

Cycloheximide and Actiphenol Production in *Streptomyces* sp. YIM56141 Governed by Single Biosynthetic Machinery Featuring an Acyltransferase-less Type I Polyketide Synthase

Min Yin,^{†,‡,§} Yijun Yan,^{†,§,¶} Jeremy R. Lohman,[†] Sheng-Xiong Huang,[†] Ming Ma,[†] Guang-Rong Zhao,^{||} Li-Hua Xu,[‡] Wensheng Xiang,[§] and Ben Shen^{*,†,||,⊥,¶}

[†]Department of Chemistry, [⊥]Department of Molecular Therapeutics, and [¶]Natural Products Library Initiative, The Scripps Research Institute, Jupiter, Florida 33458, United States

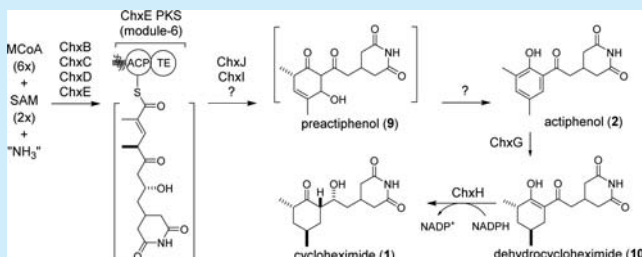
[‡]Yunnan Institute of Microbiology and School of Medicine, Yunnan University, Kunming, Yunnan 650091, China

[§]School of Life Sciences, Northeast Agricultural University, Harbin, Heilongjiang 150030, China

^{||}Division of Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of Wisconsin–Madison, Madison, Wisconsin 53705, United States

S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Cycloheximide (**1**) and actiphenol (**2**) have been isolated from numerous *Streptomyces* species. Cloning, sequencing, and characterization of a gene cluster from *Streptomyces* sp. YIM65141 now establish that **1** and **2** production is governed by single biosynthetic machinery. Biosynthesis of **1** features an acyltransferase-less type I polyketide synthase to construct its carbon backbone but may proceed via **2** as a key intermediate, invoking a provocative reduction of a phenol to a cyclohexanone moiety in natural product biosynthesis.



Cycloheximide (**1**) is one of the most well-known members of the glutarimide-containing polyketide family of natural products and has been used for decades as an inhibitor of eukaryotic translation.¹ Actiphenol (**2**), sharing the same carbon skeleton as **1** but having a phenol in place of a cyclohexanone moiety, exhibits weak translation inhibition activity.^{1c,2} Other members of this family include streptimidone (**3**), 9-methylstreptimidone (**4**), iso-migrastatin (**5**), migrastatin, and lactimidomycin (**6**) (Figure 1A). Whereas **1** inhibits translation globally, **6** inhibits preferentially translation initiation but not elongation, a property that has been exploited recently in the development of the global translation initiation sequencing (GTI-seq) technology that enables high-resolution mapping of translation initiation sites across the entire transcriptome.³ Members of this family have also been pursued as promising anti-metastatic drug leads for their potent cell migration inhibition activity and cytotoxicity.⁴

During our recent efforts toward discovering inhibitors of eukaryotic translation, we rediscovered **1** from two *Streptomyces* species, YIM56141 and YIM56132.^{1c} Interestingly, both species also produced **2**, along with other congeners. Upon delving into the literature, we found that many of the strains reported to produce **1** also produced **2**, including *Streptomyces griseus*,^{2a} *Streptomyces albulus*,^{2b,c} and *Streptomyces noursei*.^{2d} Co-production of **1** and **2** raises an interesting question if they are biosynthetically related, and if true, the biosynthetic relationship between the phenol moiety of **2** and cyclohexanone moiety of **1** are fascinating and cannot be readily

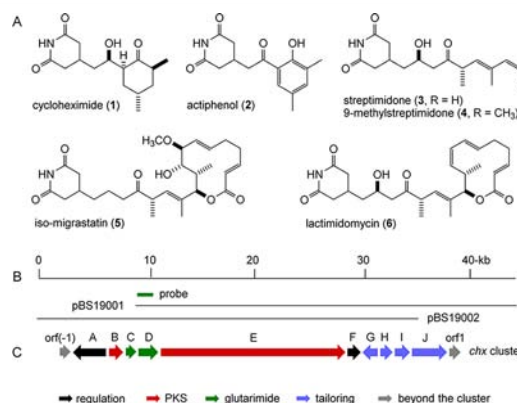


Figure 1. Cloning of the *chx* biosynthetic gene cluster from *Streptomyces* sp. YIM56141. (A) Structures of **1**, **2**, and selected glutarimide-containing polyketides (**3**–**6**). (B) Cloning of the *chx* cluster from *Streptomyces* sp. YIM56141 using a probe encoding glutarimide moiety biosynthesis as represented by two overlapping cosmids. (C) The *chx* cluster spanning ~35 kb and consisting of 10 genes with their predicted functions color-coded.

predicted a priori according to current knowledge of natural product biosynthesis.

Received: April 23, 2014

Published: May 9, 2014

Here we report the cloning, sequencing, and characterization of a gene cluster from *Streptomyces* sp. YIM56141. In vivo and in vitro studies establish that the production of **1** and **2** is governed by single biosynthetic machinery, featuring an acyltransferase (AT)-less type I polyketide synthase (PKS) to construct their carbon backbones and a provocative phenol-to-cyclohexanone reduction in **1** biosynthesis.

We first cloned the gene cluster from *Streptomyces* sp. YIM56141 taking advantage of the biosynthetic knowledge of other glutarimide-containing polyketides. Thus, using degenerate primers designed according to the conserved genes encoding biosynthesis of the glutarimide moiety in **5** and **6** (Table S1 in Supporting Information (SI)), we amplified a fragment containing the amidotransferase gene (Supporting Information and Table S2). Using this fragment as a probe, we screened the genomic library of *Streptomyces* sp. YIM56141 and identified two overlapping cosmids, pBS19001 and pBS19002, that covered the *chx* cluster (Figure 1B). DNA sequencing of the two cosmids revealed 18 open reading frames (Figure 1C), and this sequence has been deposited in GenBank with the accession number JX014302. To determine the *chx* cluster boundaries, *orf(-1)* and *orf1* were inactivated, affording mutant strains SB19001 [$\Delta orf(-1)$] and SB19002 ($\Delta orf1$), the genotypes of which were confirmed by Southern analysis (Figures S1 and S2 in SI). HPLC analysis of SB19001 and SB19002 fermentations confirmed that both strains still produced **1** and **2** (Figure 2, panels II and III), hence establishing boundaries of the *chx* cluster that spans ~35 kb and consists of 10 genes (Figure 1C).

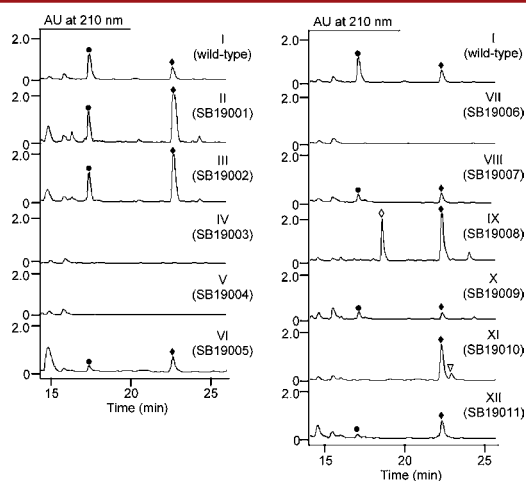


Figure 2. Inactivation of selected genes within the *chx* cluster supporting the proposed pathway for **1** and **2** biosynthesis. HPLC analysis of fermentations from *Streptomyces* sp. YIM56141 wild-type and recombinant strains: (I) wild-type, (II) SB19001 [$\Delta orf(-1)$], (III) SB19002 ($\Delta orf1$), (IV) SB19003 ($\Delta chxE$), (V) SB19004 ($\Delta chxJ$), (VI) SB19005 ($\Delta chxJ/chxJ$), (VII) SB19006 ($\Delta chxI$), (VIII) SB19007 ($\Delta chxI/chxI$), (IX) SB19008 ($\Delta chxG$), (X) SB19009 ($\Delta chxG/chxG$), (XI) SB19010 ($\Delta chxH$), and (XII) SB19011 ($\Delta chxH/chxH$). Highlighted metabolites are **1** (●), **2** (◆), **10** (▽), and **11** (◇).

Bioinformatics analysis of the 10 genes within the *chx* cluster revealed (i) two genes encoding an acyl carrier protein (ACP) (ChxC) and an amidotransferase (AMT) (ChxD) for glutarimide moiety biosynthesis, (ii) two genes encoding a discrete AT (ChxB) and a five-module AT-less type I PKS (ChxE) for biosynthesis of the glutarimide-containing polyketide backbone of both **1** and **2**, (iii) four genes encoding an

enoylreductase (ChxG), a ketoreductase (ChxH), a cytochrome P450 oxidoreductase (ChxI), and a three-domain carboxylic acid reductase (ChxJ) for converting the nascent glutarimide-containing polyketide intermediate to **1** or **2**, respectively, and (iv) two genes encoding regulator proteins (ChxA and ChxF) for pathway regulation (Figure 1C and Table S3 in SI). The genetic organization of the *chx* cluster, as well as the deduced functions thereof, shows high similarity to gene clusters known for biosynthesis of other glutarimide-containing polyketides, including **4**,⁵ **5**,⁶ and **6**,⁷ but also features several distinct features (Figure S3 in SI). While the similarities among the different pathways support the biosynthesis of a common glutarimide-containing polyketide intermediate, the variations among the tailoring enzymes account for channeling of the common intermediate into the various end products (Figure 3).

We next carried out in vivo experiments establishing the cloned *chx* gene cluster encoding the biosynthesis of both **1** and **2**. Central to the *chx* cluster is *chxE*, which encodes a five-module AT-less type I PKS that is highly homologous to the AT-less type I PKSs for **4**,⁵ **5**,⁶ and **6**,⁷ biosynthesis. ChxE and SmdI share an identical architecture with the exception of SmdI lacking the C-terminal thioesterase (TE) domain. ChxE and SmdI appear to be the result of a fusion between MgsE/LtmE module-3 and MgsF/LtmF module-4, which terminates after MgsF/LtmF module-6 with the TE domain from MgsG/LtmG (Figure S3 in SI). With the clear homology among ChxE, SmdI, MgsEFG, and LtmEFG (Table S3 in SI), we propose that they produce a common intermediate at module-6 (Figures 3 and Figure S3 in SI). Thus, in a biosynthetic analogy to **4**, **5**, and **6**, ChxC, ChxD, and ChxE consist of a six-module AT-less type I PKS, with ChxB loading the extender unit of malonyl-CoA to each of the six modules in trans, to biosynthesize the nascent glutarimide-containing polyketide intermediate (**7**) from six molecules of malonyl-CoA, two molecules of *S*-adenosylmethionine (SAM) (for the two CH₃ groups at C-11 and C-13), and an amino acid (as a donor for the “NH” group in the glutarimide moiety). The fact that there is only one methyltransferase (MT) domain in ChxE module-6 would suggest that this MT most likely acts twice to introduce the CH₃ groups at both C-11 and C-13 of **1** and **2** (Figure 3). While the latter prediction deviates from the collinear model for type I PKS, the identical domain and module architecture among the ChxE, SmdI, MgsF, and LtmF AT-less type I PKSs would suggest a similar biosynthetic logic for the installation of the analogous two CH₃ groups in **4**, **5**, and **6** (Figure S3 in SI).

The *chxE* gene was subsequently inactivated (SI), and the genotype (i.e., $\Delta chxE$) of the resultant mutant strain SB19003 was confirmed by Southern analysis (Figure S4 and Table S2 in SI). HPLC analysis of SB19003 fermentation showed the abolishment of production of both **1** and **2** (Figure 2, panel IV), confirming the essential role ChxE plays in **1** and **2** biosynthesis and establishing **1** and **2** production is governed by single biosynthetic machinery (Figure 3).

ChxJ consists of three domains, an acyl-CoA ligase (AL), an ACP, and a reductase (R) that specifically reduces a carboxylic acid to an aldehyde via the intermediacy of an acyl-S-ACP and shares 59% identity with CAR from *Nocardia iowensis*, which reduces several carboxylic acids to their corresponding aldehydes (Table S3 in SI).⁸ Inspired by the chemistry of CAR, we propose that ChxJ catalyzes the reduction of the carboxylic acid group in **7** to afford the aldehyde intermediate (**8**). Thus, the AL domain of ChxJ activates **7** and loads it to the ACP domain, and the resultant acyl-S-ACP intermediate is

of a benzene ring has been difficult in both laboratories and biological systems due to its high resonance energy. Although members of the OYE family have been implicated in the reduction of trinitrotoluene,⁹ structural characterization of the partially reduced cyclic products remains elusive to date. ChxG, which shows high sequence homology to known members of OYE family (Figure S10 in SI), therefore could serve as an excellent model to study how flavoproteins modulate redox potential to catalyze the reduction of a benzene ring.

Finally, we overexpressed *chxH* in *E. coli* (SI and Table S2) and purified ChxH to near homogeneity (Figure S11 in SI). ChxH catalyzed efficient reduction of **10** to **1**, requiring NADPH or NADH (Figure S12A in SI) and exhibiting an optimal pH at 7.2 in 100 mM sodium phosphate (Figure S12B in SI), and showed no activity toward **11** as an alternative substrate. Pseudo-first-order kinetic studies under steady state conditions (SI) showed that plots of initial velocity versus the concentration of substrates or cofactors all displayed Michaelis–Menten kinetics, allowing the determination of the corresponding K_M 's, and k_{cat} 's (Figure S13 in SI). Thus, as summarized in Table S5 in SI, ChxH exhibited apparent K_M 's for **10** at $44 \pm 4 \mu\text{M}$ and $139 \pm 23 \mu\text{M}$ upon saturation of NADPH and NADH, apparent K_M 's for NADPH and NADH at $34 \pm 4 \mu\text{M}$ and $75 \pm 8 \mu\text{M}$ upon saturation of **10**, and apparent k_{cat} 's at $599 \pm 69 \text{ min}^{-1}$ and $20 \pm 3 \text{ min}^{-1}$ with NADPH and NADH, respectively. ChxH was also competent to catalyze the reverse reaction from **1** to **10**, exhibiting apparent K_M 's for **1** at $99 \pm 7 \mu\text{M}$ and $162 \pm 32 \mu\text{M}$ upon saturation of NADP⁺ and NAD⁺, apparent K_M 's for NADP⁺ and NAD⁺ at $76 \pm 5 \mu\text{M}$ and $233 \pm 37 \mu\text{M}$ upon saturation of **1**, and apparent k_{cat} 's at $387 \pm 23 \text{ min}^{-1}$ and $13 \pm 3 \text{ min}^{-1}$ with NADP⁺ and NAD⁺, respectively. ChxH therefore prefers NADPH ($K_M = 34 \pm 4 \mu\text{M}$) to NADH ($K_M = 75 \pm 8 \mu\text{M}$) and **10**-to-**1** ($K_M = 44 \pm 4 \mu\text{M}$ and $k_{cat}/K_M = 14 \mu\text{M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$) to **1**-to-**10** conversion ($K_M = 76 \pm 5$ and $k_{cat}/K_M = 5.1 \mu\text{M}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$). These findings provided direct evidence, further supporting the intermediacy of **2** in **1** biosynthesis with ChxG and ChxH catalyzing the last two steps of the pathway (Figure 3).

In summary, in vivo and in vitro characterizations of the *chx* gene cluster have now revealed that **1** and **2** biosynthesis is governed by single biosynthetic machinery, which explains why **1**, **2**, and congeners are often isolated together.^{1,2} The glutarimide-containing polyketide backbone of **1** is assembled similarly to that of other members of this family of natural products such as **4**, **5**, and **6**, featuring an AT-less type I PKS.^{5–7} Comparative studies among these machineries provide an outstanding opportunity to study glutarimide biosynthesis and many of the common features unique to AT-less type I PKSs.¹¹ Our findings also support that ChxG and ChxH are necessary and sufficient to catalyze the conversion of **2** to **1** as the last two steps for **1** biosynthesis, invoking a provocative phenol-to-cyclohexanone reduction that to our knowledge is unprecedented in natural product biosynthesis.⁹

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Complete description of materials and methods, supporting tables (S1–S5), and supporting figures (S1–S13). This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail: shenb@scripps.edu.

Author Contributions

#These authors contributed equally to this work.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank the John Innes Center, Norwich, U.K., for providing the λ -Red-mediated PCR-targeting mutagenesis kit. This work was supported in part by NIH grant CA106150 and the Natural Products Library Initiatives at TSRI. M.Y. and Y.Y. were supported in part by scholarships from the China Scholarship Council.

■ REFERENCES

- (1) (a) Leach, B. E.; Ford, J. H.; Whiffen, A. J. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1947**, *69*, 474. (b) Kornfeld, E.; Jones, R. G.; Parke, T. V. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1949**, *71*, 150–158. (c) Huang, S.-X.; Yu, Z.; Robert, F.; Zhao, L.-X.; Jiang, Y.; Duan, Y.; Pelletier, J.; Shen, B. *J. Antibiot.* **2011**, *64*, 163–166.
- (2) (a) Highet, R. J.; Prelog, V. *Helv. Chim. Acta* **1959**, *42*, 1523–1526. (b) Rao, K. V.; Cullen, W. P. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1960**, *82*, 1127–1128. (c) Rao, K. J. *Org. Chem.* **1960**, *25*, 661–662. (d) Vondracek, M.; Vanek, Z. *Chem. Ind.* **1964**, 1686–1687.
- (3) (a) Obrigg, T. G.; Culp, W. J.; McKeehan, W. L.; Hardesty, B. J. *Biol. Chem.* **1971**, *246*, 174–181. (b) Schneider-Poetsch, T.; Ju, J.; Eyler, D. E.; Dang, Y.; Bhat, S.; Merrick, W. C.; Green, R.; Shen, B.; Liu, J. O. *Nat. Chem. Biol.* **2010**, *6*, 209–217. (c) Lee, S.; Liu, B.; Lee, S.; Huang, S.-X.; Shen, B.; Qian, S.-B. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **2012**, *109*, E2424–2432. (d) Stern-Ginossar, N.; Weisburd, B.; Michalski, A.; Vu, T. K. L.; Hein, M. Y.; Huang, S.-X.; Ma, M.; Shen, B.; Qian, S. B.; Hengel, H.; Mann, M.; Ingolia, N. T.; Weissman, J. S. *Science* **2012**, *338*, 1088–1093.
- (4) (a) Shan, D.; Chen, L.; Njardarson, J. T.; Gaul, C.; Ma, X.; Danishefsky, S. J.; Huang, X.-Y. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **2005**, *102*, 3772–3776. (b) Ju, J.; Rajski, S. R.; Lim, S.-K.; Seo, J.-W.; Peters, N. R.; Hoffmann, F. M.; Shen, B. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2009**, *131*, 1370–1371. (c) Chen, L.; Yang, S.; Jakoncic, J.; Zhang, J.; Huang, X.-Y. *Nature* **2010**, *464*, 1062–1066. (d) Rajski, S. R.; Shen, B. *ChemBioChem* **2010**, *11*, 1951–1954.
- (5) Wang, B.; Song, Y.; Luo, M.; Chen, Q.; Ma, J.; Huang, H.; Ju, J. *Org. Lett.* **2013**, *15*, 1278–1281.
- (6) Lim, S.-K.; Ju, J.; Zazopoulos, E.; Jiang, H.; Seo, J.-W.; Chen, Y.; Feng, Z.; Rajski, S. R.; Farnet, C. M.; Shen, B. *J. Biol. Chem.* **2009**, *284*, 29746–29756.
- (7) The lactimidomycin biosynthetic gene cluster can be accessed at GenBank under accession number GQ274954.
- (8) (a) He, A.; Li, T.; Daniels, L.; Fotheringham, I.; Rosazza, J. P. N. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **2004**, *70*, 1874–1881. (b) Venkatasubramanian, P.; Daniels, L.; Rosazza, J. P. N. *J. Biol. Chem.* **2007**, *282*, 478–485.
- (9) (a) Williams, R. E.; Bruce, N. C. *Microbiology* **2002**, *148*, 1607–1614. (b) Toogood, H. S.; Gardiner, J. M.; Scrutton, N. S. *ChemCatChem* **2010**, *2*, 892–914.
- (10) (a) Kavanagh, K. L.; Jörnval, H.; Persson, B.; Oppermann, U. *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.* **2008**, *65*, 3895–3906. (b) Kallberg, Y.; Oppermann, U.; Persson, B. *FEBS J.* **2010**, *277*, 2375–2386.
- (11) (a) Cheng, Y.-Q.; Tang, G.-L.; Shen, B. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **2003**, *100*, 3149–3154. (b) Cheng, Y.-Q.; Coughlin, J. M.; Lim, S.-K.; Shen, B. *Methods Enzymol.* **2009**, *459*, 165–186. (c) Piel, J. *Nat. Prod. Rep.* **2010**, *27*, 996–1047. (d) Musiol, E. M.; Weber, T. *MedChemComm* **2012**, *3*, 871–889.