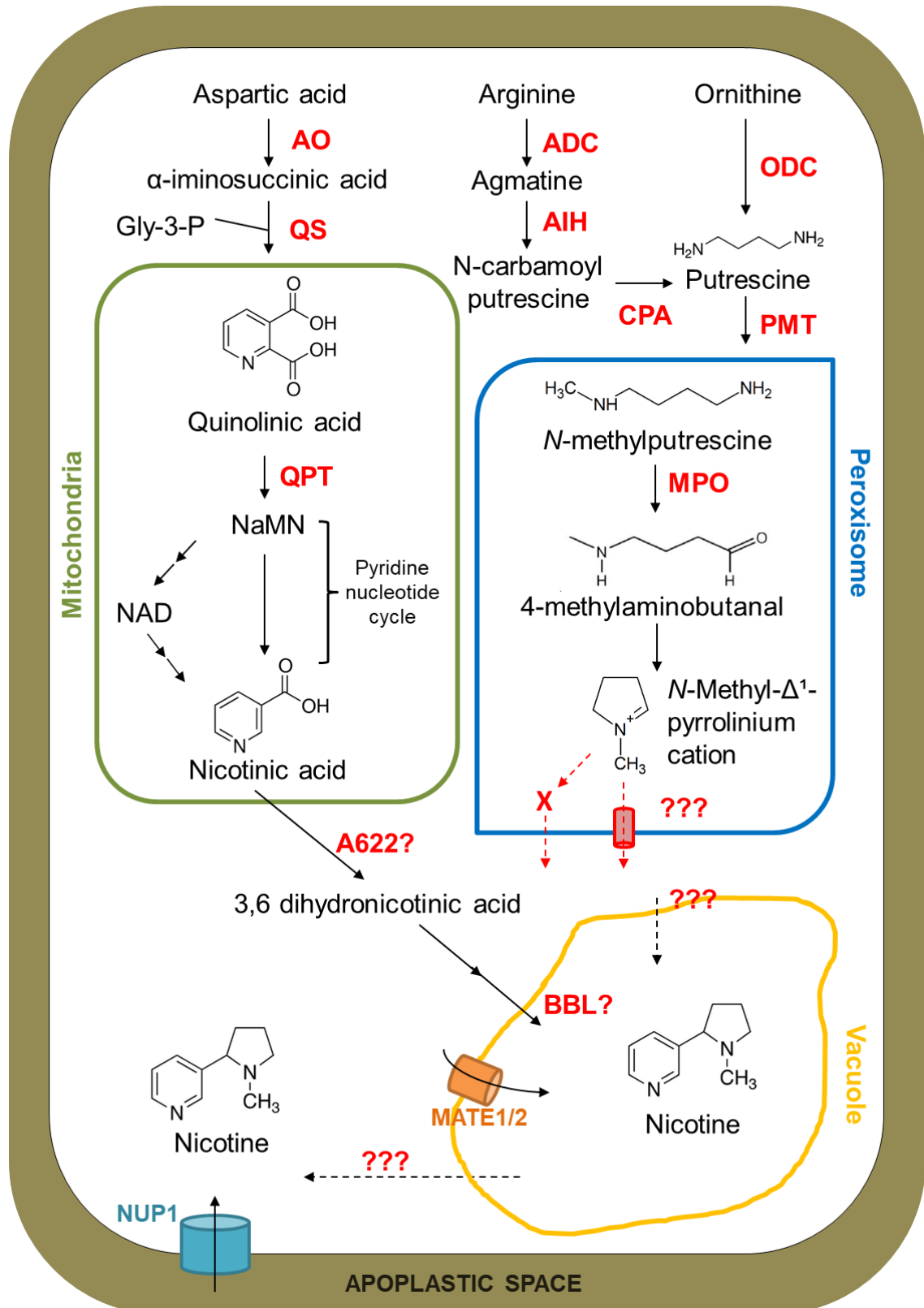
Although a wealth of information is available on the alkaloid production in *Nicotiana* spp., some parts of the process are not fully understood. Thus, this review will present a reconstruction of nicotine biosynthesis, transport and metabolism pathways based on the current literature, and highlight the questions that would merit further investigation. Moreover, we will discuss the ecological importance of nicotine and the nicotine-derived alkaloids, nornicotine and *N*-acyl-nornicotine, to different *Nicotiana* species.

## 2 The structural genes of the nicotine pathway

The pathway leading to the formation of the pyrrolidine ring initiates with putrescine (Sun *et al.*, 2013) (Figure 1). Putrescine can be produced via two alternate routes: directly from ornithine or indirectly from arginine (Shi *et al.*, 2006). The direct route is catalyzed by ornithine decarboxylase (ODC), whereas the indirect route is catalyzed by arginine decarboxylase (ADC) (Cohen *et al.*, 1982; Bortolotti *et al.*, 2004). In the indirect route, the arginine is decarboxylated to agmatine, which is subsequently hydrolyzed to *N*-carbamoylputrescine by agmatine iminohydrolase (AIH) and further to putrescine by *N*-carbamoylputrescine amidohydrolase (CPA) (Janowitz *et al.*, 2003) (Figure 1). Then, putrescine is converted to *N*-methylputrescine by the putrescine *N*-methyltransferase (PMT) (Hibi *et al.*, 1994). Finally, *N*-methylputrescine is deaminated oxidatively by the *N*-methylputrescine oxidase (MPO) to 4-methylaminobutanal, which spontaneously cyclized to form the *N*-methylpyrrolinium cation that contains the pyrrolidine ring (Naconsie *et al.*, 2014) (Figure 1).

The pyridine ring of nicotine is derived from the nicotinic acid, which is formed by the same enzymes involved in the early steps of NAD biosynthesis, such as aspartate oxidase (AO), quinolinic acid synthase (QS) and quinolinic acid phosphoribosyl transferase (QPT) (Shoji *et al.*, 2010) (Figure 1). The exact metabolite derived from nicotinic acid that is used in the nicotine biosynthesis is not known (Naconsie *et al.*, 2014). However, it was suggested that nicotinic acid needs to be reduced to 3,6-dihydronicotinic acid before its condensation with *N*-methylpyrrolinium cation to form nicotine (Deboer *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, a PIP family oxidoreductase member, A622, also participates in the last step of pyridine alkaloid formation in *Nicotiana*, although it is not clear if it is related to nicotinic acid reduction or not (Deboer *et al.*, 2009; Kajikawa *et al.*, 2009). All the tobacco genes encoding the proteins mentioned above are known as the structural genes of the nicotine pathway (Shoji *et al.*, 2010) (Figure 1).





**Figure 1:** Nicotine biosynthesis in a root cortical cell of *Nicotiana*. The enzymes are indicated in red letters. AO: Aspartate oxidase; QS: Quinolinic acid synthase; Gly-3-P: Glyceraldehyde-3-P; QPT: Quinolinate phosphoribosyltransferase; ADC: Arginine decarboxylase; ODC: Ornithine decarboxylase; AIH: Agmatine iminohydrolase; CPA: N-carbamoylputrescine amidohydrolase; PMT: Putrescine N-methyltransferase; MPO: N-methylputrescine oxidase; BBL: Berberine bridge enzyme-like; MATE1/2: Multidrug and toxic compound extrusion 1 and 2; NUP1: Nicotine uptake permease 1; ??? : undefined step.

### 2.1 Arginine decarboxylase (ADC) and Ornithine decarboxylase (ODC) –The origin of putrescine

Putrescine may be synthesized from arginine, via a three enzymatic step process initiated by ADC, or directly from ornithine via the action of ODC (Deboer *et al.*, 2011) (Figure 1). ADC activity is predominant in the putrescine biosynthesis of plants, while ODC is more frequently found in animals and fungi (Bortolotti *et al.*, 2004). However, in the case of nicotine biosynthesis in tobacco, ODC seems to have a more prominent role (Deboer *et al.*, 2011). The impairment of ODC activity is related to plants with increased capacity of anatabine production (Shoji *et al.*, 2010; Deboer *et al.*, 2011). Thus, the imbalance in the putrescine supply (pyrrolidine pathway) causes an oversupply of derivatives from the pyridine pathway, from which anatabine is entirely derived (Deboer *et al.*, 2011).

### 2.2 Putrescine Methyltransferase (PMT)

Putrescine methyltransferase (PMT) is the enzyme responsible for the *N*-methylation of putrescine, generating *N*-methylputrescine (Heim *et al.*, 2007) (Figure 1). *PMT* is expressed in the pericycle tissue, and its activity takes place in the apical portion of the roots (Suzuki *et al.*, 1999; Shoji *et al.*, 2002; Xu and Timko, 2004). *N. tabacum* presents five genes encoding functional *PMT*, three of them are similar to those of *Nicotiana sylvestris*, whereas the other two are similar to *PMT* genes present in *Nicotiana tomentosiformis* (Riechers and Timko, 1999).

*PMT* genes are not exclusive of *Nicotiana* spp., and have been identified in many species that produce pyridine and tropane alkaloids (Hashimoto *et al.*, 1989; Walton *et al.*, 1990; Hibi *et al.*, 1992; Naconsie *et al.*, 2014). The sequence similarities indicate that tobacco *PMT* has evolved from *Spermidine synthase (SPDS)* during the diversification of the Solanaceae (Hibi *et al.*, 1994; Hashimoto *et al.*, 1998). *SPDS* can be found in various organisms, e.g., *Escherichia coli* (Bowman *et al.*, 1973), *Bos taurus* (Raina *et al.*, 1984), and soybean, *Glycine max* (Yoon *et al.*, 2000). In contrast, *PMT* activity was purified only from plants (Blastoff *et al.*, 2009). Thus, the concept of gene duplication and mutation of one gene copy until the neofunctionalization may explain *PMT* evolution, as current *PMT* and *SPDS* catalyze different reactions with high specificities (Teuber *et al.*, 2007).

### 2.3 *N*-Methylputrescine Oxidase (MPO)

*N*-methylputrescine oxidase (MPO) is an amine oxidase that requires copper as a cofactor (Heim *et al.*, 2007; Katoh *et al.*, 2007). MPO catalyzes the oxidative deamination of *N*-methylputrescine in the second step of the nicotine biosynthesis (Naconsie *et al.*, 2014) (Figure 1). *N*-methylputrescine is the preferable substrate of MPO, although this enzyme can also use other polyamines, as putrescine and cadaverine (Moschou *et al.*, 2012). When putrescine is used as a substrate, MPO produces an unmethylated-pyrrolinium salt, resulting in the direct biosynthesis of nornicotine, while when cadaverine is used, anabasine is synthesized (Heim *et al.*, 2007). It was suggested that the *N. tabacum* MPO preference for *N*-methylputrescine instead of other substrates, may have contributed to the alkaloid pool characteristic of the tobacco plants, with nicotine being the main alkaloid, followed by nornicotine and anabasine, respectively (Saitoh *et al.*, 1985; Heim *et al.*, 2007).

*N. tabacum* MPO1 (*NtabMPO1*) possibly evolved from a diamine oxidase (*NtabDAO1*) after gene duplication and subsequent neofunctionalization (Naconsie *et al.*, 2014). Throughout this process, the *cis*-elements that placed *MPO* under the control of the NIC2 locus emerged in its promoter (Naconsie *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, during the neofunctionalization process, the substrate specificity of MPO1 was altered to prefer *N*-methylputrescine (Naconsie *et al.*, 2014). *MPO1* homologs were found in *Solanum lycopersicum* and *Solanum tuberosum* genomes, indicating that molecular evolution of MPO1 occurred early in the diversification of the Solanaceae family (Naconsie *et al.*, 2014). In fact, in other Solanaceae species MPO is involved in the biosynthesis of several alkaloids, such as calystegines, hyoscyamine and scopolamine (Bedewitz *et al.*, 2014).

Recently, it was described that MPO1 acts in the peroxisome, the same subcellular localization of DAO1 (Naconsie *et al.*, 2014). This revelation added a new cellular compartment to the nicotine biosynthesis pathway, and this is important for the full understanding of the route (Rajabi *et al.*, 2017). The product derived from the MPO1 reaction, 4-methyl-aminobutanal, spontaneously undergoes intramolecular cyclization to form the *N*-methylpyrrolinium cation (Katoh *et al.*, 2007). As a cation, it is not permeable to biological membranes, and a transporter should be required to move it to the cytoplasm, where the final steps of nicotine formation occur (Naconsie *et al.*, 2014) (Figure 1). Another possibility is that an unknown peroxisomal enzyme

may condensate the cation with another compound, generating a membrane-permeable product (Naconsie *et al.*, 2014) (Figure 1).

#### 2.4 Quinolate Phosphoribosyltransferase (QPT)

Quinolate phosphoribosyltransferase (QPT) is an enzyme that converts quinolate to nicotinate ribonucleotide (Moghe and Last, 2015) (Figure 1). The activity of QPT is required for both primary and secondary metabolism in *Nicotiana* spp. (Sinclair *et al.*, 2000). As a primary metabolic enzyme, QPT is essential for NAD synthesis and in the secondary metabolism it is involved in the formation of several alkaloids (Ryan *et al.*, 2012). QPT is encoded by duplicate genes (*QPT1* and *QPT2*) in *N. tabacum*, *N. sylvestris*, *N. tomentosiformis* and *Nicotiana glauca* (Ryan *et al.*, 2012). *QPT2* activity increased several fold after wounding of aerial tissues, and it was correlated with wounding-induced nicotine production (Sinclair *et al.*, 2000).

#### 2.5 A622 and BBL – The late steps in the nicotine biosynthesis

A622 is a member of the PIP family of NADPH-dependent reductases, with homology to phenylcoumaran benzylic ether reductase (PCBER), pterocarpan reductase (PTR) and isoflavone reductase (IFR) (Kajikawa *et al.*, 2009). However, considering that pterocarpan and isoflavonoids are phytoalexins not produced by wild type tobacco, and A622 did not presented PCBER activity, the specific substrate of A622 remains unclear (Yu *et al.*, 2000; Shoji *et al.*, 2002; Kajikawa *et al.*, 2009). It was suggested that because of the high similarity, these genes may have diverged relatively recently, and possibly the substrate for A622 may be structurally similar to phytoalexins (Hibi *et al.*, 1994).

The suppression of A622 in tobacco roots caused the inhibition of the condensation reactions to form several pyridine alkaloids and resulted in the accumulation of nicotinic acid *N*-glucoside (NaNG). Since nicotinic acid itself is not a substrate for A622, and NaNG is a nicotinic acid metabolite, there are speculations whether a derivative of nicotinic acid may be used as A622 substrate (Kajikawa *et al.*, 2009) (Figure 1).

Like other structural genes of the nicotine pathway, A622 expression occurs in the root, more strongly in the cortex of the root tip and in the outer cortex layer and endodermis in the differentiated region (Kajikawa *et al.*, 2009). In *N. sylvestris*, the expression of A622 is strongly up regulated by methyl-jasmonate (MeJA), and

ethylene may work as an antagonist, suppressing the MeJA-induced expression of A622 (Shoji *et al.*, 2000; Shoji *et al.*, 2002). At a subcellular level, A622 protein was detected mainly in the cytoplasm of *N. sylvestris* (Shoji *et al.*, 2002).

Recently, a *Berberine Bridge Enzyme-Like (BBL)* gene family was identified for *N. tabacum* and was found to act downstream in the nicotine biosynthetic pathway (Lewis *et al.*, 2015). *BBLs* are expressed in the vacuoles of tobacco root cells, and its suppression inhibited anatabine biosynthesis, demonstrating that this gene participates in the pyridine pathway (Kajikawa *et al.*, 2011).

### 3 Nicotine: from the bottom to the top of tobacco plants

Nicotine is synthesized in root cortical cells and needs to be transported to the leaves, where it is accumulated and used as anti-herbivory defense (Kato *et al.*, 2014). The nicotine path from the root to the leaves implies a long-distance transport through the xylem, and it should include several transporters (Shitan *et al.*, 2015).

Although most nicotine produced in roots is transported to and accumulates in above-ground tissues, a portion of nicotine may stay in root cells (Hildreth *et al.*, 2011). High levels of nicotine in the roots might trigger feedback inhibition of its synthetic genes (Wang *et al.*, 2015). Thus, maintaining low cytoplasmic concentrations of this alkaloid in the root cells may be important to ensure its active synthesis to continue (Shoji *et al.*, 2009).

The multidrug and toxic compound extrusion (MATE)-type transporters, NtMATE1 and NtMATE2 (collectively called NtMATE1/2), were identified in alkaloid-synthesizing root cells. These transporters are located in the tonoplast, and use an antiport of protons from the vacuole to move cytoplasmic nicotine through the tonoplast of the root cells (Figure 1). Additionally, the vacuolar sequestration of nicotine may be necessary to protect the nicotine-synthesizing cells from a potential cytotoxicity caused by this alkaloid (Shoji *et al.*, 2009).

Another transporter from the MATE family, *N. tabacum* jasmonate-inducible alkaloid transporter 1 (Nt-JAT1), is involved in the vacuolar accumulation of nicotine in the aerial parts of tobacco plants. The expression of *Nt-JAT1* was detected in roots, stems and leaves, but its subcellular localization in the tonoplast was showed just in the green leaves (Morita *et al.*, 2009). Further detailed investigation is needed to clarify its role and location in the root cells.

A similar transporter, called Nt-JAT2, was found in the tonoplast of tobacco leaves. Nt-JAT2 acts in the nicotine transport to the vacuolar lumen specifically in the leaves. It was suggested that Nt-JAT1 is responsible for steady-state alkaloid transport in various tissues, whereas Nt-JAT2 works on the nicotine accumulation in leaves upon herbivore attack (Shitan *et al.*, 2014).

After synthesis, the nicotine from the roots may move to the apoplast, and it is energetically important for the plant to avoid this nicotine to be secreted into the rhizosphere (Hildreth *et al.*, 2011). Nicotine uptake permease 1 (NUP1) (Figure 1) is a plasma membrane-localized transporter of the purine uptake permease (PUP) family, presenting a high degree of substrate specificity for nicotine (Hildreth *et al.*, 2011; Kato *et al.*, 2014). This transporter uses proton symport for the uptake of nicotine (Hildreth *et al.*, 2011). *NUP1* expression occurs primarily in the epidermal cells of the root tip, and low expression was also detected in the leaf and stem of tobacco plants. NUP1 may prevent the loss of apoplastic nicotine, or it even may retrieve secreted nicotine back into the root tissues (Kato *et al.*, 2014).

Transporters responsible for loading nicotine into the xylem in the root, as well as unloading of nicotine from xylem into leaf cells remain unknown (Wang *et al.*, 2015) (Figure 2). Alkaloids are protonated in the apoplastic space due to the acidic condition, becoming more hydrophilic and consequently harder to transpose the plasma membrane (Morita *et al.*, 2009). Thus, it was speculated that a plasma membrane-localized transporter, like NUP1, may import the nicotine from xylem to leaf cells (Jelesko, 2012). Further studies are needed to unravel the whole translocation mechanism of nicotine.

#### 4 Genetic and hormonal regulation of nicotine structural-genes expression

There are two regulatory *loci* specifically controlling the expression of nicotine-related structural genes in tobacco, *NIC1* and *NIC2*. Studies using mutants showed that *nic1* and *nic2* mutations are semidominant or show dose-dependent effects on nicotine levels, but the effect of *nic1* was 2.4 times stronger than that of *nic2* (Hibi *et al.*, 1994; Shoji *et al.*, 2010). The downregulation of nicotine biosynthesis genes using *nic* mutants has been confirmed in several studies (Legg and Collins, 1971; Hibi *et al.*, 1994; Reed and Jelesko, 2004; Cane *et al.*, 2005).

When compared to the wild type, *nic1* and *nic2* double mutants (*nic1nic2*) present the lowest *N*-methylputrescine content, whereas the total content of

putrescine, spermidine and spermine were the highest (Hibi *et al.*, 1994). It suggests that the metabolism of putrescine is blocked through the impairment of *PMT*, and this polyamine accumulates in the roots (Hibi *et al.*, 1994). Moreover, *A622*, *QPT*, *QS* and *BBL* were also showed to be regulated by *NIC* loci (Shoji *et al.*, 2002; Kidd *et al.*, 2006; Kajikawa *et al.*, 2009; Shoji and Hashimoto, 2011a).

Although the *NIC1* locus remains uncharacterized, the impact of *NIC2* locus on leaf nicotine content becomes considerably stronger in the presence of *nic1* mutation (Legg and Collins, 1971). The *NIC2* locus was shown to encode for a group of transcription factor genes from the IXa Ethylene Response Factor (ERF) subfamily (Lewis *et al.*, 2015). At least seven *NIC2*-locus ERF genes were found as downregulated in *nic2* mutants: ERF189, ERF115, ERF221, ERF104, ERF179, ERF17 and ERF168 (Shoji *et al.*, 2010).

Regarding hormonal regulation, it was already showed that most of the genes participating in nicotine biosynthesis and transport, such as *PMT*, *QPT*, *A622*, *MATE1/2*, *Nt-JAT1* and *NtJAT-2*, are upregulated by jasmonates (Hibi *et al.*, 1994). Tobacco uses canonical jasmonate signaling components to activate structural genes involved in nicotine biosynthesis (Paschold *et al.*, 2007; Shoji *et al.*, 2008). The Coronatine Insensitive 1 (COI1) acts in the perception of jasmonate, degrading Jasmonate Zim Domain (JAZ) proteins, which allows the release of transcription factors to activate the transcription of jasmonate-responsive genes (Wasternack and Hause, 2013).

One of the transcription factors released after JAZ degradation is the highly conserved basic Helix-Loop-Helix (bHLH) MYC2. MYC2 was shown to controls the expression of nicotine biosynthetic genes by directly binding its *cis*-elements in the target promoters and also by up-regulating the *NIC2*-locus *ERF* genes (Shoji and Hashimoto, 2011b). Additionally, MYC2 also induces the expression of *NUP1*, which in turn positively controls the expression of *ERF189*, one of the major regulators of the nicotine biosynthetic pathway (Kato *et al.*, 2014).

Another phytohormone involved in the nicotine pathway is the auxin, which downregulates the nicotine biosynthesis (Hibi *et al.*, 1994). A very common practice among tobacco growers is the removal of the flower head and several young leaves of the tobacco plants, also called “topping” (Hibi *et al.*, 1994). This practice switches the plant from its reproductive to its vegetative phase, eliminates the apical dominance and favors the root growth (Li *et al.*, 2016). After topping, the nicotine

concentration increases in tobacco leaves, and it is highly dependent on the removal of apical meristems, the primary source of auxin in the plant (Xi *et al.*, 2005; Shi *et al.*, 2006). Indeed, it was suggested that the decrease of auxin supplied to the root might result in activation or derepression of *PMT* (Hibi *et al.*, 1994).

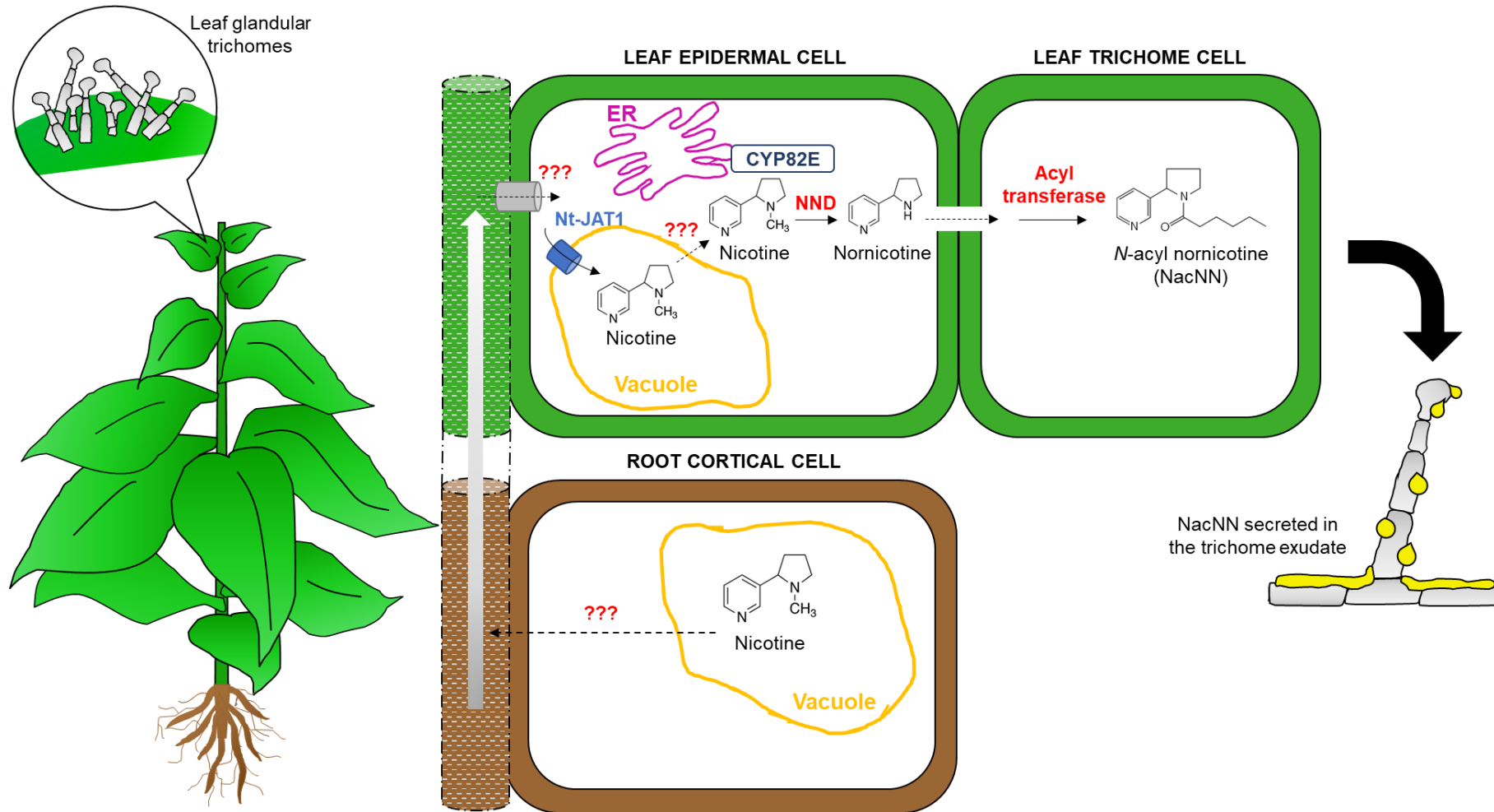
The nicotine biosynthesis must be extremely regulated, as it is highly costly to the plant, reducing even the seed yield (Baldwin, 1998). An example of this fine regulation was observed when nicotine-tolerant herbivores fed on tobacco leaves, triggering an ethylene burst that suppressed the jasmonate-mediated activation of nicotine biosynthesis genes (Kahl *et al.*, 2000). In this case, the ethylene signaling prevents the plant to waste its resources on an ineffective nicotine defense, and to instead allocate them to other defense mechanisms (Winz and Baldwin, 2001).

The cross-talk between different signaling pathways, mainly jasmonates and ethylene in the case of nicotine biosynthesis in tobacco, may be critical to managing the destination of the plant energy sources (Shoji *et al.*, 2000). In a herbivore attack scenario, most of the nitrogen available is redirected to alkaloid biosynthesis, targeting plant defense (Baldwin *et al.*, 1994). However, as it is not possible to recover alkaloid nitrogen and reinvest it in other metabolic processes, its biosynthesis requires optimum regulation (Kutchan, 1995).

##### *5 The alkaloid content in different Nicotiana species*

The alkaloid composition within the *Nicotiana* genus is species-specific and extremely variable (Saitoh *et al.*, 1985; Sisson and Severson, 1990). The alkaloids most frequently found in *Nicotiana* are nicotine, nornicotine, anatabine and anabasine, but a single alkaloid usually predominates in each species (Saitoh *et al.*, 1985; Sun *et al.*, 2013). Most of the *N. tabacum* cultivars currently used present nicotine as the primary alkaloid (Wang *et al.*, 2015).





**Figure 2:** The nicotine produced in the *Nicotiana* root cells is translocated through the xylem to the leaves, where it can be demethylated to nornicotine. Nornicotine, by the action of an acyltransferase, is acylated to *N*-acylnornicotine (NacNN) in the trichomes. NacNN is secreted by the glandular trichome, and acts in the anti-herbivory defense. ER: Endoplasmic Reticulum.

However, despite being a natural allotetraploid derived from the interspecific hybridization between ancestral *N. sylvestris* and *N. tomentosiformis*, *N. tabacum* remarkably presents an alkaloid profile different from both of its progenitor species (Gavilano *et al.*, 2007). *N. tomentosiformis* primarily accumulates nornicotine, whereas nicotine and nornicotine can be found as the predominant alkaloids in *N. sylvestris* green and senescing leaves, respectively (Sisson and Severson, 1990).

Nicotine and nornicotine are the alkaloids more frequently found in *Nicotiana* spp., and the insecticide activity of these alkaloids varies widely depending on the insect species (Feinstein, 1952). Additionally, in some of *Nicotiana* wild species, nornicotine has an important role as a precursor of *N*-acyl-nornicotine (NacNN), an alkaloid that exhibits 1000-fold higher activity against nicotine-resistant *Manduca sexta* (tobacco hornworm) than nicotine (Gavilano *et al.*, 2007).

NacNN was found in the trichome exudate produced at the epidermis of *Nicotiana repanda*, *Nicotiana stocktonii* and *Nicotiana nesophila* aerial parts (Zador and Jones, 1986; Huesing *et al.*, 1989; Laue *et al.*, 2000). It was suggested a route where nicotine is *N*-demethylated to nornicotine in the leaves, followed by its mobilization to the trichomes upon herbivory (Zador e Jones, 1986) (Figure 2). Then, nornicotine is acylated with straight-chain fatty acids, rising to the hydrophobic NacNN, which is secreted from the gland to coat the leaf surface (Figure 2) (Zador e Jones, 1986; Schillmiller *et al.*, 2008). Other species of the *Nicotiana* genus lack the acyltransferase enzyme necessary for NacNN biosynthesis (Huesing *et al.*, 1989).

## 6 Concluding remarks

Alkaloids, specially nicotine, have an essential role in the anti-herbivory defense of *Nicotiana* plants (Kutchan, 1995). The site of nicotine production is the root cortical tissue. After been synthesized, the alkaloid is translocated via xylem to the leaves, where it is stored in the vacuoles (Sun *et al.*, 2013). Depending on the *Nicotiana* species, nicotine can be metabolized in the leaves, resulting in different alkaloids, such as nornicotine and NacNN (Zador and Jones, 1986; Gavilano *et al.*, 2007) (Figure 2). Nicotine biosynthesis, transport to the leaves and metabolism are multi-enzymatic and complex processes, which have not been completely elucidated yet. This review presented the nicotine biosynthesis, transport and metabolism, and highlighted the points that need further investigation: a) the late steps of nicotine biosynthesis, and b) the involvement of the long-distance transport to the leaves.

The suppression of both *A622* and *BBL* in tobacco roots inhibited the pyridine pathway, demonstrating the importance of these enzymes to the pyridine alkaloid formation (Kajikawa *et al.*, 2009; Kajikawa *et al.*, 2011). Although there is a consensus that they act downstream in this route, it is not clear what is the substrate of each enzyme (Lewis *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, the translocation of nicotine upwards the aerial part of *Nicotiana* involves several transporters. There are currently five transporters known to conduct nicotine translocation in *Nicotiana* spp.: NtMATE1, NtMATE2, NUP1, NtJAT1 and NtJAT2 (Morita *et al.*, 2009; Shoji *et al.*, 2009; Hildreth *et al.*, 2011; Kato *et al.*, 2014; Shitan *et al.*, 2014). However, the transporters responsible for loading nicotine into the xylem in the root, and for unloading of nicotine from xylem into leaf cells remain unknown (Wang *et al.*, 2015). Thus, further studies are needed to unravel the whole biosynthesis and translocation pathways of nicotine in *Nicotiana* species.

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**CAPÍTULO II: THE CYP82E SUBFAMILY IN THE *NICOTIANA* GENUS:  
IDENTIFICATION OF PUTATIVE NEW GENES INVOLVED WITH NICOTINE TO  
NORNICOTINE CONVERSION**

**THE CYP82E SUBFAMILY IN THE *NICOTIANA* GENUS: IDENTIFICATION OF  
PUTATIVE NEW GENES INVOLVED WITH NICOTINE TO NORNICOTINE  
CONVERSION**

**Fernanda Fleig Zenkner<sup>1,2</sup>, Alexandre Rieger<sup>3</sup>, Márcia Margis-Pinheiro<sup>1</sup>,  
Alexandro Cagliari<sup>4</sup>**

<sup>1</sup> Departamento de Genética, Programa de Pós-Graduação em Genética e Biologia Molecular, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul (UFRGS), PO Box 15053, Porto Alegre, RS CEP 91501-970, Brazil

<sup>2</sup> JTI Kannenberg Comércio de Tabacos do Brasil LTDA, Santa Cruz do Sul, RS, Brazil

<sup>3</sup>Universidade de Santa Cruz do Sul (UNISC), Santa Cruz do Sul, RS, Brazil

<sup>4</sup>Universidade Estadual do Rio Grande do Sul (UERGS), Santa Cruz do Sul, RS, Brazil

**ABSTRACT**

**Introduction:** *Nicotiana tabacum* plants are known by their alkaloid content, especially nicotine, which can be converted to nornicotine through the *N*-demethylation reaction catalyzed by nicotine *N*-demethylase (NND) enzymes. Nornicotine may give rise to a harmful Tobacco Specific Nitrosamine (TSNA), undesirable in tobacco products due to its carcinogenic risk to humans. Genes encoding NND enzymes belong to *CYP82E* subfamily.

**Methods:** Using a high-throughput comparative genomic approach, we conducted a broad survey analysis in the available sequenced *Nicotiana* genomes, in order to identify the presence of homologous genes from the subfamily *CYP82E*, coding for NND. Phylogenetic reconstruction of *CYP82E* subfamily in the genus *Nicotiana* was performed using Bayesian inference. A set of bioinformatic tools were used to carry out *in silico* characterization of putative *Nicotiana CYP82E* genes.

**Results:** We have identified 23 new putative *CYP82E* genes being 2 from *N. benthamiana*, 7 from *N. sylvestris*, 10 from *N. tabacum* and 4 from *N.*

*tomentosiformis*. After *in silico* analysis, we selected 15 candidate genes with the highest potential of being NND. *In silico* analysis of *N. tabacum* NND indicated endoplasmic reticulum (ER) localization for CYP82E1, E2, E3, E4, E5, E8 and E21, and cytoplasmic localization for CYP82E10. The interaction with small ubiquitin-like modifiers (SUMOs) was predicted for all CYP82E, except CYP82E5.

**Conclusions:** Here we present the first phylogenetic and *in silico* analysis performed with CYP82E subfamily in tobacco and wild *Nicotiana* species. The phylogeny demonstrated that putative *CYP82E* genes form an independent cluster from other *CYP* families and *CYP82* subfamilies. We have identified uncharacterized putative *CYP82E* genes in *Nicotiana*. The identification of all potential NND could contribute to clarify the conversion process in *Nicotiana* species.

**Key words:** *Nicotiana*; nornicotine; nicotine; CYP82E; tobacco-specific nitrosamine.

## INTRODUCTION

The Solanaceae are a large eudicot family including many economically important crop plants such as tomato, potato and tobacco. The genus *Nicotiana* L. is the fifth largest genus in this family, with 75 naturally occurring species (Clarkson *et al.*, 2004). Amphidiploid plants are common in the genus *Nicotiana*, and the cultivated tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) is one of those species, its progenitors being *Nicotiana sylvestris* and *Nicotiana tomentosiformis* (Knapp, S. *et al.*, 2004). For thousands of years *N. tabacum* has been cultivated by Native Americans in the Americas (Tso, 1990). After its discovery, tobacco was introduced to Europe and rapidly spread throughout the world (Dewey and Xie, 2013).

Tobacco's relevance as an economically important crop is primarily due to its use as a source of the psychoactive alkaloid nicotine (Sun *et al.*, 2013). Nicotine is also the chemical compound associated with the addiction to tobacco products (Benowitz, 2009). Nicotine and alkaloids in general are also important to the plants that produce them because these substances are used as a defence against herbivores and insects (Steppuhn *et al.*, 2004; Gavilano *et al.*, 2006; Dicke and Baldwin, 2010). Stresses such as tissue wounding or insect attacks, further stimulate nicotine biosynthesis from the root apparatus, which is the site where nicotine biosynthetic genes are specifically expressed (Shitan *et al.*, 2014). After been

produced, nicotine is transported via the xylem to the leaves, where it is stored in the cell vacuoles (Sun *et al.*, 2013).

The Cytochrome P450 (CYP) is one of the largest known enzyme families in plants (Bak *et al.*, 2011). CYP enzymes participate in a diverse range of toxicological and physiological processes such as the bioconversion of xenobiotics and the biosynthesis of important hormones and structural components of cell (Bernhardt, 2006). Remarkably, the functional redundancy of these genes is limited, reflecting the complexity of plant metabolism (Bak *et al.*, 2011).

Currently, 5100 CYP sequences are known in plants, which is a relatively large number when compared to those found in other taxa, such as vertebrates (1461 CYPs), insects (2137 CYPs), fungi (2960 CYPs), bacteria (1042 CYPs) or archaea (around 30 CYPs) (Nelson and Werck-Reichhart, 2011). In the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*, a panel of more than 200 CYPs was found (Bak *et al.*, 2011). *Nicotiana* species are known by their alkaloid content, such as nicotine, nornicotine, anabasine and anatabine (Sun *et al.*, 2013), and CYP enzymes largely participate in alkaloid biosynthesis (Siminszky *et al.*, 2005; Xu *et al.*, 2007).

Nornicotine is the source of a harmful Tobacco Specific Nitrosamine (TSNA): *N*-nitrosornicotine (NNN), which derives from the reaction of nornicotine with Nitrogen Oxide compounds (NO<sub>x</sub>), and nitrite in particular (Shi *et al.*, 2013). NNN is also one of the toxicants recommended for mandated lowering by the WHO (WHO, 2007).

Nornicotine is generated through nicotine *N*-demethylation, a process catalyzed by *N*-demethylases enzymes (NND). Genes known to encode NND enzymes belong to *CYP82E* subfamily. Seven *CYP82E* genes have already been described in *N. tabacum*, and six of them are involved in this conversion process (Pakdeechanuan, Teoh, *et al.*, 2012; Liedschulte *et al.*, 2016). Up to now, two and four *CYP82E* genes were described in tobacco progenitors, *N. sylvestris* and *N. tomentosiformis*, respectively (Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2007; Gavilano *et al.*, 2007; Gavilano and Siminszky, 2007; Lewis *et al.*, 2010; Liedschulte *et al.*, 2016).

Different approaches have been employed to reduce nornicotine levels in commercial tobacco, aiming to correspondent decrease in NNN formation in tobacco products. Transgenic tobacco lines carrying an RNA interference (RNAi) construct to inhibit the expression of a *CYP82E* gene resulted in plants with decreased nornicotine content (Gavilano *et al.*, 2006; Lewis *et al.*, 2008). However, considering that some tobacco producing countries do not allow GMO crops, and consumers in

many countries reject the use of GMO products, it would be important to develop alternative solutions that would allow to lower nornicotine in tobacco (Lewis *et al.*, 2008). Alternative methods, such as mutation induction through ethyl methane sulfonate (EMS), have been used with the aim of obtaining mutants with an altered nornicotine profile (Lewis *et al.*, 2010).

Despite the importance of NNN to human health, there are relatively few studies that have focused on the genetic regulation involved with the conversion of nicotine to nornicotine. The study of the *CYP82E* subfamily organization and its evolution in different *Nicotiana* species represent an important step in the understanding of the nicotine-nornicotine conversion process. The use of genomic and phylogenomic approaches could contribute to the development of new solutions that can be used in breeding programs to the aim of lowering NNN emissions from tobacco products. Here we report on the identification and phylogenetic reconstruction of the *CYP82E* subfamily in the genus *Nicotiana*. We also performed an *in silico* characterization of the tobacco *CYP82E* proteins. The evolution of the *CYP82* family and the emergence of the *CYP82E* subfamily in tobacco are also discussed.

## METHODS

### ***CYP82E* gene annotation**

Putative *CYP82E* subfamily genes were identified in NCBI (National Center for Biotechnology Information, <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>) database using as a query the protein sequence of *N. tabacum* *CYP82E4*, the main *CYP82E* in *N. tabacum* leaves, deposited under accession number ABA07805.1. When using other sequences as queries (e.g. *CYP82E5* or *CYP82E10*), the search did not return any different sequences in the results.

Sequences were identified through BLAST (Basic Logical Alignment Search Tool) searches against genomes of *Nicotiana* species available at the database. We considered the species included in the classification by Knapp (Knapp, Sandra *et al.*, 2004) (Supplementary Table 1). The sequences with at least 25% similarity were selected for further analysis.

Deduced amino acid sequences from the putative *CYP82E* subfamily were aligned using the CLUSTAL W Algorithm in the Molecular Evolutionary Analysis (MEGA v.6) software (Tamura *et al.*, 2011). Contiguous insertion-deletion events

(indels) with more than one base pair were treated as single mutations (Simmons and Ochoterena, 2000).

A Bayesian inference were generated using BEAST v.1.8.2 software (Drummond and Rambaut, 2007); a run of 40,000,000 chains was performed, and the trees were sampled every 1000 generations. The Yule tree prior, and the uncorrelated log-normal relaxed clock were used in the BEAST analysis. The TRACER v.1.6 (<http://beast.bio.ed.ac.uk/Tracer>) was used to check the convergence of the Monte Carlo Markov chains (MCMCs) and for adequate effective sample sizes (EES >200) after the first 10% of the generations had been deleted as burn-in. The final joint sample was used to estimate the maximum clade credibility tree with the TreeAnnotator program, which is part of the BEAST package. The statistical support for the clades was determined by accessing the Bayesian posterior probability (PP). The tree was visualized using FigTree v.1.4.2 (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>).

The following sequences were used as outgroup for phylogenetic analysis: well-described CYP85A3 from *Solanum lycopersicum* (Nomura *et al.*, 2005), CYP82C2 and CYP82G1 from *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Lee *et al.*, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2010), CYP82D1, CYP82D2 and CYP82D3 from *Gossypium hirsutum* (Sun *et al.*, 2014), CYP82A1 from *Pisum sativum* (Whitbred and Schuler, 2000), CYP82N2v2 from *Eschscholzia californica* (Takemura *et al.*, 2013); and other genes from CYP82 family, as CYP82H1 from *Ammi majus*, CYP82C3, CYP82C4 and CYP82F1 from *A. thaliana*, CYP82B1 from *E. californica*, CYP82A1, CYP82A3, CYP82A4 from *Glycine max*, CYP82D62 from *Mentha x piperita*, CYP82D33 from *Ocimum basilicum*, CYP82X1 and CYP82Y1 from *Papaver somniferum*, CYP82K1 and CYP82L1 from *Populus trichocarpa*, CYP82Q1 from *Stevia rebaudiana*, CYP82E11 and CYP82E13 from *Solanum tuberosum*, CYP82E11 from *Solanum lycopersicum*. We also included in the phylogenetic analysis five *N. tabacum* genes from different CYP families and subfamilies: CYP81B2, CYP81C6, CYP82M1, CYP92A2 and CYP92B2, as outgroup. The sequences used as outgroup were already named and found in the literature. All sequences used in the phylogenetic analysis are presented in the Supplementary Table 2.

The alignment of CYP82E sequences from *N. tabacum* was performed using CLUSTAL W Algorithm in GeneDoc (<http://iubio.bio.indiana.edu/soft/molbio/ibmpc/genedoc-readme.html>).



### ***In silico* protein analysis**

*In silico* analysis was performed with the following software: MEME (<http://meme-suite.org/>) for motif analysis, Protter (<http://wlab.ethz.ch/protter/>) for protein topology, Phobius (<http://phobius.sbc.su.se/>) (Käll *et al.*, 2004) and TMHMM (<http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TMHMM-2.0/>) (Krogh *et al.*, 2001) for transmembrane domain prediction. Regarding subcellular location and signal peptide prediction, we followed the protocol described by Emanuelsson *et al.* (Emanuelsson *et al.*, 2007), which indicates to start the analysis with TargetP and in case of low reliable prediction, or secretory pathway prediction, further confirm with SignalP. We also assessed subcellular location using CELLO (<http://cello.life.nctu.edu.tw/>) and Predotar (<https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/predotar/predotar.html>).

The proteins were also tested for post-translational modifications (PTMs) using GPS-SUMO (<http://sumosp.biocuckoo.org/>) to predict both covalent SUMOylation sites and non-covalent SUMO-interaction motifs (Zhao *et al.*, 2014) and GPS-Lipid (<http://lipid.biocuckoo.org/>), which is a predictor for multiple protein lipid modification sites, as S-palmitoylation, prenylation and N-myristoylation (Xie *et al.*, 2016). The analyses were run using the default software parameters.

## **RESULTS**

Using a high-throughput comparative genomic approach we conducted a broad survey analysis in the available sequenced *Nicotiana* genomes, in order to identify the presence of homologous genes from the subfamily *CYP82E*, coding for NND.

BLAST searches and domain analysis (See material and methods) allowed the identification of 42 putative *CYP82E* subfamily genes in *Nicotiana* (Supplementary Table 3). We have identified 4 putative *CYP82E* genes belonging to *Nicotiana alata*, 2 to *Nicotiana benthamiana*, 1 to *Nicotiana langsdorffii*, 9 to *N. sylvestris*, 18 to *N. tabacum* and 8 to *N. tomentosiformis*.

From the total of *CYP82E* subfamily identified in *Nicotiana*, 23 were never described previously (Supplementary Table 3): 2 for *N. benthamiana*, 7 for *N. sylvestris*, 10 for *N. tabacum* and 4 for *N. tomentosiformis*. These new putative *CYP82E* genes were not yet characterized, and there is no information about their function or possible roles in the nicotine conversion process.

### ***In silico* analysis of CYP82E proteins**

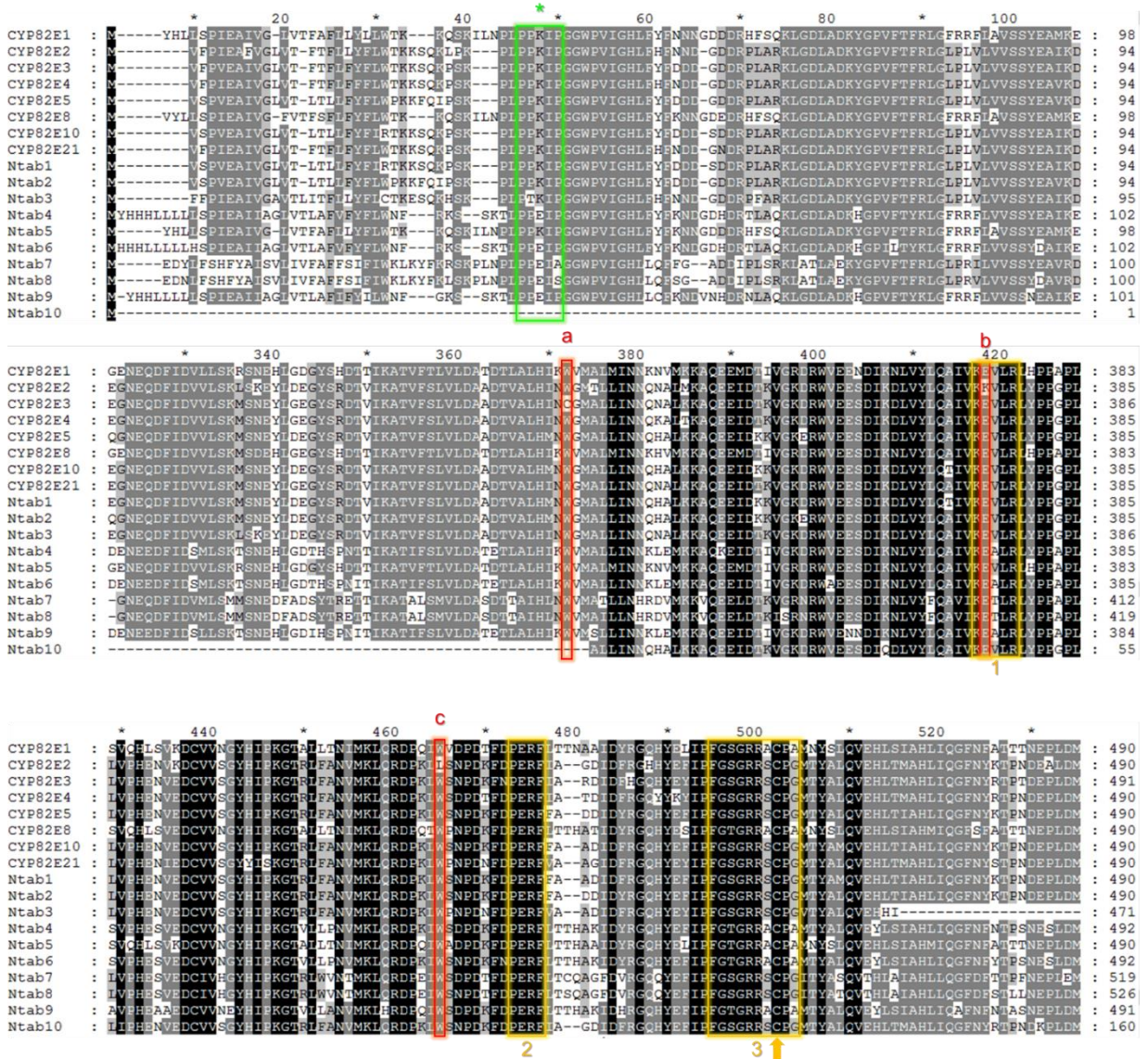
Motif analysis showed a high degree of conservation for the three well known motifs described for the CYP superfamily: a) the K-helix consensus sequence (EXXR), b) PERF consensus sequence and c) F-xx-G-xb-xx-C-x-G motif (Supplementary Figure 1). The first two sequences (**ExxR** and **PERF**) form the triade E-R-R (represented by bold letters above).

In order to analyze the protein conservation among CYP82E subfamily, amino acid alignment focusing on sequences from *N. tabacum* was performed. In spite of the high amino acid similarity among CYP82E sequences (up to 95%) (Siminszky *et al.*, 2005; Gavilano *et al.*, 2007), different important residues changes were also observed (red letters in Figure 1).

New putative CYP82E identified for all *Nicotiana* species (Supplementary Table 3) present no substitution in the conserved amino acid positions shown in Figure 1, suggesting that these genes may potentially encode functional NND enzymes.

Regarding *in silico* post-translational modification analysis, the software GPS-SUMO predicted SUMO interaction at the residues 504-508 for most of the NND enzymes tested ( $P < 0.05$ ), except for CYP82E3 and CYP82E5 from *N. tabacum* and *N. tomentosiformis*, and for all *N. alata*, *N. benthamiana* and *N. langsdorffii* NND (Table 1). The same PTM was also predicted for some new putative CYP82E: Ntab1, Ntab5, Nsyl1, Nsyl5, Nsyl6 and Ntom1. The lipid modification analysis indicated the S-Palmitoylation at the position C330 for NtabCYP82E3, C23 for Ntab3 and Nsyl2, C161 for Ntab4 and C160 for Nsyl4. N-Myristoylation was predicted at the position G10 for NsylCYP82E10 and Nsyl1.

Transmembrane domains were predicted for most of the CYP82E proteins, except for NtabCYP82E10, Ntab1 and Nsyl3 using TMHMM software, and CYP82E5 from *N. tabacum* and *N. tomentosiformis*, CYP82E10 from *N. tabacum* and *N. sylvestris*, Ntab1, Ntab2, Nsyl1 and Nsyl3 using Phobius software (Table 1).



**Figure 1:** Comparison of already described and putative new *Nicotiana tabacum* CYP82E sequences regarding amino acid substitutions and consensus sequences. The proline-rich motif is highlighted in green (\*). The amino acid substitutions are highlighted in red: **a)** W330C substitution in CYP82E3; **b)** E375K substitution in CYP82E2; **c)** W422L substitution in CYP82E2. The consensus sequences are highlighted in yellow: **1)** ExxR consensus sequence; **2)** PERF consensus sequence; **3)** F-xx-G-xb-xx-C-x-G consensus sequence. The arrow indicates heme-ligand cysteine. Amino acids are colored according conservation: black represents 100%, dark gray 80% and light gray 60% similarity.

**Table 1:** *In silico* characterization of *Nicotiana* CYP82E already named as CYP82E1, E2, E3, E4, E5, E8, E10 and E21, and new putative CYP82E. ER: endoplasmic reticulum.

	Subcellular location		Transmembrane domain		Post-translational modification	
	CELLO	Predotar	TMHMM	Phobius	GPS-SUMO	GPS-lipid
<b>NtabCYP82E1</b>	Cytoplasma	ER	Yes (7-26)	Yes (6-25)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>Ntab5</b>	Cytoplasma/ Mitochondria	ER	Yes (7-26)	Yes (6-25)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>NtabCYP82E2</b>	Cytoplasma	ER	Yes (5-23)	Yes (6-22)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>NtabCYP82E3</b>	Cytoplasma	ER	Yes (2-23)	Yes (6-22)	SUMO interaction (505-509)	S-Palmitoylation (C330)
<b>NtabCYP82E4</b>	Cytoplasma	ER	Yes (2-23)	Yes (6-23)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>NtabCYP82E5</b>	Cytoplasma/ ER	ER	Yes (5-22)	No	No	No
<b>Ntab2</b>	Cytoplasma/ ER	ER	Yes (5-22)	No	No	No
<b>NtabCYP82E8</b>	Cytoplasma	ER	Yes (2-24)	Yes (6-25)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>NtabCYP82E10</b>	Cytoplasma	ER	No	No	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>Ntab1</b>	Cytoplasma	ER	No	No	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>NtabCYP82E21</b>	Cytoplasma	ER	Yes (2-23)	Yes (6-22)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>Ntab3</b>	Cytoplasma	ER	Yes (5-24)	Yes (6-23)	No	S-Palmitoylation (C23)
<b>Ntab4</b>	Plasma membrane	ER	Yes (7-29)	Yes (6-31)	Sumoylation Nonconsensus (58); SUMO interaction (506-510)	S-Palmitoylation (C161)
<b>Ntab6</b>	Cytoplasma/ Plasma membrane	Possibly ER	Yes (7-29)	Yes (12-31)	Sumoylation Nonconsensus (58); SUMO interaction (506-510)	No
<b>Ntab7</b>	Plasma membrane	ER	Yes (7-26)	Yes (6-26)	Sumoylation Nonconsensus (298); SUMO interaction (89-93; 533-537)	No
<b>Ntab8</b>	Plasma membrane	ER	Yes (7-26)	Yes (6-26)	SUMO interaction (540-544)	No
<b>Ntab9</b>	Cytoplasma/ Plasma membrane	ER	Yes (7-29)	Yes (6-30)	Sumoylation consensus (57); SUMO interaction (505-509)	No

<b>Ntab10</b>	Cytoplasm	-	No	No	SUMO interaction (174-178)	No
<b>NsylCYP82E2</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (5-23)	Yes (6-22)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>Nsyl5</b>	Cytoplasm/ Mitochondria	ER	Yes (7-26)	Yes (6-25)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>Nsyl6</b>	Cytoplasm/ Mitochondria	ER	Yes (7-26)	Yes (6-25)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>NsylCYP82E10</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (4-21 and 70-92)	No	SUMO interaction (504-508)	N-Myristoylation (G10)
<b>Nsyl1</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (4-21 and 70-92)	No	SUMO interaction (504-508)	N-Myristoylation (G10)
<b>Nsyl2</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (2-24)	Yes (6-23)	SUMO interaction (502-506)	S-Palmitoylation (C23)
<b>Nsyl3</b>	Cytoplasm	None	No	No	SUMO interaction (472-476)	No
<b>Nsyl4</b>	Plasma membrane	ER	Yes (5-27)	Yes (6-30)	Sumoylation concensus (57); SUMO interaction (505-509)	S-Palmitoylation (C160)
<b>Nsyl7</b>	Plasma membrane	ER	Yes (7-26)	Yes (6-26)	SUMO interaction (540-544)	No
<b>NtomCYP82E3</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (5-22 and 109-131)	Yes (6-22)	No	No
<b>Ntom2</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (5-22 and 109-131)	Yes (6-22)	No	No
<b>NtomCYP82E4</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (5-22)	Yes (6-22)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>Ntom1</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (5-22)	Yes (6-22)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>NtomCYP82E5</b>	Cytoplasm/ ER	ER	Yes (5-22)	No	No	No
<b>NtomCYP82E21</b>	Cytoplasm/ Plasma membrane	ER	Yes (5-22 and 70-92)	Yes (6-22 and 70-89)	SUMO interaction (504-508)	No
<b>Ntom3</b>	Plasma membrane	ER	Yes (7-29)	Yes (7-32)	Sumoylation concensus (59); SUMO interaction (508-512)	No
<b>Ntom4</b>	Plasma membrane	ER	Yes (7-26)	Yes (6-26)	SUMO interaction (89-93; 533-537); Sumoylation Nonconcensus (298)	No

<b>NalaCYP82E15</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (5-22 and 109-131)	Yes (6-22)	SUMO interaction (501-505)	No
<b>NalaCYP82E16</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (5-22 and 109-131)	Yes (6-22)	SUMO interaction (501-505)	No
<b>NalaCYP82E17</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (5-22 and 109-131)	Yes (6-22)	SUMO interaction (501-505)	No
<b>NalaCYP82E18</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (7-24)	Yes (6-23)	SUMO interaction (502-506)	No
<b>NlanCYP82E19</b>	Cytoplasm	ER	Yes (2-24)	Yes (6-23)	SUMO interaction (502-506)	No
<b>Nben1</b>	Plasma membrane	ER	Yes (7-29)	Yes (6-30)	No	No
<b>Nben2</b>	Plasma membrane	ER	Yes (7-26)	Yes (6-26)	SUMO interaction (89-93; 541-545)	No

Regarding subcellular location and signal peptide, our predictions in TargetP resulted in a reliability coefficient (RC) of 5 (not reliable prediction) for most of the proteins, and few proteins were predicted for the secretory pathway. Thus, the analysis was run in SignalP, resulting in no signal peptide predicted for all NND and new putative CYP82E tested.

The analysis in Predotar for subcellular location prediction indicated that all CYP82E proteins are directed to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), except Ntab10 and Nsyl3, while CELLO indicated cytoplasmic location for most of the proteins. Besides cytosol, it was predicted additional location on ER for Ntab2 and for CYP82E5 from *N. tabacum* and *N. tomentosiformis*, on plasma membrane for CYP82E21 from *N. tomentosiformis*, Ntab6 and Ntab9, on mitochondria for Ntab5, Nsy5 and Nsyl6. The proteins Ntab4, Ntab7, Ntab8, Nsyl4, Nsyl7, Ntom3, Ntom4, Nben1 and Nben2 were not predicted to be in the cytosol.

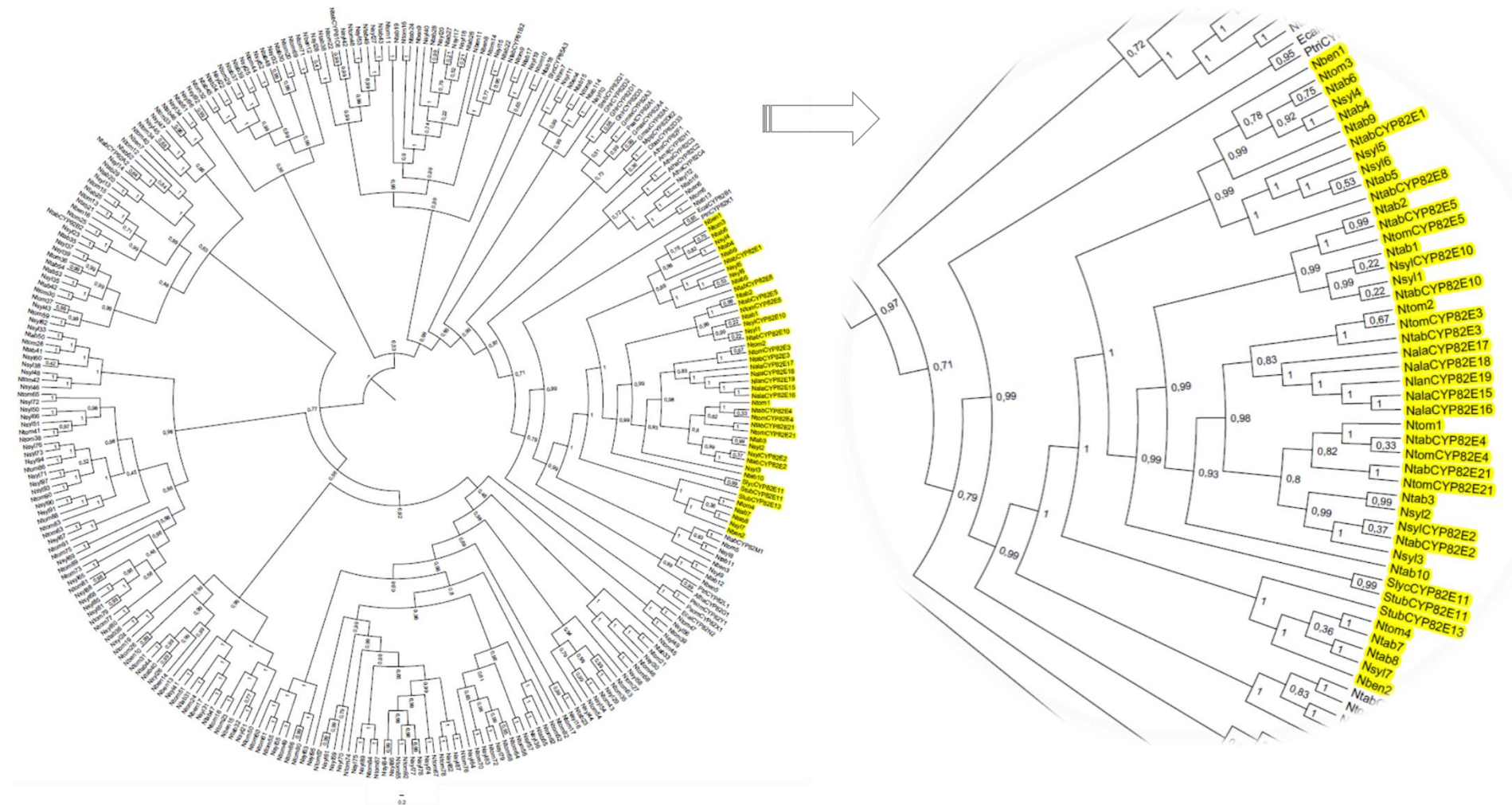
### **Phylogenetic analysis of CYP82E family**

We performed Bayesian analysis in order to evaluate the phylogenetic relationship within *CYP82E* subfamily of *Nicotiana* (Figure 2). We observed that the *CYP82E* subfamily, containing NND genes, formed a well-supported group separated from other CYP families, as *CYP81* and *CYP92*, and other *CYP82* subfamilies (Figure 2).

The phylogenetic analysis demonstrated that *N. tabacum* NND clustered together with its ancestral parent homologs: NsylCYP82E2 and NtabCYP82E2; NtomCYP82E3 and NtabCYP82E3; NtomCYP82E4 and NtabCYP82E4; NtomCYP82E5 and NtabCYP82E5; NsylCYP82E10 and NtabCYP82E10; NtomCYP82E21 and NtabCYP82E21 (Figure 2).

In addition, 23 uncharacterized genes also clustered in the NND group. Then, through the *in silico* analysis of the new putative *CYP82E* genes, we have identified 08 candidate genes with the highest potential of being NND: 03 from *N. sylvestris*, 03 from *N. tabacum* and 02 from *N. tomentosiformis* (Table 1).





**Figure 2:** Phylogenetic analysis of Cytochrome P450 (CYP) genes, with emphasis to CYP82E subfamily (yellow). The Bayesian phylogenetic analysis was reconstructed following protein sequence alignments using a Bayesian approach by employing Beast software. The numbers in the branches of the tree indicate the posterior probability values. The acronym of CYP proteins were named using the first letter of the genus followed by the first three letters of the species: Amaj (*Ammi majus*); Atha (*Arabidopsis thaliana*); Ecal (*Eschscholzia californica*); Ghir (*Gossypium hirsutum*); Gmax (*Glycine max*); Mpip (*Mentha x piperita*); Nala (*Nicotiana alata*); Nben (*N. benthamiana*); Nlan (*N. langsdorffii*); Nsyl (*N. sylvestris*); Ntab (*N. tabacum*); Ntom (*N. tomentosiformis*); Obas (*Ocimum basilicum*); Psat (*Pisum sativum*); Ptri (*Populus trichocarpa*); Psom (*Papaver somniferum*); Slyc (*Solanum lycopersicum*), Stub (*S. tuberosum*).



## DISCUSSION

### ***In silico* analysis of CYP82E proteins**

Sequence alignment of P450s isolated from different organisms, from bacteria to plant and animals, showed strong conservation in some amino acid residues positions, although the most important one is the catalytic center formed by a heme group with iron coordinated to the thiolate of a conserved cysteine (Gavilano and Siminszky, 2007; Bak *et al.*, 2011).

The main motifs of the CYP superfamily were found in the sequences we have identified. The triad E-R-R was described as involved in locking the heme pocket into position and to assure stabilization of the conserved core structure (Bak *et al.*, 2011). F-xx-G-xb-xx-C-x-G motif facilitates the binding of heme iron to CYP enzyme. It is formed by a hydrophobic aromatic residue phenylalanine (F), an invariant hydrophobic cysteine (C) and small amino acid glycine (G). 'x' represents any residue and 'xb' refers a basic amino acid. This consensus sequence tend to differ among CYP subfamilies, although cysteine is always present (Paquette *et al.*, 2000).

It was previously demonstrated that *N. tabacum* CYP82E3 does not present NND activity because of an amino acid substitution at the position 330 (W330C) (Figure 1a). The comparison of CYP sequences from several organisms showed there is a strong conservation of aromatic amino acids (phenylalanine, tryptophan, tyrosine) in this position (Gavilano *et al.*, 2007). Other residue essential to CYP enzymatic function is the glutamate residue in the position 375 (the first amino acid of the conserved motif ExxR) (Figure 1.1). This motif, localized in K helix of most CYPs, was described as important to stabilize the association with heme group. In *N. tabacum* CYP82E2, the substitution E375K (Figure 1b) impairs the NND function (Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2007). Additionally, the substitution W422L of *N. tabacum* CYP82E2 (Figure 1c) was related to its inactivation (Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2007).

Post-translational modifications (PTMs) are extremely important as regulators of cellular processes, and influence activity, stability and localization of proteins (Ytterberg and Jensen, 2010).

Small ubiquitin-like modifiers (SUMOs) may regulate many biological processes, as transcriptional regulation and cellular signaling, by non-covalently interacting with proteins or covalently modifying specific lysine residues in protein substrates, which is called SUMOylation (Ytterberg and Jensen, 2010; Zhao *et al.*,

2014). The SUMO interaction was predicted for several NND enzymes tested in the residues 504-508, including five new putative CYP82E. Thus, it is possible that this interaction has a role in NND function, and additional analysis is needed to confirm that possibility.

Moreover, the addition and/or removal of lipid groups to certain amino acids have an important role in the subcellular trafficking, signaling and membrane association of proteins (Xie *et al.*, 2016). *N. tabacum* CYP82E3 presents the amino acid substitution W330C at the same position of the predicted lipid modification (S-Palmitoylation C330). It was demonstrated that the substitution of the aromatic residue tryptophan may impair the enzyme activity of CYP82E (Gavilano *et al.*, 2007). The S-Palmitoylation predicted for NtabCYP82E3 at the position C330 may also contribute for CYP82E3 non-activity, since PTM is related to alterations in the conformation of transmembrane domains (Blaskovic *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, the homolog NtomCYP82E3 is a functional NND, and no PTM was predicted for this protein.

On the other hand, *N*-Myristoylation, as found at the position G10 of NsylCYP82E10, can influence the conformational stability of proteins and their ability to interact with membranes or other proteins (Podell and Gribskov, 2004). Although this PTM was already described in CYP, its relation with NND was not reported yet (Lamb and Waterman, 2013). No lipid modification was identified for the other CYP82E.

For transmembrane domain prediction, TMHMM and Phobius were applied, but the results obtained with each software were different. When compared with other software available for this prediction, as HMMTOP, TMpred and MEMSAT, TMHMM performs best especially at distinguishing between soluble and transmembrane proteins (Möller, Croning *et al.* 2001). However, it was showed that errors from cross prediction between transmembrane segments and signal peptides were reduced by Phobius in comparison to TMHMM and SignalP (Käll, Krogh *et al.* 2004, Käll, Krogh *et al.* 2007). Thus, the results of *in silico* predictions must be interpreted with care and, when possible, compared with *in vivo* analysis.

Regarding subcellular location, most of eukaryotic CYPs and all plant CYPs described so far are associated with microsomal membranes (Werck-Reichhart and Feyereisen, 2000; Bak *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, it was described that plant CYPs are usually anchored on the cytoplasmic surface of the ER, and it was already suggested

that NND P450 enzymes are ER localized (Lewis *et al.*, 2010; Bak *et al.*, 2011). Our analysis indicated the ER direction of CYP82E, and we also observed that the sequences we analyzed present a cluster of prolines after the hydrophobic amino-terminal segment. According to Werck-Reichhart *et al.* (Werck-Reichhart and Feyereisen, 2000), this is a common feature in CYPs associated with microsomal membranes (Supplementary Figure 2). Indeed, recently it was proved that NtomCYP82E4 and NtabCYP82E5 are located in the ER, corroborating with our predictions (Rajabi *et al.*, 2017).

Our data, together with CYP literature, indicates that CYP82E1, E2, E3, E4, E5, E8 and E21 are probably attached to the ER membrane, while CYP82E10 is probably a cytosolic protein not anchored to any membrane (Supplementary Figure2).

### **Phylogenetic analysis of the CYP82E family**

Cytochrome P450 superfamily originated early in the evolution of life, before the emergence of the eukaryotes (Sezutsu *et al.*, 2013). CYPs are classified into clans, families and subfamilies. Each clan represents a group of proteins derived from a single ancestor, and families and subfamilies are grouped according to sequence similarity (Nelson and Werck-Reichhart, 2011).

There are 11 land plant clans, divided in single-family clans (CYP51, CYP74, CYP97, CYP710, CYP711, CYP727, CYP746) and multi-family clans (CYP71, CYP72, CYP85, CYP86). The evolution and diversification of the clans with multiple families was concomitant to the evolution of land plants and it is considered a key event for the adaptation in a total new environment (Nelson and Werck-Reichhart, 2011).

It was suggested that the CYP71 is one of the most ancient plant CYP clans, as it is also the largest clan in moss (Nelson, 2006). CYP71 clan represents by itself more than 50% of all plant CYPs, with a great diversity of functions (Hamberger and Bak, 2013). In the most ancient branches of this clan we can found CYPs involved in the hormone and biopolymers (lignin, cutin) biosynthesis (Nelson and Werck-Reichhart, 2011).

The subfamily CYP82E belongs to the CYP71 clan. The CYP82 family probably arose in dicots after their split from monocots (Nelson *et al.*, 2008). The CYP82 family is evolutionary very close to the CYP81 family, which is found in both monocots and

dicots. Thus, it was proposed that CYP81 and CYP82 ancestor split into one family that lies only in dicots and other family that lies in both (Nelson *et al.*, 2004).

All genes already known as belonging to the CYP82 family clustered in the phylogenetic analysis. Moreover, we found uncharacterized genes of *N. benthamiana*, *N. sylvestris*, *N. tabacum* and *N. tomentosiformis* in the same group. Inside the CYP82 group, we can clearly separate the CYP82E genes, being 23 yet uncharacterized genes. After the *in silico* analysis, the strongest candidate NND genes were identified and are highlighted in Figure 2.

The NND already described for *N. tabacum* clustered together with its ancestral parent homologs. In fact, it was suggested that CYP82E3, CYP82E4, CYP82E5 and CYP82E21 were inherited from the *N. tomentosiformis* ancestral parent, as they were not found in *N. sylvestris* genome (Gavilano *et al.*, 2007; Liedschulte *et al.*, 2016). In *N. tomentosiformis*, both CYP82E3 and CYP82E4 act in the conversion of nicotine to nornicotine in the green leaves, being CYP82E3 the main NND of this species, and CYP82E4 having a secondary role in the conversion process (Gavilano *et al.*, 2007). However, in the senescing leaves of *N. tomentosiformis* and *N. tabacum*, CYP82E4 expression is strongly upregulated, playing a dominant role in nornicotine production (Siminszky *et al.*, 2005; Gavilano and Siminszky, 2007; Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2008) (Table 2).

On the other hand, CYP82E5 is expressed in green leaves of *N. tomentosiformis* and *N. tabacum* (Table 2). CYP82E5 is the main contributor to nornicotine production in the green leaves of *N. tabacum*, while in *N. tomentosiformis* has a discrete role in the conversion process (Gavilano and Siminszky, 2007). It was also demonstrated that CYP82E5 is expressed in tobacco roots (Cai *et al.*, 2013). Otherwise, CYP82E21 was recently described as a functional NND expressed in *N. tabacum* ovary, but not in the leaves (Liedschulte *et al.*, 2016) (Table 2). The role of CYP82E21 in *N. tomentosiformis* was not reported yet.

*N. tabacum* CYP82E2 and CYP82E10 were inherited from the *N. sylvestris* ancestral parent (Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2007; Lewis *et al.*, 2010). It was showed that CYP82E2 presents high NND activity and is expressed in the senescing leaves of *N. sylvestris* (Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2007) (Table 2). CYP82E10 was identified in *N. tabacum* root-specific cDNA libraries, and it was thought to be preferentially expressed in root tissue (Lewis *et al.*, 2010). However, Cai *et al.* (Cai *et al.*, 2013) showed its expression also in the green leaves.

**Table 2:** Expression of *CYP82E* in *Nicotiana alata*, *N. langsdorffii*, *N. sylvestris*, *N. tabacum* and *N. tomentosiformis*.

Gene	Species	Expression Conditions	Mutation	Reference
<b>CYP82E1</b>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Induced by pathogen		(Takemoto, Hayashi et al. 1999)
	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Elicitor-induced		(Ralston, Kwon et al. 2001)
<b>CYP82E2</b>	<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Senescing leaves		(Gavilano, Coleman et al. 2007)
	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Impaired by deleterious amino acid substitutions	E375K/W422L	(Chakrabarti, Meekins et al. 2007)
	<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Not found		(Gavilano, Coleman et al. 2007)
<b>CYP82E3</b>	<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Not found		(Gavilano, Coleman et al. 2007)
	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Impaired by deleterious amino acid substitutions	W330C	(Chakrabarti, Meekins et al. 2007)
	<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Green leaves		(Gavilano, Coleman et al. 2007)
<b>CYP82E4</b>	<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Not found		(Chakrabarti, Bowen et al. 2008)
	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Senescing leaves/ ethylene induced		(Chakrabarti, Bowen et al. 2008)
	<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Green leaves/ senescence induced		(Gavilano, Coleman et al. 2007)
<b>CYP82E5</b>	<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Not found		(Gavilano and Siminszky 2007)
	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Green leaves		(Gavilano and Siminszky 2007)
	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Constitutive expression (leaves/roots)		(Cai, Jack et al. 2013)
	<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Green leaves		(Gavilano and Siminszky 2007)
<b>CYP82E8</b>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	No available data		-
<b>CYP82E10</b>	<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Donor to <i>N. tabacum</i> <i>CYP82E10</i>		(Lewis, Bowen et al. 2010)
	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Identified from root-specific cDNA libraries		(Lewis, Bowen et al. 2010)
	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Constitutive expression (leaves/roots)		(Cai, Jack et al. 2013)
	<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Not found		(Lewis, Bowen et al. 2010)
<b>CYP82E15</b>	<i>N. alata</i>	Leaves and roots		(Pakdeechanuan, Shoji et al. 2012)
<b>CYP82E16</b>	<i>N. alata</i>	Leaves and roots		(Pakdeechanuan, Shoji et al. 2012)
<b>CYP82E17</b>	<i>N. alata</i>	Leaves and roots		(Pakdeechanuan, Shoji et al. 2012)
<b>CYP82E18</b>	<i>N. alata</i>	Leaves and roots		(Pakdeechanuan, Shoji et al. 2012)
<b>CYP82E19</b>	<i>N. langsdorffii</i>	Impaired by transcriptional inactivation		(Pakdeechanuan, Teoh et al. 2012)
<b>CYP82E20</b>	<i>N. langsdorffii</i>	Impaired by premature stop-codon		(Pakdeechanuan, Teoh et al. 2012)
<b>CYP82E21</b>	<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Not found		(Liedschulte, Schwaar et al. 2016)
	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Flower ovary		(Liedschulte, Schwaar et al. 2016)
	<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Donor to <i>N. tabacum</i> <i>CYP82E21</i>		(Liedschulte, Schwaar et al. 2016)

In *N. tabacum*, *CYP82E2* and *CYP82E3* were impaired by deleterious mutations (Siminszky *et al.*, 2005; Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2007; Gavilano *et al.*, 2007) (Table 2). Thus, commercial tobacco presents four functional NND genes identified so far (Lewis *et al.*, 2010). *CYP82E4* is the main enzyme responsible for nicotine N-demethylation in tobacco leaves (Siminszky *et al.*, 2005; Xu *et al.*, 2007). Studies have pointed to a scenario where *CYP82E4* is expressed in very low levels in green healthy leaves and roots, and its expression is strongly induced during senescence, as well as by ethylene (Siminszky *et al.*, 2005; Gavilano *et al.*, 2006; Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2008; Cai *et al.*, 2013) (Table 2).

The role of *N. tabacum* *CYP82E1* and *E8* in the conversion process has not yet been evaluated. *CYP82E1* may be involved in disease resistance in tobacco (Takemoto *et al.*, 1999), and it was also recovered from elicitor-treated cells (Ralston *et al.*, 2001) (Table 2). *NtabCYP82E8* was named, but its function was not described so far.

Except for *N. tomentosiformis* and *N. sylvestris*, it is rare to find any information about *CYP82E* genes and the conversion process in wild species of *Nicotiana*. Some years ago, the role of *CYP82E* genes from *N. alata* and *N. langsdorffii* was described (Pakdeechanuan, Shoji, *et al.*, 2012; Pakdeechanuan, Teoh, *et al.*, 2012). It was demonstrated that the two *CYP82E* genes of *N. langsdorffii* do not present NND activity: one has a premature stop codon (for this reason was excluded from our analysis), and the other (*NlanCYP82E19*) is impaired by transcriptional inactivation, resulting in the absence of nornicotine in this species (Pakdeechanuan, Teoh, *et al.*, 2012). On the other hand, *N. alata* harbors four NND genes encoding functional enzymes. However, the alkaloid levels in its leaves are very low or even non-detectable (Saitoh *et al.*, 1985; Pakdeechanuan, Teoh, *et al.*, 2012). To explain that, it was demonstrated that this species produces alkaloids in the roots (including nicotine and nornicotine), but the alkaloid translocation to the leaves is not efficient (Saitoh *et al.*, 1985; Pakdeechanuan, Shoji, *et al.*, 2012).

Highlighting the importance of the theme, it is noted the increasing interest in the *CYP82E* genes and the conversion process. In a recent study, Moghbel *et al.* (Moghbel, 2016) identified *CYP82E* related genes in 24 wild species and subspecies of *Nicotiana* in Australia. Moreover, they revealed that nornicotine is the main alkaloid in 9 of the studied taxa: *Nicotiana cavicola*, *Nicotiana goodspeedii*, *Nicotiana megalosiphon* subsp. *megalosiphon*, *Nicotiana megalosiphon* subsp. *sessifolia*,

*Nicotiana monoschizocarpa*, *Nicotiana occidentalis* subsp. *occidentalis*, *Nicotiana simulans*, *Nicotiana suaveolens* and *Nicotiana velutina* (Moghbel, 2016). Similarly, it has long been known that the main alkaloid of *Nicotiana plumbaginifolia* is also nornicotine, which implies that this wild species must have at least one functional NND as well (Manceau *et al.*, 1989).

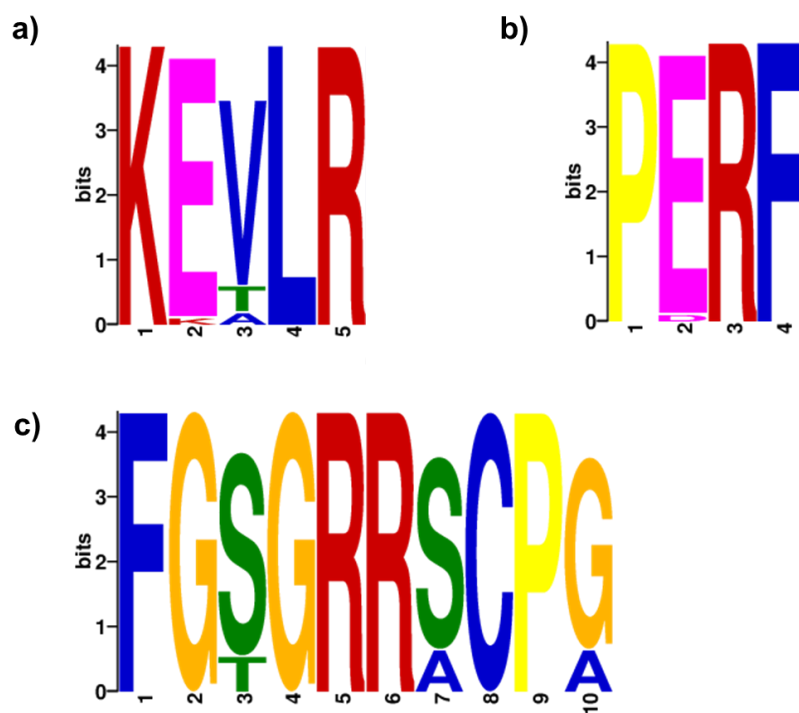
Here we present the first phylogenetic and *in silico* analysis of the CYP82E subfamily in tobacco and wild *Nicotiana* species. The phylogeny demonstrated that putative CYP82E genes form an independent cluster from other CYP families and CYP82 subfamilies. We have identified a total of 23 uncharacterized putative CYP82E genes in *Nicotiana*, 2 for *N. benthamiana*, 7 for *N. sylvestris*, 10 for *N. tabacum* and 4 for *N. tomentosiformis*.

Additionally, we should consider that as the leaf is the main product of tobacco, the studies on NND activity have focused on leaves. However, different tobacco tissues may have been underestimated with respect to their contribution to the conversion process. CYP82E21 was recently described as a new NND gene for *N. tabacum*, with expression restricted to ovaries (Liedschulte *et al.*, 2016). In this scenario, the identification of all potential NND could contribute to clarify the conversion process in *Nicotiana* species.

*In silico* characterization is a valuable tool as a first step in the identification of new genes, allowing to discard weak candidates before going through the *in vivo* analysis. Most of the new CYP82E genes here identified present the amino acid residues of important positions conserved, and may encode functional CYP enzymes. Therefore, further studies are needed to reveal the role of the newly identified genes in the nicotine conversion process, as well as to well-characterize the already known CYP82E genes.

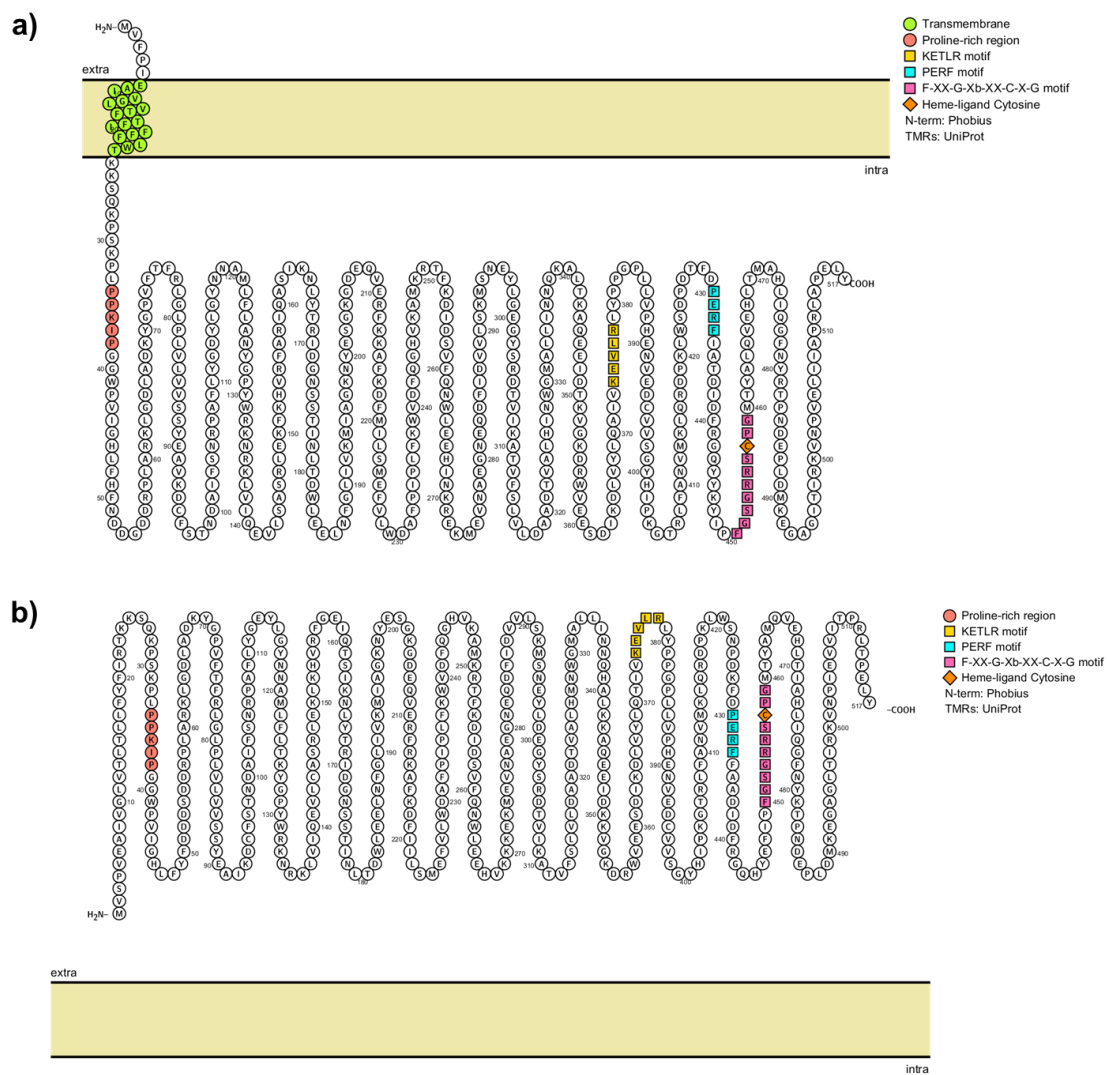
## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

We thank Paolo Donini for his review of this manuscript and helpful comments.



**Supplementary Figure 1:** Consensus sequence analysis of *Nicotiana* CYP82E gene subfamily. The height of each letter is proportional to the corresponding relative frequency. The amino acids are colored according to their chemical properties: blue for most hydrophobic residues (A, C, F, I, L, V, M, W); green for polar, noncharged, nonaliphatic residues (N, Q, S, T); red for positively charged residues (K and R); orange for glycine (G); rose for histidine (H); yellow for proline (P); magenta for acidic residues (D, E) and turquoise for tyrosine (Y). **a)** ExxR; **b)** PERF; **c)** F-xx-G-xb-xx-C-x-G.





**Supplementary Figure 2:** Representation of *N. tabacum* CYP82E4 (a) and CYP82E10 (b) proteins using Protter software. Transmembrane region, proline-rich region, and CYP's consensus sequences are highlighted with different colors. The Protter software uses the predictions of Phobius to load the images.

**Supplementary Table 1:** *Nicotiana* species organized in Sections according to Knapp et al. (2004).

Section	Species (with authorities)
<i>Alatae</i>	<i>Nicotiana alata</i> Link and Otto
	<i>Nicotiana azambujae</i> L.B. Smith and Downs*
	<i>Nicotiana bonariensis</i> Lehm.
	<i>Nicotiana forgetiana</i> Hemsl.
	<i>Nicotiana langsdorffii</i> Weinm.
	<i>Nicotiana longiflora</i> Cav.
	<i>Nicotiana mutabilis</i> Stehmann and Samir
<i>Nicotiana plumbaginifolia</i> L.	
<i>Nicotiana</i>	<i>Nicotiana tabacum</i> L.
<i>Noctiflorae</i>	<i>Nicotiana acaulis</i> Speg.
	<i>Nicotiana ameghinoi</i> Speg.*
	<i>Nicotiana glauca</i> Graham
	<i>Nicotiana noctiflora</i> Hook
	<i>Nicotiana petunioides</i> (Griseb.) Millán
<i>Nicotiana paa</i> Mart. Crov.*	
<i>Paniculatae</i>	<i>Nicotiana benavidesii</i> Goodsp.
	<i>Nicotiana cordifolia</i> Phil.
	<i>Nicotiana cutleri</i> D Arcy
	<i>Nicotiana knightiana</i> Goodsp.
	<i>Nicotiana paniculata</i> L.
	<i>Nicotiana raimondii</i> J.F. Macbr.
<i>Nicotiana solanifolia</i> Walp.	
<i>Petunioides</i>	<i>Nicotiana attenuata</i> Torrey ex S. Watson
	<i>Nicotiana acuminata</i> (Graham) Hook.
	<i>Nicotiana corymbosa</i> J. Rémy
	<i>Nicotiana linearis</i> Phil
	<i>Nicotiana longibracteata</i> Phil.*
	<i>Nicotiana miersii</i> J. Rémy
	<i>Nicotiana pauciflora</i> J. Rémy
<i>Nicotiana spegazzinii</i> Millán	
<i>Polydicliae</i>	<i>Nicotiana clevelandii</i> A. Gray
	<i>Nicotiana quadrivalvis</i> Pursh
<i>Repandae</i>	<i>Nicotiana nudicaulis</i> S. Watson
	<i>Nicotiana nesophila</i> I.M. Johnston
	<i>Nicotiana repanda</i> Willd.
	<i>Nicotiana stocktonii</i> Brandegee
<i>Rusticae</i>	<i>Nicotiana rustica</i> L.
<i>Suaveolentes</i>	<i>Nicotiana africana</i> Merxm.
	<i>Nicotiana amplexicaulis</i> N.T.Burb.
	<i>Nicotiana benthamiana</i> Domin
	<i>Nicotiana burbidgeae</i> Symon*
	<i>Nicotiana cavicola</i> N.T.Burb.
<i>Nicotiana debneyi</i> Domin	

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	<i>Nicotiana excelsior</i> (J.M.Black) J.M.Black
	<i>Nicotiana exigua</i> H.-M.Wheeler
	<i>Nicotiana fragrans</i> Hooker
	<i>Nicotiana gossei</i> Domin
	<i>Nicotiana goodspeedii</i> H.-M.Wheeler
	<i>Nicotiana hesperis</i> N.T.Burb.
	<i>Nicotiana heterantha</i> Kenneally and Symon
	<i>Nicotiana ingulba</i> J.M.Black
	<i>Nicotiana megalosiphon</i> Van Huerck and Müll.Arg.
	<i>Nicotiana maritima</i> H.-M.Wheeler
	<i>Nicotiana occidentalis</i> H.-M.Wheeler;
	<i>Nicotiana rosulata</i> (S. Moore) Domin
	<i>Nicotiana rotundifolia</i> Lindl.
	<i>Nicotiana suaveolens</i> Lehm
	<i>Nicotiana simulans</i> N.T.Burb.
	<i>Nicotiana stenocarpa</i> H.-M.Wheeler*
	<i>Nicotiana truncata</i> D.E. Symon
	<i>Nicotiana umbratica</i> N.T.Burb.
	<i>Nicotiana velutina</i> H.-M.Wheeler
	<i>Nicotiana wuttkei</i> Clarkson and Symon*
<i>Sylvestres</i>	<i>Nicotiana sylvestris</i> Speg. and Comes
	<i>Nicotiana kawakamii</i> Y. Ohashi
	<i>Nicotiana otophora</i> Griseb.
<i>Tomentosae</i>	<i>Nicotiana setchellii</i> Goodsp.
	<i>Nicotiana tomentosiformis</i> Goodsp.
	<i>Nicotiana tomentosa</i> Ruiz and Pav.
<i>Trigonophyllae</i>	<i>Nicotiana obtusifolia</i> M. Martens and Galeotti
	<i>Nicotiana palmeri</i> A. Gray
	<i>Nicotiana arentsii</i> Goodsp.
	<i>Nicotiana glutinosa</i> L.
<i>Undulatae</i>	<i>Nicotiana thrysiflora</i> Bitter ex Goodsp.
	<i>Nicotiana undulata</i> Ruiz and Pav
	<i>Nicotiana wigandioides</i> Koch and Fintelm.

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\*Species that were not found in NCBI database.

**Supplementary Table 2:** Sequences used in the phylogenetic analysis and respective GenBank accession numbers.

<b>Specie</b>	<b>Sequence</b>	<b>Accession Number</b>
<i>N. alata</i>	NalaCYP82E15	BAM36723.1
<i>N. alata</i>	NalaCYP82E16	BAM36724.1
<i>N. alata</i>	NalaCYP82E17	BAM36725.1
<i>N. alata</i>	NalaCYP82E18	BAM36726.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben1	Niben101Scf00270g05017.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben2	Niben101Scf08430g01003.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben3	Niben101Scf01569g04006.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben4	Niben101Scf02322g03009.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben5	Niben101Scf00113g05009.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben6	Niben101Scf00219g04015.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben7	Niben101Scf02749g01008.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben8	Niben101Scf07242g07006.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben9	Niben101Scf04995g11016.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben10	Niben101Scf01035g03002.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben11	Niben101Scf02427g00009.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben12	Niben101Scf10708g00002.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben13	Niben101Scf10999g00004.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben14	Niben101Scf01065g08009.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben15	Niben101Scf00922g00009.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben16	Niben101Scf01748g02002.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben17	Niben101Scf04011g04001.1
<i>N. langsdorffii</i>	NlanCYP82E19	BAM36727.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	NsylCYP82E2	ABR57311.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	NsylCYP82E10	ADP65810.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl1	XP_009757628.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl2	XP_009778755.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl3	XP_009758062.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl4	XP_009768110.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl5	XP_009770601.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl6	XP_009792748.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl7	XP_009761500.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl8	XP_009801176.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl9	XP_009780811.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl10	XP_009795251.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl11	XP_009804510.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl12	XP_009801068.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl13	XP_009771564.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl14	XP_009771565.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl15	XP_009796225.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl16	XP_009795889.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl17	XP_009796226.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl18	XP_009796227.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl19	XP_009791128.1

<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl20	XP_009796228.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl21	XP_009782203.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl22	XP_009797406.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl23	XP_009766074.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl24	XP_009802012.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl25	XP_009773047.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl26	XP_009770873.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl27	XP_009760136.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl28	XP_009760134.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl29	XP_009769777.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl30	XP_009789828.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl31	XP_009767392.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl32	XP_009782058.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl33	XP_009757705.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl34	XP_009765717.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl35	XP_009787639.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl36	XP_009770332.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl37	XP_009770888.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl38	XP_009770013.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl39	XP_009770887.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl40	XP_009796229.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl41	XP_009770688.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl42	XP_009785012.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl43	XP_009764952.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl44	XP_009759043.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl45	XP_009788494.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl46	XP_009762893.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl47	XP_009771410.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl48	XP_009762891.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl49	XP_009763889.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl50	XP_009780649.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl51	XP_009782145.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl52	XP_009794145.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl53	XP_009780215.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl54	XP_009802554.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl55	XP_009775980.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl56	XP_009789924.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl57	XP_009766832.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl58	XP_009772507.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl59	XP_009801864.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl60	XP_009757704.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl61	XP_009771988.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl62	XP_009779413.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl63	XP_009780363.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl64	XP_009794456.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl65	XP_009774708.1

<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl66	XP_009777846.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl67	XP_009757123.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl68	XP_009785657.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl69	XP_009793679.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl70	XP_009758268.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl71	XP_009757342.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl72	XP_009803463.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl73	XP_009777857.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl74	XP_009765039.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl75	XP_009796910.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl76	XP_009794425.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl77	XP_009776868.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl78	XP_009769208.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl79	XP_009803037.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl80	XP_009788755.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl81	XP_009786696.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl82	XP_009794009.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl83	XP_009764618.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl84	XP_009780029.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl85	XP_009785656.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl86	XP_009793271.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl87	XP_009794007.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl88	XP_009757934.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl89	XP_009772938.1
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<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl92	XP_009775574.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl93	XP_009774376.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl94	XP_009794426.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl95	XP_009765480.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl96	XP_009792560.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl97	XP_009763140.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E1	AAK62347.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E2	ABA07806.2
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E3	ABA07807.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E4	ABA07805.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E5	ABX56037.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E8	ABC69420.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E10	ADP65809.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E21	XP_016500333.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab1	XP_016490207.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab2	XP_016456159.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab3	XP_016481198.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab4	XP_016487175.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab5	XP_016492039.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab6	XP_016489590.1

<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab7	XP_016446571.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab8	XP_016507136.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab9	XP_016492423.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab10	XP_016441406.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab11	XP_016505040.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab12	XP_016478189.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab13	XP_016458765.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab14	XP_016460361.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab15	XP_016507832.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab16	XP_016468278.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab17	XP_016459371.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab18	XP_016471585.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab19	XP_016483932.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab20	XP_016482953.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab21	XP_016457209.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab22	XP_016503274.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab23	XP_016452444.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab24	XP_016477062.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab25	XP_016457208.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab26	XP_016503270.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab27	XP_016503271.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab28	XP_016503272.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab29	CAA65580.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab30	XP_016506428.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab31	XP_016447078.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab32	XP_016459206.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab33	XP_016488782.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab34	XP_016450159.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab35	XP_016450066.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab36	XP_016510777.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab37	XP_016479430.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab38	XP_016463151.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab39	XP_016512891.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab40	XP_016486582.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab41	XP_016432435.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab42	XP_016479719.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab43	BAH84783.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab44	XP_016476830.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab45	XP_016506427.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab46	XP_016495342.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab47	XP_016485779.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab48	XP_016495496.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab49	XP_016463150.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab50	XP_016507825.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab51	XP_016466159.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab52	CAA64635.1

<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab53	XP_016470640.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab54	XP_016446949.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab55	XP_016497448.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	NtomCYP82E3	ABM46919.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	NtomCYP82E4	ABM46920.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	NtomCYP82E5	XP_009619218.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	NtomCYP82E21	XP_009627979.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom1	XP_009609539.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom2	XP_009609537.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom3	XP_009595933.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom4	XP_009606611.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom5	XP_009616319.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom6	XP_009599169.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom7	XP_009606708.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom8	XP_009624056.1
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<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom15	XP_009591954.1
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<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom38	XP_009624917.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom39	XP_009616607.1



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<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom67	XP_009606204.2
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom68	XP_009608635.1
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<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom86	XP_009631781.2
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<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom92	XP_009619866.1
<i>Ammi majus</i>	AmajCYP82H1	AAS90126.1
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	AthaCYP82F1	NP_180088.1
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	AthaCYP82G1	NP_189154.1
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	AthaCYP82C4	NP_194922.1
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	AthaCYP82C3	NP_194923.1
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	AthaCYP82C2	NP_194925.1
<i>Eschscholzia californica</i>	EcalCYP82B1	AAC39454.1
<i>Eschscholzia californica</i>	EcalCYP82N2	BAK20464.1
<i>Glycine max</i>	GmaxCYP82A1	CAA71515.1
<i>Glycine max</i>	GmaxCYP82A3	CAA71876.1
<i>Glycine max</i>	GmaxCYP82A4	CAA71877.1
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	GhirCYP82D1	All31758.1
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	GhirCYP82D2	All31759.1
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	GhirCYP82D3	All31760.1
<i>Mentha x piperita</i>	MpipCYP82D62	AGF30366.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP92A2	ABC69381.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP92B2	ABC69386.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP81B2	ABC69377.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP81C6	ABC69379.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82M1	ABC69372.1
<i>Ocimum basilicum</i>	ObasCYP82D33	AGF30364.1
<i>Papaver somniferum</i>	PsomCYP82X1	AFB74614.1
<i>Papaver somniferum</i>	PsomCYP82Y1	AFB74617.1
<i>Pisum sativum</i>	PsatCYP82A1	AAG09208.1
<i>Populus trichocarpa</i>	PtriCYP82L1	XP_002305292.2
<i>Populus trichocarpa</i>	PtriCYP82K1	EEF04891
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	SlycCYP85A3	BAD98244.1
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	SlycCYP82E11	XP_004236938.1
<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>	StubCYP82E11	XP_015167656.1
<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>	StubCYP82E13	XP_015165235.1
<i>Stevia rebaudiana</i>	SrebCYP82Q1	ABB20912.1

**Supplementary Table 3:** CYP82E genes in the *Nicotiana* genus.

Specie	Sequence	Reference	Accession Number
<i>N. alata</i>	NalaCYP82E15	(Pakdeechnuan, Shoji et al. 2012)	BAM36723.1
<i>N. alata</i>	NalaCYP82E16	(Pakdeechnuan, Shoji et al. 2012)	BAM36724.1
<i>N. alata</i>	NalaCYP82E17	(Pakdeechnuan, Shoji et al. 2012)	BAM36725.1
<i>N. alata</i>	NalaCYP82E18	(Pakdeechnuan, Shoji et al. 2012)	BAM36726.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben1	*	Niben101Scf00270g05017.1
<i>N. benthamiana</i>	Nben2	*	Niben101Scf08430g01003.1
<i>N. langsdorffii</i>	NlanCYP82E19	(Pakdeechnuan, Teoh et al. 2012)	BAM36727.1
<i>N. langsdorffii</i>	NlanCYP82E20 #	(Pakdeechnuan, Teoh et al. 2012)	AB709937.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	NsylCYP82E2	(Chakrabarti, Meekins et al. 2007)	ABR57311.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	NsylCYP82E10	(Lewis, Bowen et al. 2010)	ADP65810.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl1	*	XP_009757628.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl2	*	XP_009778755.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl3	*	XP_009758062.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl4	*	XP_009768110.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl5	*	XP_009770601.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl6	*	XP_009792748.1
<i>N. sylvestris</i>	Nsyl7	*	XP_009761500.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E1	(Takemoto, Hayashi et al. 1999)	AAK62347.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E2	(Siminszky, Gavilano et al. 2005)	ABA07806.2
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E3	(Siminszky, Gavilano et al. 2005)	ABA07807.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E4	(Siminszky, Gavilano et al. 2005)	ABA07805.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E5	(Gavilano and Siminszky 2007)	ABX56037.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E8	-	ABC69420.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E9 #	(Siminszky, Gavilano et al. 2005)	DQ131890
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E10	(Lewis, Bowen et al. 2010)	ADP65809.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	NtabCYP82E21	(Liedschulte, Schwaar et al. 2016)	XP_016500333.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab1	*	XP_016490207.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab2	*	XP_016456159.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab3	*	XP_016481198.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab4	*	XP_016487175.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab5	*	XP_016492039.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab6	*	XP_016489590.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab7	*	XP_016446571.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab8	*	XP_016507136.1
<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab9	*	XP_016492423.1

<i>N. tabacum</i>	Ntab10	*	XP_016441406.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	NtomCYP82E3	(Gavilano, Coleman et al. 2007)	ABM46919.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	NtomCYP82E4	(Gavilano, Coleman et al. 2007)	ABM46920.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	NtomCYP82E5	(Gavilano and Siminszky 2007)	XP_009619218.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	NtomCYP82E21	(Liedschulte, Schwaar et al. 2016)	XP_009627979.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom1	*	XP_009609539.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom2	*	XP_009609537.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom3	*	XP_009595933.1
<i>N. tomentosiformis</i>	Ntom4	*	XP_009606611.1

\* new putative *CYP82E* genes

# described as pseudogenes

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## 4 CONCLUSÕES

O tabaco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) destaca-se como uma cultura economicamente importante para o Brasil, visto que o país é o segundo maior produtor de tabaco em folha do mundo e lidera o ranking mundial como maior exportador desse produto (Sinditabaco, 2017). A nicotina é o alcaloide mais conhecido em plantas do gênero *Nicotiana*, podendo representar até 5% do peso seco da folha (Hung et al., 2013). Do ponto de vista ecológico, a nicotina é essencial na defesa das plantas contra herbívoros (Shitan et al., 2014).

No primeiro capítulo desse trabalho, foram abordadas as principais questões sobre a biossíntese, o transporte e o metabolismo da nicotina em *Nicotiana*. Através da revisão realizada, foi possível obter um panorama geral com as informações mais importantes desses processos. Ainda, foram identificados e listados os pontos que necessitam de maiores esclarecimentos: a) as reações finais da síntese de nicotina, envolvendo as enzimas A622 e BBL, e b) quais transportadores atuam na translocação de nicotina, especificamente da raiz para o xilema, e do xilema para as células das folhas.

Além da nicotina, outros alcaloides também estão presentes nas plantas desse gênero, sendo a nornicotina o segundo mais encontrado (Shi et al., 2013). A desmetilação da nicotina, reação catalisada por enzimas nicotina *N*-desmetilase (NND) dá origem à nornicotina (Lewis et al., 2010). Essa, por sua vez, pode reagir com óxidos de nitrogênio presentes nas folhas de tabaco, formando *N*-nitrosornicotina (NNN), substância cancerígena do grupo das Nitrosaminas Específicas do Tabaco (TSNA – *Tobacco Specific Nitrosamines*) (Hecht, 1998).

O primeiro passo na formação de NNN é enzimático, mas o segundo passo ocorre de maneira espontânea. Assim, o conhecimento sobre a subfamília gênica *CYP82E*, responsável pela expressão de enzimas NND no gênero *Nicotiana*, é essencial para compreender a formação de NNN, bem como para buscar a diminuição dos níveis dessa substância nos produtos de tabaco. Alguns genes da subfamília *CYP82E* já foram descritos para *N. tabacum* (Lewis et al., 2010; Liedschulte et al., 2016). Entretanto, a regulação da expressão desses genes ainda não está totalmente elucidada.

No segundo capítulo deste trabalho apresentamos a identificação de novos genes putativos da subfamília *CYP82E* em diferentes espécies do gênero *Nicotiana*.

Além disso, foi proposta uma filogenia incluindo os novos genes identificados, o que pode auxiliar no entendimento da organização subfamília *CYP82E* em *Nicotiana*. Utilizamos, ainda, ferramentas *in silico* na caracterização das sequências encontradas, e através dessa análise, observamos algumas predições em comum para a maioria das sequências, tanto as já descritas como as novas: a) a localização subcelular das proteínas no retículo endoplasmático, e b) a interação das proteínas com pequenos modificadores semelhantes à ubiquitina (*SUMOs* – *small ubiquitine-like modifiers*). Através desse estudo buscamos contribuir para a compreensão da organização da subfamília gênica *CYP82E* em *Nicotiana*. Esses dados podem auxiliar no entendimento do processo de conversão da nicotina em nornicotina, e assim, podem ser úteis no desenvolvimento de novas soluções com o objetivo de reduzir substâncias cancerígenas em produtos de tabaco, especialmente as TSNA.

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