

Markerless Mutations in the Myxothiazol Biosynthetic Gene Cluster: A Delicate Megasyntetase with a Superfluous Nonribosomal Peptide Synthetase Domain

Stefan Weinig,^{1,2} Taifo Mahmud,³
and Rolf Müller^{1,2,*}

¹Gesellschaft für Biotechnologische Forschung
mbH (GBF)

Mascheroder Weg 1
38124 Braunschweig

²Institut für Pharmazeutische Biologie
Mendelssohnstr. 1

Technische Universität
38106 Braunschweig
Germany

³University of Washington
Department of Chemistry
Seattle, Washington 98195

Summary

Myxobacteria are efficient producers of natural products with various biological activities. Nevertheless, genetic systems for markerless mutagenesis are only available for *Myxococcus xanthus* DK1622, a strain that is not known to produce any secondary metabolites. We report here the development of such a technique for *Stigmatella aurantiaca* DW4/3-1, a multiproducer of natural products. The system is used to further characterize the combined polyketide synthase/peptide synthetase system responsible for myxothiazol biosynthesis. Analysis of a series of point mutations and in-frame deletions shows that the myxothiazol megasyntetase is a rather specialized and delicate system that is hardly capable of processing unnatural intermediates. An in-frame deletion of the *MtaC* oxidation domain results in the production of unchanged bis-thiazole myxothiazol instead of the expected thiazoline-thiazole derivative of the compound. This shows that this domain within a nonribosomal peptide synthetase is not necessary for product formation.

Introduction

Natural products from microorganisms are a major source of bioactive compounds used by the pharmaceutical and the agrochemical industry [1]. Many of these secondary metabolites are formed by large, multifunctional, and modular enzyme complexes termed polyketide synthases (PKS) and nonribosomal peptide synthetases (NRPS). These megasyntetases assemble and modify activated short chain carboxylic acids or amino acids, which results in the production of low molecular weight polyketides or peptides [2–4]. This stepwise biochemical process can be correlated to the modular structure of the proteins involved (see accompanying manuscript [47]). Thus, mutagenesis of the corresponding genes aimed at the production of changed or novel

structures with improved activities has become a major goal of research related to microbial natural product biosynthesis [5, 6].

As an alternative to the widely used streptomycetes as producing organisms, myxobacteria are a rich source of novel basic structures [7], especially where PKS and NRPS assembly lines are combined [8–14]. Myxothiazol [15, 16] and melithiazol [17, 18] are two effective electron transport inhibitors of the respiratory chain produced by *Stigmatella aurantiaca* DW4/3-1 and *Melittangium lichenicola* Me l46 employing hybrid PKS/NRPS systems (see accompanying manuscript [47] and Figure 1).

Due to the progress in our understanding of the genetics and biochemistry of PKS and NRPS systems, it has become possible to rationally alter chemical structures in a well-defined biosynthetic system, e.g., manipulating the genes encoding the erythromycin PKS [19–23]. Only a few examples of rational design of NRPS are available [24], and many groups have reported (mainly in oral communications) severe difficulties trying to design a variety of biosynthetic systems. This difficulty is mostly attributed to the lack of structural information on the communication between PKS and NRPS modules. Despite the fact that examples of most major domains of the megasyntetases have recently been crystallized [20, 25], there is no information on the structure of a complete PKS and/or NRPS assembly line.

The myxothiazol and melithiazol hybrid PKS/NRPS biosynthetic gene clusters were analyzed recently based on in silico analysis of the corresponding biosynthetic genes (see accompanying manuscript [47] and [8]). However, several novel structural features require further characterization. The development and application of a genetic system for the generation of markerless deletions/insertions or point mutations in the chromosome of *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1 that is used to further characterize the myxothiazol genes is reported. These experiments show that the myxothiazol PKS/NRPS is a delicate system in which marginal alterations in the amino acid sequence abolish compound biosynthesis. The complete deletion of the oxidation domain in *MtaC* shows that it is superfluous for myxothiazol production.

Results and Discussion

Establishing a System for Markerless Mutagenesis in *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1

The detailed biochemical analysis of PKS and NRPS biosynthetic pathways is hampered by the complexity of the proteins involved and the lack of in vitro models. Genetic research of myxobacteria is even more difficult due to the lack of plasmids (e.g., for ectopic expression) and the poorly established or completely unavailable genetics for most genera. Most studies on PKS and NRPS pathways have been performed by site-directed and markerless deletions, insertions, or point mutations within the corresponding genes, resulting in modified proteins that produce structurally altered secondary

*Correspondence: rom@gbf.de

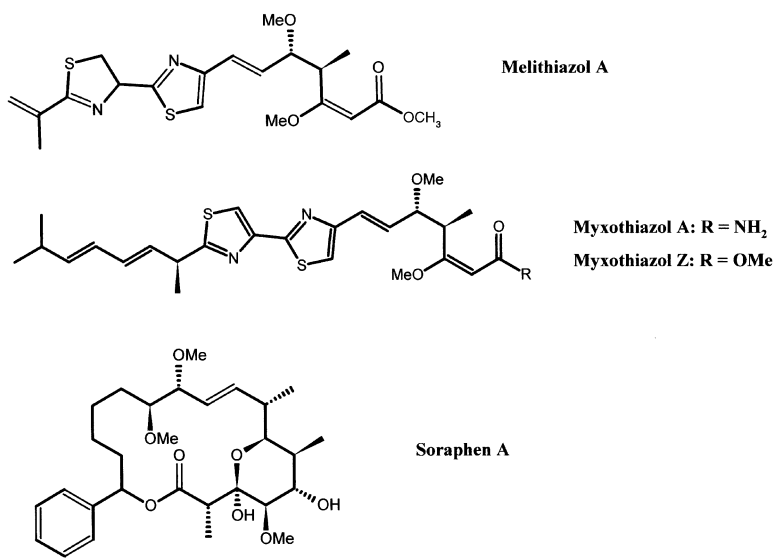


Figure 1. Structures of Myxobacterial Secondary Metabolites

metabolites. Given the severe problems that we encountered while trying to establish a gene inactivation system for the melithiazol producer *M. lichenicola* Me 146 (see accompanying manuscript [47]), and to answer questions arising from the in silico analysis of both the myxothiazol and the melithiazol gene clusters, we developed a genetic system for markerless gene inactivation, deletion, substitution, insertion, and point mutagenesis in *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1.

In *M. xanthus*, *galK* is more convenient than *sacB* as a counterselectable marker (e.g., [26]). After a series of experiments employing *galK*, we concluded that this marker is not applicable to *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1 (M. Kopp and R.M., unpublished data). On the other hand, the counterselectable *sacB* gene from *Bacillus subtilis* can be used. The procedure is still rather time consuming due to the slow growth of *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1. Additionally, only 10%–15% of the sucrose-resistant colonies are kanamycin sensitive, which indicates a relatively high rate of spontaneous resistance in the mutants after counterselection with sucrose. Wu and Kaiser reported an efficiency of 100% in *M. xanthus* [27], which raises the hope that the method can still be optimized in order to assay further functionalities, and not only in the myxothiazol biosynthetic gene cluster.

All of the mutants described below (after first and second crossover events) were confirmed by Southern blot and PCR. Subsequently, the chromosomally mutated DNA fragment was amplified by PCR using a proofreading DNA polymerase, cloned, and resequenced. After verification of the correctness of the mutation, mutants were analyzed for natural product formation. Because the genetic system always gives rise to revertants (Figure 2), it was possible to analyze if the integration and the subsequent excision of the mutagenesis plasmid would cause secondary effects on product formation. This is clearly not the case, because all of the revertants produce myxothiazol at wild-type levels.

Slight Modifications of the Myxothiazol Megasyntetase Lead to the Inactivation of the Biosynthetic Complex, Indicating a Rather Specialized Protein Complex Unable to Process Modified Intermediates

Initially, the potential of the myxothiazol megasyntetase to generate myxothiazol derivatives was investigated. Because similar experiments worked in the erythromycin system [3, 23, 28, 29], we first tried to inactivate the KR of module 1 of MtaB (see accompanying manuscript [47]) by site-directed mutagenesis, which should result in the production of a myxothiazol with a keto-group at C-10 corresponding to C-1 of the isovalerate starter unit (see Figure 1). The conserved NAD(P) binding site was chromosomally mutated from VGGLGGIG to VILLVGIG (changed amino acids in italics) to prevent the cofactor binding of NAD(P). However, the resulting mutant did not produce any detectable derivative of myxothiazol (S.W. and R.M., unpublished data). In further experiments aimed at the production of desmethyl derivatives of myxothiazol to directly prove the function of previously unknown O-MT domains in PKS, the SAM binding sites of MtaE and MtaF were mutated by site-directed mutagenesis. Here, even single amino acid substitutions led to myxothiazol and desmethyl-myxothiazol negative mutants (S.W., T.M., and R.M., unpublished data). Searching for mass spectra of released and decarboxylated intermediates in the extracts of the culture broth did not result in the detection of any product of the expected mass (T.M. and R.M., unpublished data).

Given the reports on the successful inactivation of domains in some PKS systems, positive results seem to be typical. Nevertheless, a variety of groups in the field do not agree with this statement. Most modification studies seem to result in nonproducers or low producers, and only a few of them appear in the literature. In this study, we demonstrate that relatively simple mutations in the myxothiazol megasyntetase result in non-

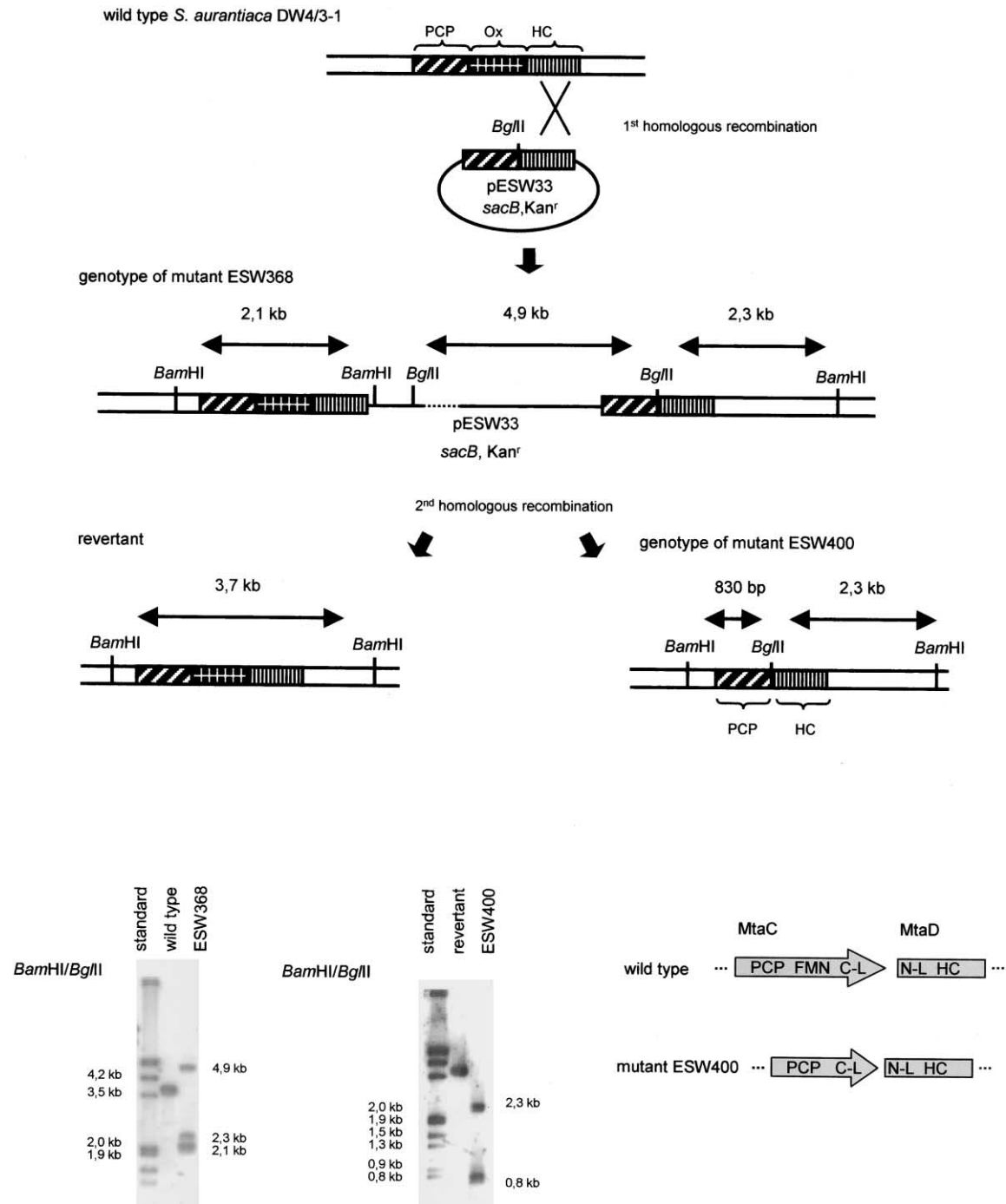


Figure 2. Schematic Diagram Showing the Mutagenesis Strategy for the Generation of Markerless Mutants in *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1

The strategy is exemplified by the deletion of the Ox domain of MtaC starting with the integration of pESW33 into the chromosome. The genotype of the merodiploid mutant ESW368 is shown, and the size of the restriction fragments giving signals in the Southern analysis are indicated by arrows. After excision of the plasmid via a second crossover event, two genotypes are possible: the revertant with identical genotype to the wild-type is shown on the left, whereas the deletion mutant ESW400 is shown on the right. In the bottom panel, Southern blot analyses of ESW368, ESW400, revertant, and wild-type in comparison to the DIG-labeled DNA molecular weight marker III (Roche Diagnostics) are shown. Restriction enzymes used are indicated in the picture; the insert of pESW33 was used as a probe. On the lower right, a diagram of the C-terminal part of MtaC and the N-terminal part of MtaD in wild-type and mutant ESW400 is shown. C-L, C-terminal linker region; N-L, N-terminal linker region.

Table 1. Plasmids Used in This Study

Name	Description of Construction
pESW26	see accompanying manuscript [47]
pESW33	604 bp PCR product generated using primer NADC1FOR + NADC2REV from cosmid E25, hydrolyzed with NotI/BglIII, and 600 bp PCR product generated using primers NADC3FOR + NADC4REV from cosmid E25, hydrolyzed with BglIII/SpeI; both fragments ligated into pSWU41 (NotI/SpeI)
pESW36	510 bp PCR product generated using primers NADD1FOR + NADD2REV from cosmid E25, hydrolyzed using NotI/XhoI, and 609 bp PCR product generated with primers NADD3FOR + NADD4REV from cosmid E25, hydrolyzed using XhoI/SpeI; both fragments ligated into pSWU41 (NotI/SpeI)
pESW41	517 bp PCR product generated using primers ENO1FOR + ENO2REV from cosmid E25, hydrolyzed with NotI/SspI, and 508 bp PCR product generated using primers ENO3FOR + ENO4REV from cosmid E25, hydrolyzed with SspI/SpeI; both fragments ligated into pSWU41 (NotI/SpeI)
pESW47	618 bp PCR product generated using primers ISO1 + ISO2 from cosmid E201, cloned into pCR-2.1-TOPO
pESW51	622 bp PCR product generated using primers ISO3 + ISO4 from cosmid E201, cloned into pCR-2.1-TOPO
pESW64	DNA fragment from pESW47 (PvuII/PstI) and DNA fragment from pESW51 (PstI/XbaI); both fragments cloned into pSWU41 (SmaI/XbaI)
pESW204	458 bp PCR product generated using primers MXISO3 + MXISO4 from genomic DNA of <i>S. aurantiaca</i> DW4/3-1, cloned into pCR-2.1-TOPO
pESW225	1088 bp PCR-product generated using primers MLD3 + MLD4 from cosmid M2; cloned into pCR-2.1-TOPO
pESW236	631 bp PCR-product generated using primers MYX1FOR + MLD2 from cosmid E25; cloned into pCR-2.1-TOPO
pESW237	620 bp PCR-product generated using primers MLD5 + MYX6REV from cosmid E25; cloned into pCR-2.1-TOPO
pESW241	DNA fragment from pESW237 (HindIII/BamHI) and DNA-fragment from pMSW6 (XbaI/HindIII); both fragments cloned into pSWU41 (XbaI/BamHI)
pESW243	see accompanying manuscript [47]
pMSW5	DNA fragment from pESW236 (XbaI/NotI) and 1.1 kb NotI/EcoRI fragment from cosmid M2 cloned into pBluescript IKS(-) (XbaI/EcoRI)
pMSW6	DNA fragment from pESW225 (EcoRI/HindIII) cloned into pMSW5 (EcoRI/HindIII)
pMSW12	see accompanying manuscript [47]

the corresponding fragment from MelD (mutant strain ESW627; the substitution took place using highly homologous regions for recombination, see Experimental Procedures). The former experiment should have resulted in a thiazole-thiazoline or a bis-thiazoline myxothiazol, whereas the latter should have given a thiazoline-thiazole myxothiazol. Unfortunately, both strains were blocked in myxothiazol biosynthesis. Thus, the difference between the MtaD and MelD Ox domains remains unclear. It can be concluded that the Ox domain of MtaC is not required for myxothiazol biosynthesis.

The Heptadiene Isomerase Homolog MtaH Is Not Necessary for Myxothiazol Biosynthesis

Downstream of *mtaG/melG* in the myxothiazol and melithiazol gene clusters, a gene encoding a heptadiene isomerase homolog is found (*mtaH/melH*; see accompanying manuscript [47]). Before cloning the melithiazol genes, we thought that this gene was involved in the formation of the unusual triketide starter of myxothiazol, in which the double bonds are located irregularly (Figure 1). Standard PKS biochemistry involves the dehydration of β -keto-intermediates giving rise to Δ 2,3 double bonds, whereas in the starter moiety of myxothiazol Δ 3,4 double bonds are found. The homology to heptadiene isomerases seemed intriguing because they are involved in double-bond isomerization, and it was thus assumed that inactivation of *mtaH* should result in a myxothiazol with Δ 2,3 double bonds. An in-frame deletion of *mtaH* in mutant ESW444 (*mtaH* Δ ₃₃₃₋₆₆₆) did not result in any change in myxothiazol formation. The product was purified from the mutant ESW444 and analyzed by H-NMR, as the isomerization would not change the mass of the compound. No difference to wild-type myxothiazol was

detected. We assumed that an isogene might be responsible for the complementation of the *mtaH* in ESW444.

The genome sequence of *M. xanthus* DK1622 is currently being determined at the Institute for Genomic Research (TIGR). In the preliminary sequences, a gene with significant similarity to *mtaH* was found and used as a probe to identify a homolog in *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1 that represents a putative isogene of *mtaH*. The deduced protein shows 40% identity to MtaH and 89% identity to the protein from *M. xanthus*. It was designated MtaX, and a fragment of the gene was used for the generation of double-mutant ESW463 (*mtaH*⁻/*mtaX*⁻). ESW463 was analyzed similarly to ESW444, but again no modified myxothiazol was detected. Thus, MtaH is not required for myxothiazol formation. The unusual position of the double bonds and the function of *mtaH/melH* in myxothiazol and melithiazol biosynthesis still remain unexplained.

Some other polyketides contain "nonstandard" double bonds as well. Even where the corresponding gene clusters are known, no information about their formation is available (e.g., ansamitocin [40]). Nevertheless, an atypical dehydration step might take place due to intrinsic differences in the DH domain of the PKS. In soraphen A, another "irregular" double bond is located between carbons 9 and 10 (Figure 1). Here, it is evident that the PKS reduces the intermediate completely and an oxidation occurs as a post PKS step [41, 42].

Significance

The molecular analysis of polyketide and nonribosomal peptide biosynthetic pathways from myxobacteria contributed to our knowledge of these systems,

which is mostly from the work on actinomycetes and bacilli. Nevertheless, the essential genetics for detailed study of natural product pathways remain poorly established for this class of microorganisms. A system for markerless in-frame deletions, insertions, and point mutations is described for the secondary metabolite multiproducer *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1, which sets the stage for the analysis of the various secondary metabolic pathways in this strain. A series of mutants in the myxothiazol megasynthetase is reported, most of which do not produce novel myxothiazol derivatives. It is assumed that the myxothiazol biosynthetic system does not process the changed biosynthetic intermediates. Similar negative results are usually not published, but are quite often orally communicated. Thus, they contradict the data found in the literature that suggests that almost any site-directed mutagenesis in a PKS and/or NRPS biosynthetic system results in the production of novel structures in good yield. The applicability of the genetic system reported is demonstrated by the fact that all revertants arising from second crossover events regain their ability to produce myxothiazol. Unexpectedly, after chromosomal deletion of the oxidation domain encoded in *mtaC*, it is demonstrated that myxothiazol is still formed as a bis-thiazole structure in the resulting mutant.

Experimental Procedures

Bacterial Strains and Culture Conditions

Escherichia coli and *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1 and its descendants were cultured as described previously [8, 43]. Batch cultures of 100 ml in 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks were incubated at 30°C in a gyratory shaker at 160 rpm for 4–5 days.

DNA Manipulations, Analysis, Sequencing, and PCR

Chromosomal DNA from *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1 and *M. lichenicola* Me 146 was prepared as described [44]. Southern blot analysis of genomic DNA was performed using the standard protocol for homologous probes of the DIG DNA labeling and detection kit (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany).

PCR was carried out using *Pfu*-DNA-Polymerase (Stratagene) according to the manufacturer's protocol, with addition of 5% DMSO to the reaction mixture. Conditions for amplification with the Eppendorf Mastercycler gradient (Eppendorf, Germany) were as follows: denaturation for 30 s at 95°C, annealing for 30 s at 60°C, extension for 45 s at 72°C, 30 cycles, and a final extension at 72°C for 10 min.

Primers used for the amplification of internal fragments of *mtaB* are as follows (given in the 5' to the 3' direction, introduced restriction sites are underlined): ENO1FOR, 5'-TGC TCG CGG CCG CCG AGA ACG CAC AGT CGA T-3' (introduced NotI restriction site); ENO2REV, 5'-CCG AAT ATT ATC ACG ATC AGG TAC GTC GCG TC-3'; ENO3FOR, 5'-GGG AAT ATT GGT TGG CAT TGG CCT CGA GCT GG-3' (introduced SspI restriction site); ENO4REV, 5'-GGA CTA GTT GAT GGA CAG CGC CGT CAG GC-3' (introduced SpeI restriction site); ENO5SEQ, 5'-ACG CTG CCC AGC TCG CCG CG-3'; ERIMTABFOR, 5'-GGC ATC GCC CGG GAG GGT TCG-3'; ENOAB SEQ, 5'-GAC TGG TTG TGG CAG AGG TCT-3'.

Primers used for the amplification of internal fragments of *mtaC* are as follows: NADC1FOR, 5'-ATC TGC GGC CGC TTC TTC CTG AAG GAG AGA T-3' (introduced NotI restriction site); NADC2REV, 5'-TGG AGA TCT CTC GAC GTA GGC CGC-3'; NADC3FOR, 5'-ATG AGA TCT CAT GGC CTC GTG GGT GGC G-3' (introduced BglII restriction site); NADC4REV, 5'-GAA CTA GTC CGT CCG AAG CAC C-3' (introduced SpeI restriction site); NADC5SEQ, 5'-AAG CGC CCG TCG ATC GAG C-3'.

Primers used for the amplification of internal fragments of *mtaD* are as follows: NADD1FOR, 5'-CAA GGC GGC CGC GCT GGT CAG CCT C-3' (introduced NotI restriction site); NADD2REV, 5'-CCG GCT

CGA GAT TCG ACG TCA ATT CCC CAG G-3' (introduced XhoI restriction site); NADD3FOR, 5'-GCC CCT CGA GTT GAG GCG TTA CCT GG-3' (introduced XhoI restriction site); NADD4REV, 5'-CCG GAC TAG TGC CAG ACA TCC CCA CGA T-3' (introduced SpeI restriction site); NADD5SEQ, 5'-CAA GAT CCA GGG CTA TCG CA-3'; MYX1FOR, 5'-GCT CTA GAT CAA CCT GAC CCT CTT CAA C-3' (introduced XbaI restriction site); MLD2, 5'-TTG AGC GGC CGC CTG ACG AAG GAA GAG C-3' (introduced NotI restriction site); MLD5, 5'-CGG CAA GCT TGA TCG AAG CGC-3' (introduced HindIII restriction site); MYX6REV, 5'-CGG GAT CCA TCG ACT GCC GCA AC-3' (introduced BamHI restriction site).

Primers used for the amplification of internal fragments of *mtaH* are as follows: E3, 5'-TCG GCA GGA AGA AGT CGT C-3'; E4, 5'-CTC GGG ATC CAG CAG GTA G-3'; ISO1FOR, 5'-ACG AGT CTG ACG CCT ACC GGG G-3' (introduced SacI restriction site); ISO2REV, 5'-GGC TGC AGG TCA GCG CGG AAG AGG-3'; ISO3FOR, 5'-ACC TGC AGG ATG ATC TTC CCG CCC GAG-3' (introduced PstI restriction site); ISO4REV, 5'-CCT CTA GAT GGT TGC CCC CGA TGA CG-3' (introduced XbaI restriction site); ISO5SEQ, COR 5'-CCC TTC CCC TGA GCC AGG TCG-3'.

Primers used for the amplification of internal fragments of *mtaX* are as follows: MXISO1, 5'-CTG GGC TGG CGC GAA GGA GA-3'; MXISO2, 5'-CAG CAG CGT CAT GAT GTG GGA GAT-3'; MXISO3, 5'-TCC TCG CTG ACG CTG CTG GTG-3'; MXISO4, 5'-ATG TCG GAT GTG CGG CTG TC-3'.

Primers used for the amplification of internal fragments of *melD* are as follows: MLD3, 5'-ATC GAA TTC CTC GGC CGC GAG-3' (naturally occurring EcoRI restriction site); MLD4, 5'-GAT CAA GCT TGC CGT TGG CCG TG-3' (introduced HindIII restriction site); EcoRISEQ, 5'-CGA GCT GAT CCG GGA CGA CAT AGG-3'.

All other DNA manipulations were performed according to standard protocols [45]. Amino acid and DNA alignments were done using the programs of the Lasergene software package (DNASTar Inc.) and ClustalW [46].

Method for the Generation of Markerless In-Frame Mutations in *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1

Construction of Mutagenesis Plasmids

Most plasmids used for the generation of double-crossover mutants were created using similar strategies (see Table 1; pESW33, pESW36, pESW41, and pESW64). For example, construction of pESW33 used for the deletion of the MtaC Ox domain was done in the following fashion: a 604 bp PCR product was generated employing *Pfu*-DNA-Polymerase (Stratagene) using oligonucleotides NADC1FOR/NADC2REV and cosmid E25 [8]. The primer combination NADC3FOR/NADC4REV was used to generate a second 600 bp PCR product. Both fragments were purified using the Nucleospin Extract Kit (Macherey and Nagel). The 604 bp PCR product was cut using NotI and BglII, and the 600 bp product was hydrolyzed with BglIII and SpeI before both fragments were cloned into NotI and SpeI precut pSWU41 [27]. The insert of the resulting plasmid pESW33 was verified via restriction and sequencing analysis.

pESW241 was used for the substitution of the A domain of MtaD with the A domain from MelD. Using oligonucleotides MYX1FOR and MLD2, a 631 bp PCR product was generated employing *Pfu* DNA polymerase (Stratagene) from cosmid E25. This fragment encodes the C-terminal part of the HC domain of MtaD and was cloned into pCR-2.1-TOPO (Invitrogen), resulting in plasmid pESW236. Employing oligonucleotides MLD3 and MLD4, a 1088 bp PCR product from cosmid M2 was generated that encodes the C-terminal part of the A domain of MelD (core motifs A8 to A10, plasmid pESW225). Oligonucleotides MLD5 and MLD6 gave rise to a PCR product 620 bp in size from cosmid E25 that encodes the PCP and part of the KS domain of MtaD (cloned into pCR-2.1-TOPO: pESW237). Plasmid inserts were verified by DNA sequencing. The insert of pESW236 was cut with XbaI and NotI, and cosmid M2 was hydrolyzed with NotI and EcoRI. The latter restriction gave a 1148 bp fragment which was cloned together with the fragment from pESW236 into XbaI/EcoRI precut pBluescript II KS(-) (Stratagene). The resulting plasmid pMSW5 was hydrolyzed with EcoRI/HindIII and cloned into pESW225, precut with the same enzyme combination, which gave plasmid pMSW6. The insert of pMSW6 was cut out of the vector using XbaI/HindIII and cloned together with the HindIII/BamHI insert

from pESW237 into XbaI/BamHI pre-cut pSWU41, which gave plasmid pESW241.

Construction of Mutants

The mutagenesis plasmids were introduced into the chromosome of *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1 [11]. Chromosomal DNA of the resulting kanamycin-resistant mutants was isolated and analyzed via Southern experiments to verify site-specific integration. One mutant was grown in tryptone liquid medium for 10–14 days without antibiotic selection in order to induce the second crossover which results in the loss of the integrated plasmid. Every 48 hr, cells were transferred into a new flask (1 ml was used to inoculate 50 ml fresh medium). Next, cells were counted and a dilution series was made: 2.5×10^6 up to 2.5×10^8 cells were plated on tryptone agar supplemented with 5% sucrose. After 12 days, single colonies became visible and were inoculated in 3 ml tryptone liquid medium and grown for 72 hr. In parallel, 70 μ l of the culture suspension was transferred as a single drop onto tryptone agar supplemented with either 5% sucrose or 50 μ g/ml kanamycin. Growth could be monitored after 72 hr. In a typical experiment, 10%–20% of the mutants showed the kanamycin-sensitive and sucrose-resistant phenotype. These were further analyzed phenotypically and genotypically. In addition, the mutagenized region was reamplified from the chromosome of the mutant using a proofreading polymerase and resequenced to verify the correctness of the mutagenesis. The following mutants were generated: ESW400 (*mtaC* Δ Ox_{3280–3919}) using plasmid pESW33, ESW392 (*mtaD* Δ Ox_{3599–4430}) using plasmid pESW36, ESW414 (*mtaB* KR⁻) using plasmid pESW41, ESW444 (*mtaH* Δ _{333–665}) using plasmid pESW64, and ESW627 (melD_{swab}) using plasmid pESW241.

Production and Analysis of Secondary Metabolites in *S. aurantiaca* DW4/3-1 and Its Descendants

The cultivation of the strains, the preparation of the culture extracts, and the conditions for the analysis of the spectrum of secondary metabolites using diode array-coupled HPLC were described previously [8]; see accompanying manuscript [47].

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank B. Kunze and G. Höfle for help with chemical analysis and D. Kaiser for generously providing pSWU41. We gratefully acknowledge the helpful comments by H.G. Floss, B. Carroll, and V. Simunovic regarding this manuscript. This work was funded by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (grants Mu1254/3-3 and Mu1254/6-1).

Received: April 7, 2003

Revised: July 31, 2003

Accepted: August 6, 2003

Published: October 17, 2003

References

1. Strohl, W. (1997). Industrial antibiotics: today and the future. In *Biotechnology of Antibiotics*, W. Strohl, ed. (New York: Marcel Dekker), pp. 1–47.
2. Cane, D.E. (1997). Polyketide and nonribosomal polypeptide biosynthesis. *Chem. Rev.* **97**, 2463–2464.
3. Staunton, J., and Weissman, K.J. (2001). Polyketide biosynthesis: a millennium review. *Nat. Prod. Rep.* **18**, 380–416.
4. Konz, D., and Marahiel, M.A. (1999). How do peptide synthetases generate structural diversity? *Chem. Biol.* **6**, R39–R48.
5. Cane, D.E., Walsh, C.T., and Khosla, C. (1998). Harnessing the biosynthetic code: combinations, permutations, and mutations. *Science* **282**, 63–68.
6. Du, L.H., Sanchez, C., and Shen, B. (2001). Hybrid peptide-polyketide natural products: Biosynthesis and prospects toward engineering novel molecules. *Metab. Eng.* **3**, 78–95.
7. Reichenbach, H., and Höfle, G. (1999). Myxobacteria as producers of secondary metabolites. In *Drug Discovery from Nature*, S. Grabley and R. Thieriecke, eds. (Berlin: Springer Verlag), pp. 149–179.
8. Silakowski, B., Schairer, H.U., Ehret, H., Kunze, B., Weinig, S., Nordsiek, G., Brandt, P., Blöcker, H., Höfle, G., Beyer, S., et al.

- (1999). New lessons for combinatorial biosynthesis from myxobacteria: the myxothiazol biosynthetic gene cluster of *Stigmatella aurantiaca* DW4/3-1. *J. Biol. Chem.* **274**, 37391–37399.
9. Paitan, Y., Alon, G., Orr, E., Ron, E.Z., and Rosenberg, E. (1999). The first gene in the biosynthesis of the polyketide antibiotic TA of *Myxococcus xanthus* codes for a unique PKS module coupled to a peptide synthetase. *J. Mol. Biol.* **286**, 465–474.
10. Silakowski, B., Nordsiek, G., Kunze, B., Blöcker, H., and Müller, R. (2001). Novel features in a combined polyketide synthase/non-ribosomal peptide synthetase: The myxalamid biosynthetic gene cluster of the myxobacterium *Stigmatella aurantiaca* Sg a15. *Chem. Biol.* **8**, 59–69.
11. Beyer, S., Kunze, B., Silakowski, B., and Müller, R. (1999). Metabolic diversity in myxobacteria—identification of the myxalamid and the stigmatellin biosynthetic gene cluster of *Stigmatella aurantiaca* Sg a15 and a combined polyketide-(poly)peptide gene cluster from the epothilone producing strain *Sorangium cellulosum* So ce90. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1445**, 185–195.
12. Silakowski, B., Kunze, B., and Müller, R. (2001). Multiple hybrid polyketide synthase/non-ribosomal peptide synthetase gene clusters in the myxobacterium *Stigmatella aurantiaca*. *Gene* **275**, 233–240.
13. Molnar, I., Schupp, T., Ono, M., Zirkle, R.E., Milnamow, M., Nowak-Thompson, B., Engel, N., Toupet, C., Stratman, A., Cyr, D.D., et al. (2000). The biosynthetic gene cluster for the microtubule-stabilizing agents epothilones A and B from *Sorangium cellulosum* So ce90. *Chem. Biol.* **7**, 97–109.
14. Julien, B., Shah, S., Ziermann, R., Goldman, R., Katz, L., and Khosla, C. (2000). Isolation and characterization of the epothilone biosynthetic gene cluster from *Sorangium cellulosum*. *Gene* **249**, 153–160.
15. Gerth, K., Irschik, H., Reichenbach, H., and Trowitzsch, W. (1980). Myxothiazol, an antibiotic from *Myxococcus fulvus* (myxobacterales). I. Cultivation, isolation, physico-chemical and biological properties. *J. Antibiot.* **33**, 1474–1479.
16. Trowitzsch, W., Reifensahl, G., Wray, V., and Höfle, G. (1980). Myxothiazol, an antibiotic from *Myxococcus fulvus* (Myxobacterales) II. Structure elucidation. *J. Antibiot.* **33**, 1480–1490.
17. Sasse, F., Böhlendorf, B., Hermann, M., Kunze, B., Forche, E., Steinmetz, H., Höfle, G., and Reichenbach, H. (1999). Melithiazols, new β -methoxyacrylate inhibitors of the respiratory chain isolated from myxobacteria—Production, Isolation, Physicochemical and Biological Properties. *J. Antibiot.* **52**, 721–729.
18. Böhlendorf, B., Herrmann, M., Hecht, H.J., Sasse, F., Forche, E., Kunze, B., Reichenbach, H., and Höfle, G. (1999). Antibiotics from gliding bacteria—melithiazols A-N: new antifungal β -methoxyacrylates from myxobacteria. *Eur. J. Org. Chem.* **10**, 2601–2608.
19. Xue, Y.Q., and Sherman, D.H. (2001). Biosynthesis and combinatorial biosynthesis of pikromycin-related macrolides in *Streptomyces venezuelae*. *Metab. Eng.* **3**, 15–26.
20. Walsh, C.T. (2002). Combinatorial biosynthesis of antibiotics: Challenges and opportunities. *ChemBiochem* **3**, 125–134.
21. Wilkinson, C.J., Frost, E.J., Staunton, J., and Leadlay, P.F. (2001). Chain initiation on the soraphen-producing modular polyketide synthase from *Sorangium cellulosum*. *Chem. Biol.* **8**, 1197–1208.
22. Rowe, C., Bohm, I., Thomas, I., Wilkinson, B., Rudd, B., Foster, G., Blackaby, A., Sidebottom, P., Roddis, Y., Buss, A., et al. (2001). Engineering a polyketide with a longer chain by insertion of an extra module into the erythromycin-producing polyketide synthase. *Chem. Biol.* **8**, 475–485.
23. Staunton, J. (1998). Combinatorial biosynthesis of erythromycin and complex polyketides. *Curr. Opin. Chem. Biol.* **2**, 339–345.
24. Schneider, A., Stachelhaus, T., and Marahiel, M.A. (1998). Targeted alteration of the substrate specificity of peptide synthetases by rational module swapping. *Mol. Gen. Genet.* **257**, 308–318.
25. Weber, T., Baumgartner, R., Renner, C., Marahiel, M.A., and Holak, T.A. (2000). Solution structure of PCP, a prototype for the peptidyl carrier domains of modular peptide synthetases. *Struct. Fold. Des.* **8**, 407–418.
26. Ueki, T., Inouye, S., and Inouye, M. (1996). Positive-negative KG

- cassettes for construction of multi-gene deletions using a single drug marker. *Gene* 183, 153–157.
27. Wu, S.S., and Kaiser, D. (1996). Markerless deletions of pil genes in *Myxococcus xanthus* generated by counterselection with the *Bacillus subtilis* *sacB* gene. *J. Bacteriol.* 178, 5817–5821.
 28. Kealey, J.T. (2003). Creating polyketide diversity through genetic engineering. *Front. Biosci.* 8, C1–C10.
 29. Katz, L. (1997). Manipulation of modular polyketide synthases. In *Chemical Reviews*, D.E. Cane, ed. (Columbus, OH: American Chemical Society), pp. 2557–2575.
 30. Hardt, I., Steinmetz, H., Gerth, K., Sasse, F., Reichenbach, H., and Höfle, G. (2001). New natural epothilones from *Sorangium cellulosum*, strains So ce90/B2 and So ce90/D13: isolation, structure elucidation, and SAR studies. *J. Nat. Prod.* 64, 847–856.
 31. Schwarzer, D., Mootz, H.D., Linne, U., and Marahiel, M.A. (2002). Regeneration of misprimed nonribosomal peptide synthetases by type II thioesterases. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 99, 14083–14088.
 32. Kim, B.S., Cropp, T.A., Beck, B.J., Sherman, D.H., and Reynolds, K.A. (2002). Biochemical evidence for an editing role of thioesterase II in the biosynthesis of the polyketide pikromycin. *J. Biol. Chem.* 277, 48028–48034.
 33. Doi-Katayama, Y., Yoon, Y.J., Choi, C.Y., Yu, T.W., Floss, H.G., and Hutchinson, C.R. (2000). Thioesterases and the premature termination of polyketide chain elongation in rifamycin B biosynthesis by *Amycolatopsis mediterranei* S699. *J. Antibiot.* 53, 484–495.
 34. Schneider, A., and Marahiel, M.A. (1998). Genetic evidence for a role of thioesterase domains, integrated in or associated with peptide synthetases, in non-ribosomal peptide biosynthesis in *Bacillus subtilis*. *Arch. Microbiol.* 169, 404–410.
 35. Yu, T.-W., Shen, Y., Doi-Katayama, Y., Tang, L., Park, C., Moore, B.S., Hutchinson, C.R., and Floss, H.-G. (1999). Direct evidence that the rifamycin polyketide synthase assembles polyketide chains processively. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 96, 9051–9056.
 36. Stratmann, A., Toupet, C., Schilling, W., Traber, R., Oberer, L., and Schupp, T. (1999). Intermediates of rifamycin polyketide synthase produced by an *Amycolatopsis mediterranei* mutant with inactivated *rifF* gene. *Microbiol.* 145, 3365–3375.
 37. Chen, H.W., O'Connor, S., Cane, D.E., and Walsh, C.T. (2001). Epothilone biosynthesis: assembly of the methylthiazolylcarboxy starter unit on the EpoB subunit. *Chem. Biol.* 8, 899–912.
 38. Du, L., Chen, M., Sanchez, C., and Shen, B. (2000). An oxidation domain in the BlmIII non-ribosomal peptide synthetase probably catalyzing thiazole formation in the biosynthesis of the antitumor drug bleomycin in *Streptomyces verticillus* ATCC15003. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* 189, 171–175.
 39. Du, L., Sanchez, C., Chen, M.T., Edwards, D., and Shen, B. (2000). The biosynthetic gene cluster for the antitumor drug bleomycin from *Streptomyces verticillus* ATCC15003 supporting functional interactions between nonribosomal peptide synthetases and a polyketide synthase. *Chem. Biol.* 7, 623–642.
 40. Yu, T.-W., Bai, L., Clade, D., Hoffmann, D., Toelzer, S., Trinh, K.Q., Xu, J., Moss, S.J., Leistner, E., and Floss, H.G. (2002). The biosynthetic gene cluster of the maytansinoid antitumor agent ansamitocin from *Actinosynnema pretiosum*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 99, 7968–7973.
 41. Gerth, K., Pradella, S., Perlova, O., Beyer, S., and Müller, R. (2003). Myxobacteria: Proficient producers of novel natural products with various biological activities - past and future biotechnological aspects with the focus on the genus *Sorangium*. *J. Biotechnol.*, in press.
 42. Ligon, J., Hill, S., Beck, J., Zirkle, R., Molnar, I., Zawodny, J., Money, S., and Schupp, T. (2002). Characterization of the biosynthetic gene cluster for the antifungal polyketide soraphen A from *Sorangium cellulosum* So ce26. *Gene* 285, 257–267.
 43. Silakowski, B., Ehret, H., and Schairer, H.U. (1998). *fbfB*, a gene encoding a putative galactose oxidase, is involved in *Stigmatella aurantiaca* fruiting body formation. *J. Bacteriol.* 180, 1241–1247.
 44. Neumann, B., Pospiech, A., and Schairer, H.U. (1992). Rapid isolation of genomic DNA from Gram negative bacteria. *Trends Genet.* 8, 332–333.
 45. Sambrook, J., Fritsch, E.F., and Maniatis, T. eds. (1989). *Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual*, Second Edition (Cold Spring Harbor, NY: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press).
 46. Thompson, J.D., Higgins, D.G., and Gibson, T.J. (1994). CLUSTAL W: Improving the sensitivity of progressive multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting, position-specific gap penalties and weight matrix choice. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 22, 4673–4680.
 47. Weinig, S., Hecht, H.-J., Mahmud, T., and Müller, R. (2003). Melithiazol biosynthesis: further insights into myxobacterial PKS/NRPS systems and evidence for a new subclass of methyl transferases. *Chem. Biol.* 10, this issue, 939–952.