Thioesterases and the Premature Termination of Polyketide Chain Elongation

in Rifamycin B Biosynthesis by Amycolatopsis mediterranei S699

YUKIKO DOI-KATAYAMA^a, YEO JOON YOON^{a,†}, CHA-YONG CHOI^c, TIN-WEIN YU^d, HEINZ G. FLOSS^d and C. RICHARD HUTCHINSON^{a,b,*}

^a School of Pharmacy and ^b Department of Bacteriology, University of Wisconsin, 425 N. Charter St., Madison, Wisconsin 53706, USA
^c Divison of Chemical Engineering, College of Engineering, Seoul National University,

Seoul, Korea

^d Department of Chemistry, Box 351700, University of Washington, Seattle WA 98195-1700, USA

(Received for publication November 29, 1999)

The role of two thioesterase genes in the premature release of polyketide synthase intermediates during rifamycin biosynthesis in the *Amycolatopsis mediterranei* S699 strain was investigated. Creation of an in-frame deletion in the *rifR* gene led to a $30 \sim 60\%$ decrease in the production of both rifamycin B by the S699 strain or a series of tetra- to decaketide shunt products of polyketide chain assembly by the *rifF* strain. Since a similar percentage decrease was seen in both genetic backgrounds, we conclude that the RifR thioesterase 2 is not involved in premature release of the carbon chain assembly intermediates. Similarly, fusion of the *Saccharopolyspora erythraea* DEBS3 thioesterase 1 domain to the *C*-terminus of the RifE PKS subunit did not result in a noticeable increase in the amount of the undecaketide intermediate formed nor in the amounts of the tetra- to decaketide shunt products. Hence, premature release of the carbon chain assembly intermediates is an unusual property of the Rif PKS itself.

Rifamycin B (1) is an ansamycin antibiotic produced by Amycolatopsis mediterranei and some of its derivatives are used clinically in the treatment of tuberculosis, leprosy and AIDS-related mycobacterial infections^{1,2)}. This antibiotic is made from 3-amino-5-hydroxybenzoic acid (AHBA 2, Fig. 1) plus two acetate and eight propionate-derived units that are added to AHBA by a modular polyketide synthase (PKS) to form proansamycin X (3), followed by various largely oxidative steps that result in rifamycin S, which is converted to rifamycin SV and then to 1 (Fig. 1)³⁾. Chemical conversion of 1 to rifamycin SV followed by electrophilic substitution of the C-3 position has been used to make the important antibacterial drugs like rifampicin (rifampin) (Fig. 1) and rifapentine as well as numerous other derivatives^{2,4,5)}. Despite extensive structure activity studies of the rifamycins, as recently summarized by BACCHI et al.⁶, analogs with greatly improved utility over the current drugs have not been reported.

Our interest in applying the methods of combinatorial biosynthesis to the quest for better rifamycin-derived drugs led us to clone and characterize the gene cluster from *A. mediterranei* strain S699 that is responsible for the production of $1^{7,8)}$. This consists of approximately 40 genes that include five PKS genes, which were cloned and characterized independently by SCHUPP *et al.*⁹⁾. The rifamycin PKS, composed of the RifA to RifE subunits, is responsible for the processive assembly of an undecaketide product (Fig. 2), which unlike typical macrolide PKSs¹⁰⁾, is released from RifE and cyclized by the product of *rifF* acting as an amide synthase to form the ansamycin ring in proansamycin X (Fig. 2)^{11,12)}.

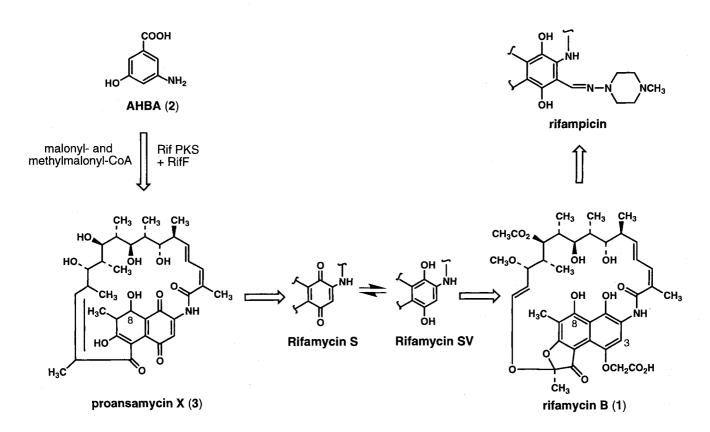
The *A. mediterranei* S699 wild-type and *rifF* mutant strains produce a series of acyclic polyketides ranging from tetra- to undecaketides (Fig. 2)^{11,12}. All the ketides following formation of the tetraketide P8/1-OG¹³) were isolated as their 8-deoxynaphthoquinones. We have

⁺ Present address: Division of Chemical Engineering, College of Engineering, Seoul National University, Seoul 151-742, Korea.

THE JOURNAL OF ANTIBIOTICS

Fig. 1. The principal steps of rifamycin B biosynthesis discussed in the text.

Rifamycin B (1) is oxidized back to rifamycin S and SV, then the latter compound is converted to the antibacterial drug rifampicin by formylation followed by imine formation.



suggested that the naphthoquinones $4\sim10$ are shunt products arising by spontaneous dehydration of the various 8-hydroxydihydronaphthoquinone ketide intermediates¹¹) because the carboxyl oxygen of AHBA is retained during its incorporation into $1^{11,13}$. Furthermore, we¹¹ and others¹⁴) have been unable to observe the incorporation of the 8-deoxy metabolite, protorifamycin I (11, Fig. 2), into 1. Thus, both protorifamycin I and its precursor proansamycin B (Fig. 2) appear to be shunt products of the rifamycin pathway.

The fact that the rifamycin PKS appears to shed its carbon chain assembly intermediates easily is unusual. Macrolide producing bacteria are not known to release the normal intermediates of polyketide chain assembly, except when one of the PKS genes has been mutated^{15,16)}, nor have such compounds been reported to be produced *in vitro* by the erythromycin PKS, 6-deoxyerythronolide B synthase (DEBS) (C. KHOSLA and R. MCDANIEL, personal communication). Therefore, we wondered whether the premature release of the ketides shown in Fig. 2 is catalyzed by a

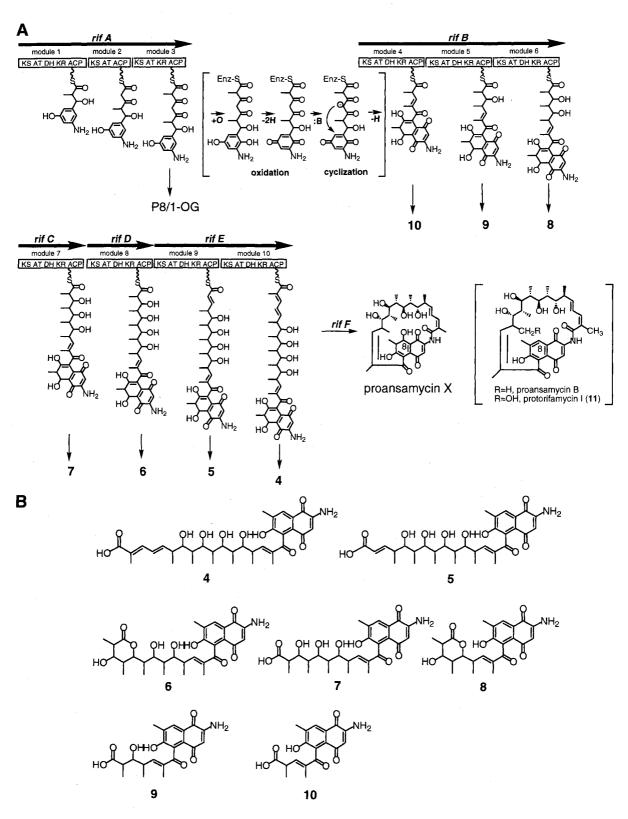
specific enzyme or is just a special feature of the rifamycin PKS itself. One candidate for an accessory enzyme is the thioesterase 2-like protein encoded by the *rifR* (formerly, *ORF12*) gene located approx. 23 kb downstream of the *rifA-rifF* genes⁷⁾. Here we report that inactivation of the *rifR* gene in both the S699 wild-type and *rifF* backgrounds did not cause a notable decrease in the shedding frequency of the rifamycin PKS, when compared with the behavior of the S699 and *rifF* strains. Similarly, fusion of the DEBS3 thioesterase 1 domain to the *C*-terminus of the RifE protein in a *rifF* mutant background did not favor formation of the undecaketide **4** nor alter the amounts of the other ketides produced.

Results

Mutation of the *rifR* Gene in the S699 Wild-type and *rifF* Backgrounds by Gene Replacement

The rifR gene located between the ORF13 and ORF20

Fig. 2. The hypothetical intermediates of carbon chain elongation in the biosynthesis of proanasmycin X by the rifamycin PKS enzymes and the RifF amide synthase.



(A) Each intermediate is formed from the chain initiator unit AHBA (2) and the chain extender units methylmalonyl-CoA or 2-methylmalonyl-CoA. The oxidation and cyclization steps within the brackets are proposed to form the 8-hydroxy-7,8-dihydronaphthalene ring. Shunt products $4\sim10$ may be formed by spontaneous dehydration to the 8-deoxynaphthoquinones followed by release from the PKS enzyme. Protorifamycin I (11) and proansamycin B, putative precursors of 1, are shown in brackets.

(B) The structures of the 8-deoxynaphthoquinones isolated from the wild-type and the *rifF* and *rifR* strains.

486

3.0 kb 2.1 kb Α Apal <u>Apal I Apal I</u> Sph Apal Nhel Apal S699 orf13 orf20 orf15 orf19 orf18 orf14 rifŔ Х Х Sphl ApaLl Nh 2.7 kb 3.2 kb ivg pWHM414 В b С а a: WMH1680 rifR b: WMH1681 rifF rifR c: A. mediterranei S699 (all digested with Apal) 3.0 kb 2.7 kb 2.1 kb

Fig. 3. Construction of the *rifR* mutants.

(A) Region surrounding the rifR gene in the cluster of rifamycin production genes in the S699 strain. The location of key restriction sites is indicated above open arrows that indicate the three genes flanking rifR on both sides. The two ApaLI sites flanking the region deleted in rifR are underlined, and the two DNA segments cloned in pWHM414 are indicated by the ApaLI, SphI and Nhel sites. X=the region where homologous recombination can occur.

(B) The results of Southern-blot hybridization for the three strains used in this work.

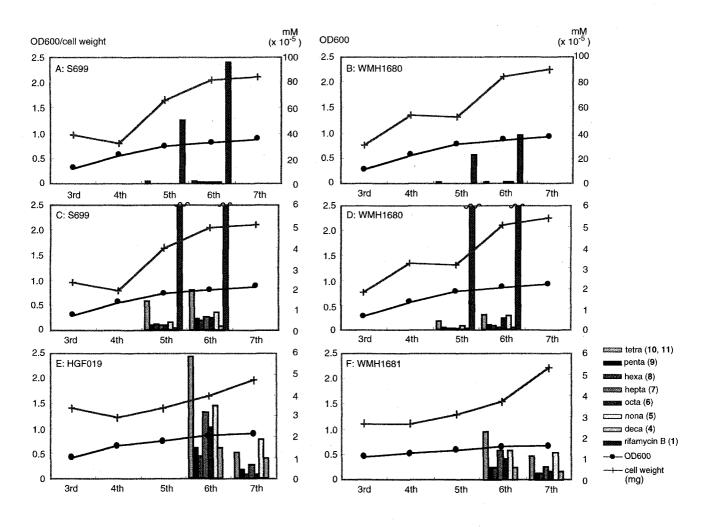
The two ApaI fragments used for Southern analysis are shown above the physical map of the genes.

genes (Fig. 3A) of the *A. mediterranei* S699 and HGF019 *rifF* strains¹¹⁾ was replaced with a mutated version by gene replacement. This was accomplished as described in the Experimental section by removing the 345 bp *ApaLI* segment between nts 2 and 346 of the *rifR* ORF, which creates a 115 aa in-frame deletion in the RifR protein, and introducing the resulting suicide plasmid pWHM414 (Fig. 3A) into the two strains by electroporation. Hygromycin resistant transformants were transferred serially on solid media and the hygromycin sensitive clones isolated were screened by Southern analysis of their chromosomal DNA for ones that displayed the expected hybridization pattern (Fig. 3B). From the six *rifR* and two *rifF rifR* mutants isolated, a representative *rifR* mutant (WMH1680) and a *rifF rifR* double mutant (WMH1681) were chosen for metabolite analysis.

MAY 2000

Fig. 4. Production of rifamycin B (1) and the shunt products shown in Fig. 2 by the *A. mediterranei* S699 wild-type, HGF019 *rifF*, WMH1680 *rifR* and WMH1681 *rifF rifR* mutants over a seven day period.

Graphs B, D and F show the average of the yields obtained with all six rifR and both rifF rifR mutants. The graphs in C and D are the same as in A and B except that the range of the mM ordinate has been decreased.



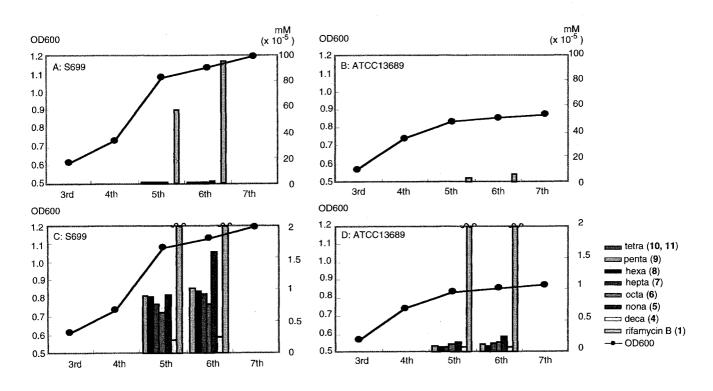
Production of Rifamycin B and Other Polyketides by the *A. mediterranei rifR* and *rifF rifR* Mutants

When the metabolite profiles of the S699 and HGF019 $rifF^{11}$ strains were compared with those of the rifR mutant and the rifF rifR double mutant, as determined by HPLC analysis at 320 nm of extracts of cultures grown in the YMG medium used by KIM *et al.*¹⁷⁾, much less rifamycin B was found to be produced by the S699 rifR mutant than by the S699 strain at the end of the fifth and sixth days of growth at the stationary phase (Fig. 4A *vs.* 4B). The decrease in rifamycin B titer of the WMH1680 strain ranged from 40 to 60% of the values recorded for the S699 strain. This was accompanied by a similar decrease (40 to 60%) in the yield of the shunt metabolites arising from the polyketide chain assembly intermediates (Fig. 4C vs. 4D). The WMH1681 *rifF rifR* double mutant, which does not make 1, also produced a decreased amount of these intermediates (Fig. 4F), and the percentage decrease (30 to 60%) compared with the amounts recorded for the *rifF* strain (Fig. 4E) was similar to that observed when the *rifR* gene was inactivated in the S699 strain.

Since the in-frame mutation in the rifR gene avoids the possibility of a polar effect on expression of the ORF20 and ORF19 genes downstream of it (Fig. 3A), we did not determine the metabolite profiles of the WMH1680 or WMH1681 strains after introduction of the wild-type rifR gene. The ORF19 and ORF20 genes are predicted to encode, respectively, proteins similar to the *Rhodococcus globerulus* HppA 3-(3-hydroxyphenyl)-propionate hydro-

- 489
- Fig. 5. Production of rifamycin B (1) and the shunt products shown in Fig. 2B by the *A. mediterranei* S699 and ATCC 13689 wild-type strains over a seven day period.

The graphs C and D are the same as those in A and B except that the range of the mm ordinate has been decreased.



xylase (accession number U89712) and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* Pap5 polyketide associated protein (accession number M95808) (T.-W.Y. and H.G.F, unpublished data).

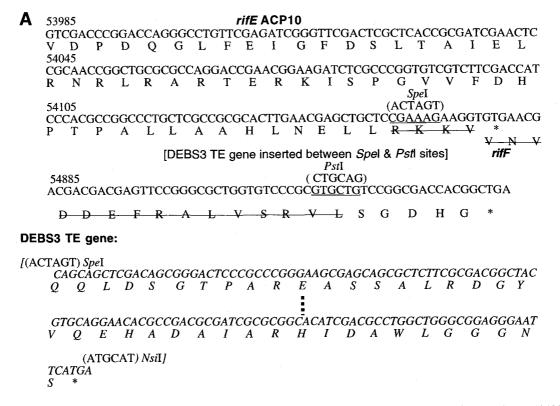
We were concerned that the S699 strain and the rifF and rifR mutants derived from it might be accumulating the shunt metabolites shown in Fig. 2 as a result of some mutation introduced into the S699 strain during yield improvement work carried out at Lepetit laboratories. Therefore, we obtained a culture of the original wild-type *A. mediterranei* ATCC 13689 strain from this company's successor (Biosearch Italia, S.p.a.) and determined the yields of 1 and the shunt metabolites. Although these yields were considerably lower than those typically obtained with the S699 strain, both 1 and many of the shunt metabolites arising from the polyketide chain assembly intermediates were still produced (Fig. 5).

Production of Polyketides by an *A. mediterranei* rifE::TE rifF Mutant

A notable advance in PKS biochemistry was the discovery of the functional independence of upstream

modules in a modular PKS from downstream ones, first discovered upon expression of the *eryAI* gene encoding the DEBS1 protein¹⁸. Placement of the thioesterase (TE) domain from module 6 of DEBS3 at the end of module 2 in DEBS1 increased the level of production of the polyketide product considerably^{18–20}. Subsequent studies of chimeric DEBS::TE proteins have shown that the TE domain can act on a wide range of chain lengths among the natural acylthioester intermediates of carbon chain assembly. This domain can also hydrolyze artificial substrates of different chain lengths and functionality^{22–24}, although it exhibits highest activity towards substrates whose stereochemistry and functionality are closest to those found at the alpha and beta positions of the natural acylthioester substrates^{23,24}.

We investigated the behavior of the genetically engineered Rif PKS in which the DEBS3 TE domain was located immediately downstream of the ACP10 domain of the RifE protein to address the following two questions. (1) Can placement of the TE at the end of RifE accelerate product release so that the linear undecaketide precursor of proansamyin X would become the major product, and perhaps also suppress the amounts of the smaller ketides Fig. 6. Construction of the A. mediterranei S699 rifE:: TE rifF mutant strain.



(A) The C-terminal end of the rifE gene beginning with nt 53985 (GenBank accession number AF040570) followed by a short portion of the N-terminus of rifF.

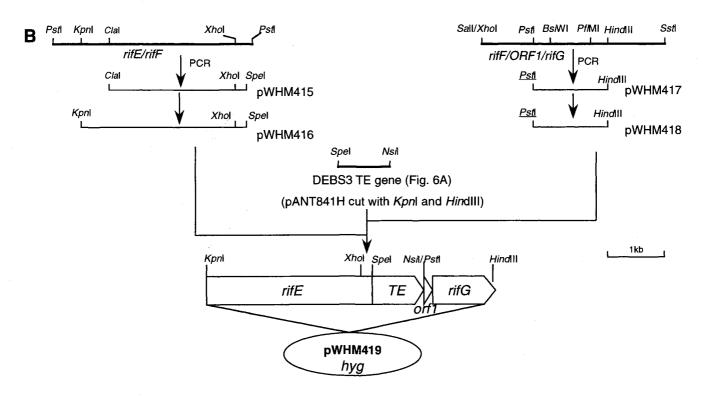
On the fourth line is a short portion of the C-terminus of rifF beginning with nt 54885. The sites are underlined where the SpeI and PstI sites, shown in parentheses, were engineered by PCR mutagenesis. The amino acids deleted from the C-terminus of RifE and the N-terminus of RifF upon insertion of the DEBS3 TE DNA are lined-out in the deduced protein sequence shown. The N- and C-termini of the SpeI-NsiI fragment carrying the S. erythraea DEBS3 TE gene are shown in italics below the A. mediterranei DNA sequence. The dashed vertical line indicates the interveining region of this gene that is not shown. This DNA was inserted into the SpeI-PstI sites of the rifE/rifF DNA as indicated.

formed by premature termination of carbon chain assembly? (2) Can the Rif PKS containing the RifE::TE protein produce new polyketides resulting from the action of the TE domain instead of the RifF amide synthase?

To test these ideas, we fused the TE domain of the DEBS3 PKS to the C-terminus of the chromosomal copy of the *rifE* gene. Since we could not predict whether the rate of polyketide release catalyzed by the TE domain would be competitive with the action of the RifF enzyme, we created the RifE::TE fusion in a *rifF* mutant backgound as follows. The RifE::TE fusion was engineered as shown in Figs. 6A and 6B (see Experimental section) to mirror the architecture of the DEBS3-TE interdomain region and the partial overlap of the C-terminus of RifE with the N-terminus of RifF as closely as possible (Fig. 6A).

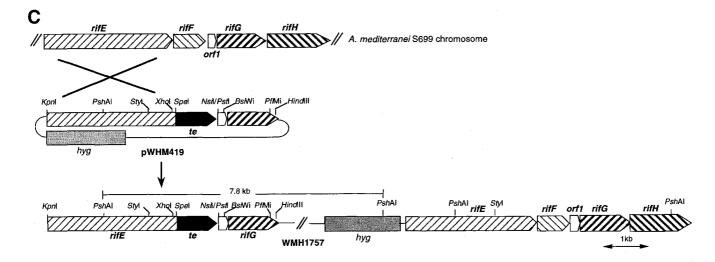
Introduction of this construct into the S699 strain by electroporation followed by selection for hygromycin resistant transformants resulted in a class of transformants where homologous recombination had taken place between the 2.3 kb C-terminal portion of the *rifE* gene in pWHM419 and the chromosomal *rifE* gene, resulting in the WMH1757 strain (Fig. 6C). Here, the intact *rifA-rifE*::*TE* PKS, $\Delta rifF$, ORF1 and *rifG* genes are separated by vector DNA from the *N*-terminally truncated *rifE* gene followed by *rifF*, *ORF1, etc.*, as found in the native *rif* gene cluster (Fig. 6C). This organization was deduced from the results of Southern analysis of DNA isolated from the WMH1757 strain (Fig. 7). Since the *rifA* to *rifF* genes are thought to be cotranscribed, the intact copy of *rifF* should not be expressed in this recombinant but the *rifA* to *rifE*::*TE* genes

Fig. 6. (continued)



(B) The rifE/rifF and rifF/ORF1/rifG templates from the rif gene cluster⁷⁾ are shown at the top left and right corners, respectively.

pWHM416 and pWHM418 were derived from these templates by PCR mutagenesis and subcloning as explained in the Experimental section. Plasmid pANT841H is a pANT841 derivative containing the hygromycin resistance (*hyg*) gene from plasmid pXH106³²⁾ as a 1.7 kb EcoRV-*Sma*I fragment and inserted at *Ecl*136II site of pANT841. A three piece ligation of pWHM416 and pWHM418 with the *Spe*I-*Nsi*I fragment containing the DEBS3 TE gene into the *Kpn*I-*Hind*II sites of pANT841H gave pWHM419.



(C) The region of the *rif* gene cluster undergoing recombination with pWHM419 is shown at the top. Homology driven recombination by a single crossover between the two *rifE* regions, as indicated by the 'X', gives the WMH1757 hygromycin resistant *rifE*::*TE rifF* strain. The 7.8 kb *PshAT* fragment shown in Fig. 7 is indicated by the line above the WMH1757 genotype.

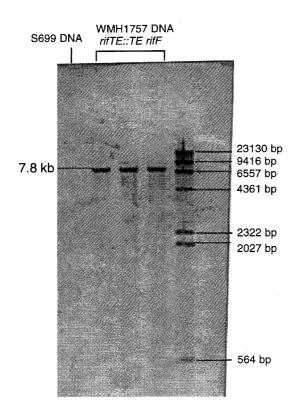


Fig. 7. Genotype of the *A. mediterranei* S699 *rifE::TE rifF* mutant strain.

Total DNA from the S699 and three *rifE*::*TE rifF* mutant strains was digested with *Psh*AI, separated by electrophoresis in a 0.8% agarose gel, transferred to a nylon membrane, and probed with DEBS3 TE DNA fragment as described above for the analysis of the *rifF* mutant. Molecular weight markers are shown on the right hand side.

should, to form the engineered Rif PKS. The genes governing AHBA biosynthesis lying downstream of the *ORF1* gene were also expected to be expressed, based on the behavior of strains with disrupted *rifD* and *rifE* PKS genes¹¹.

The metabolite profile of the WMH1757 strain, when cultured in the same way as the *rifR* and *rifR rifF* mutant strains, showed the presence of the same mixture of tetra- to decaketide shunt products as in the latter two strains (data not shown). Preferential formation of the undecaketide nor any of the other, smaller ketides was not observed. We did not compare the relative amounts of the shunt products isolated from the WMH1757 *rifE*::*TE rifF* strain with those produced by the *rifF* or *rifR rifF* mutants.

Discussion

Many of the gene clusters that have been cloned from macrolide and nonribosomal peptide producing bacteria contain homologous genes for thioesterase 2-like proteins. In the case of pikromycin²⁵⁾ and tylosin²⁶⁾, inactivation of these genes resulted in a major decrease in antibiotic yield. Similar results have been reported for a strain that makes the non-ribosomal peptide antibiotic, surfactin²⁷⁾. This has led to the suggestion that the thioesterase 2 enzymes act as editing enzymes, able to detect and release abnormal substrates affixed to modular PKS or nonribosomal peptide synthetase enzymes, to protect them from becoming inactivated^{11,26,27)}. HEATHCOTE et al.²⁸⁾ have recently shown that the Streptomyces fradiae Orf5 thioesterase 2, when purified from an E. coli strain expressing the tyl ORF5 gene from the cluster of genes governing tylosin biosynthesis, can efficiently hydrolyze p-nitrophenyl and N-acetylcysteamine thioesters of acetate, propionate, butyrate as well as several other acylthioesters²⁸⁾. The highest activity was towards the propionate esters. These observations lend support to the idea²⁸⁾ that one role of such enzymes is to remove propionate groups from the PKS that have resulted from decarboxylation of enzyme-bound 2-methylmalonate groups, the carbon chain extension substrate, before they can react with the acylthioester bound to the KS domain. Without their removal, the propionate groups would block further extension of the carbon chain by the PKS.

Since we had found that the rifamycin PKS appears to release its carbon chain assembly intermediates prematurely, we investigated whether this is catalyzed by a specific enzyme. Athough these are normal intermediates while attached to the PKS in their 8-hydroxydihydronaphthoquinone forms, if spontaneous dehydration were to occur while they are still attached to the PKS enzymes, the resulting 8-deoxynaphthoquinones might block further extension of the carbon chain. The RifR protein might catalyze the release of such intermediates since it is a member of the thioesterase 2 like protein family. If this were so, then we expected to see a large decrease in the amounts of these shunt products accumulated by the S699 and rifF strains when the rifR gene is inactivated. However, this is not the case since the rifR mutation caused about the same percentage decrease in the titer of both 1 and the shunt products in the wild-type background and of the shunt products in the *rifF* genetic background. As has been seen for the other antibiotics noted above, the rifR mutant produced considerably less rifamycin B and thus lack of the RifR protein clearly has a negative effect on some step of antibiotic biosynthesis. This step must be associated with

VOL. 53 NO. 5

the polyketide assembly process, since the yields of the PKS shunt products were decreased as much as that of 1. Although the available information does not allow us to deduce the exact role of RifR, an editing activity is the most reasonable function and lack of this would tie up a certain fraction of the PKS enzymes to result in a lowered overall yield of their product(s).

In contrast, the expectation that the addition of the DEBS3 TE domain to the *C*-terminal end of the RifE PKS subunit would result in enhanced production of the undecaketide precursor of proansamycin X, or less likely, one or more of the ketide intermediates accumulated by the S699 and *rifF* mutants, was not borne out by our results. Hence, it appears that the substrate recognition properties of the RifE::TE enzyme are not broad enough to encompass the proximal region of the undecaketide intermediate, even though the basic properties of the novel Rif PKS were maintained, as reflected in the formation of the tetra- to decaketide shunt products.

Together, these two sets of results show that premature release of its carbon chain assembly intermediates is an unusual property of the Rif PKS itself.

Experimental

Bacterial Strains and Plasmids

The *A. mediterranei* S699 strain was obtained from GIANCARLO LANCINI at the former Lepetit laboratories, Geranzano, Italy, and the ATCC 13689 strain from STEFANO DONADIO at Biosearch S.p.a, Italy. *E. coli* strain DH5 α^{29} was used for routine subcloning. Plasmid pANT841 was obtained from W. R. STROHL, Ohio State University.

Media, Growth Conditions, and Fermentations

A. mediterranei strains were maintained on YMG agar and grown in YMG liquid medium¹⁷⁾ for preparation of protoplasts and seed inoculum for fermentations. Seed inoculum was also grown in YMG medium. A. mediterranei transformants were selected with hygromycin at 100 μ g/ml in solid medium and 100 μ g/ml in liquid medium. E. coli strains were grown in LB medium²⁹⁾ supplemented with ampicillin (100 μ g/ml), apramycin (25 μ g/ml) or tetracycline (15 μ g/ml) for the selection of plasmids.

General DNA Manipulations

DNA isolation, restriction and ligation were performed according to standard techniques²⁹⁾. Qiaex resin (Qiagen, Chatsworth, CA) was used routinely to purify DNA

fragments from gel slices. Southern analysis of genomic DNA from the *A. mediterranei* strains was performed by standard methods^{29,30)} using the *ApaI* segment of the *rifR* gene as the probe DNA after labeling it with the digoxigenin-dUTP DNA labeling and detection kit from Boehringer, Mannheim, Germany.

Mutation of the A. mediterranei S699 rifR Gene

The rifR gene was replaced by first creating the suicide plasmid pWHM414 by insertion of the 2.7 kb SphI-ApaLI DNA segment from ORF13 and the 3.2 kb ApaLI-NheI DNA segment from rifR and ORF20 (Fig. 3), cloned from pFKN108-E2 (T.-W. YU & H.G.F, unpublished), into the SphI-NheI site of pANT841, a pUC18 derivative that also carries a 1.7 kb hygromycin resistance gene inserted in its SmaI site¹¹⁾. This resulted in pWHM414 carrying a 345 bp in-frame deletion at the N-terminal end of the rifR ORF. The heat-denatured pWHM414 was introduced by electroporation into the A. mediterranei S699 strain and the HGF019 *rifF* mutant strain as described by $Y \cup et al.^{11}$, and hygromycin resistant transformants resulting from integration of pWHM414 by a single-crossover homologous recombination were selected. Putative double crossover mutant strains were obtained by serial transfer of the hygromycin resistant transformants on solid medium and screening for hygromycin sensitive clones. The WMH1680 rifR mutant and WMH1681 rifF rifR double mutants were chosen from clones exhibiting the expected genotype (Fig. 3B).

Construction of the A. mediterranei S699 rifE::TÉ rifF Mutant Strain

To construct pWHM419 (Fig. 6B), SpeI and NsiI sites were introduced at the C-terminal ends of rifE and rifF as follows. Pairs of oligonucleotide primers were designed for PCR subcloning for the two regions of DNA that flank rifF so that a SpeI site could be introduced in the ClaI-SpeI fragment obtained from the rifE/rifF template (Fig. 6B). The ClaI-XhoI segment of the resulting ClaI-SpeI fragment (pWHM415) was replaced with the KpnI-XhoI segment of the template to give pWHM416. The internal BsiWI-PflMI segment of the PCR fragment pWHM417 from the rifF/ORF1/rifG template (Fig. 6B) was also replaced with the same DNA from the template to give pWHM418. The DNA sequences of the remaining portions of pWHM416 and pWHM418 were verified by DNA sequencing. The 848 bp SpeI-NsiI fragment from plasmid pKAO98, containing the DEBS3 TE domain (Fig. 6A), was cloned with pWHM416 and pWHM418 in a three-piece ligation to give pWHM419 (Fig. 6B), in which the last 4 amino acids of the

rifE ACP10 domain and all but the final five amino acids of the *rifF* ORF are replaced with the DEBS3 TE domain (Fig. 6A).

The *A. mediterranei rifE*::*TE rifF* mutant was constructed by introducing pWHM419 into the S699 strain by transformation, isolating hygromycin resistant transformants, and analyzing their genomic DNA by Southern-blot hybridization as described above. Three independent transformants were analyzed and all contained the unique 7.8 kb *Psh*AI fragment (Fig. 7) with the *rifE*::*TE* and $\Delta rifF$ genes expected for the genomic arrangement of the WHM1757 strain shown in Fig. 6C.

Determination of the Metabolic Profile of the A. mediterranei S699 and ATCC 13689 Strains and the rifR, rifF rifR and rifE::TE rifF Mutants

The S699 and rif mutant strains were cultured in 50 ml YMG (g/liter) (yeast extract, 4; malt extract, 10; glucose 4) in 250 ml baffled flasks with 4 g of 3 mm diameter glass beads for 3 days at 300 rpm and 30°C. A 100 µl portion of this seed culture (OD_{600} 0.5) was inoculated into 50 ml YMG medium in 250 ml baffled Erlenmeyer flasks and the cultures were grown as before for 7 days. A 0.5 ml portion of the culture was removed, diluted to 10% with distilled water, and the OD_{600} checked from day 3 to 7. These culture samples were separated from mycelium by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm in an Eppendorf tube, then the mycelia were washed with 0.5 ml distilled water and dried in a vacuum oven at 40°C overnight prior to weighing. The culture broth remaining on day 5 and 6 was acidified with $10\,\mu$ l acetic acid and extracted once with $0.5\,\text{ml}$ ethyl acetate. The ethyl acetate solution was dried in vacuo at less than 40°C and the residue was dissolved in 50 μ l methanol. A 20 μ l portion of this methanol solution was analyzed by HPLC³¹⁾ using a Nova-Pak C₁₈ column (Waters, Milford, MA; 3.9×150 mm; 4μ m particle size) at a flow rate of 1 ml/minute. The mobile phase consisted of a linear gradient from 0.1 M sodium acetate buffer, pH 4.5 (adjusted with acetic acid), to 100% methanol over 20 minutes, followed by 10 minutes at 100% methanol and then immediate return to the initial conditions for a 5 minutes re-equilibration period. The eluent was monitored at 320 nm with the 996 Photodiode Array Detector (Waters). All the calculations of metabolite concentrations and preparation of tables were performed using the Millennium Chromatography Manager (Waters). The calibrations for determining the amounts of tetraketides and penta- to decaketides, and 1 for each set of analyses were generated by comparison of the peak-area ratio using authentic compounds¹¹⁾ as reference standards.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by National Institutes of Health grants AI 20264 to H.G.F and AI 38947 to C.R.H.

References

- SEPKOWITZ, K. A.; J. RAFALLI, L. RILEY, T. E. KIEHN & D. ARMSTRONG: Tuberculosis in the AIDS era. Clin. Microbiol. Revs. 8: 180~199, 1995
- LANCINI, G. & W. ZANICHELLI: Structure-activity relationship in rifamycins. *In* Structure-Activity Relationship Among the Semisynthetic Antibiotics (D. PERLMAN, ed.), Academic Press, New York; 1977, pp. 531~600
- 3) LANCINI, G. & B. CAVALLERI: Rifamycins. In Biotechnology of Industrial Antibiotics, 2nd ed. (W. R. STROHL, ed.), Marcel Dekker, New York, 1997, pp. 521~549
- 4) WEHRLI, W.: Rifampin: Mechanisms of action and resistance. Revs. Infect. Dis. 5: S407~S411, 1983
- 5) BARTOLUCCI, C.; L. CELLAI, P. DI FILIPPO, A. SEGRE, M. BRUFANI, L. FILOCAMO, A. D. BIANCO, M. GUISO, V. BRIZZI & A. BENEDETTO: Rifamycin as inhibitors of retroviral reverse transcriptase from M MULV, RAV-2 and HIV-1. II Farmico 47: 1367~1383, 1992
- 6) BACCHI, A.; G. PELIZZI, M. NEBULONI & P. FERRARI: Comprehensive study on structure-activity relationships of rifamycins: discussion of molecular and crystal structure and spectroscopic and thermochemical properties of rifamycin O. J. Med. Chem. 41: 2319~ 2332, 1998
- 7) AUGUST, P. R.: L. TANG, Y. J. YOON, S. NING, R. MÜLLER, T. W. YU, M. TAYLOR, D. HOFFMANN, C. G. KIM, X. ZHANG, C. R. HUTCHINSON & H. G. FLOSS: Biosynthesis of the ansamycin antibiotic rifamycin. Deductions from the molecular analysis of the rif biosynthetic gene cluster of *Amycolatopsis mediterranei*. Chem. Biol. 5: 69~79, 1998
- 8) TANG, L.; Y. J. JOON, C. Y. CHOI & C. R. HUTCHINSON: Charactarization of the enzymatic domains in the modular polyketide synthase involved in rifamycin B biosynthesis by *Amycolatopsis mediterranei*. Gene 216: 255~265, 1998
- 9) SCHUPP, T.; C. TOUPET, N. ENGEL & S. GOFF: Cloning and sequence analysis of the putative rifamycin polyketide synthase gene cluster from *Amycolatopsis mediterranei*. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 159: 201~207, 1998
- CANE, D. E.; C. T. WALSH & C. KHOSLA: Harnessing the biosynthetic code: combinations, permutations, and mutations. Science 282: 63~66, 1998
- 11) YU, T. W.; Y. SHEN, Y. DOI-KATAYAMA, L. TANG, C. PARK, B. S. MOORE, C. R. HUTCHINSON & H.G. FLOSS: Direct evidence that the rifamycin polyketide synthase assembles polyketide chains processively. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 96: 9051~9056, 1999
- 12) STRATMAN, A.; C. TOUPET, W. SCHILLING, R. TRABER, L. OBERER & T. SCHUPP: Intermediates of rifamycin polyketide synthase produced by an Amycolatopsis mediterranei mutant with inactivated rifF gene. Microbiol. 145: 3365~3375, 1999
- 13) GHISALBA, O.; H. FUHRER, W. RICHTER & S. MOSS: A

genetic approach to the biosynthesis of the rifamycinchromophore in *Nocardia mediterranei*. III. Isolation and identification of an early aromatic ansamycin-precursor containing the seven-carbon amino starter-unit and three initial acetate/propionate-units of the ansa chain. J. Antibiotics 34: $58 \sim 63$, 1981

- 14) ANDERSON, M. G.; D. MONYPENNY & R. W. RICKARDS: Biosynthetic origins of the oxygen atoms in the ansamycin antibiotics rifamycin B, O & S. J. C. S., Chem. Commun. 1989: 311~313, 1989
- 15) HUBER, M. L. B.; J. W. PASCHAL, J. P. LEEDS, H. A. KIRST, J. A. WIND, F. D. MILLER & J. R. TURNER: Branchedchain fatty acids produced by mutants of *Streptomyces fradiae*, putative precursors of the lactone ring of tylosin. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 34: 1535~1541, 1990
- 16) KINOSHITA, K.; S. TAKENAKA & M. HAYASHI: Isolation of proposed intermediates in the biosynthesis of mycinamicins. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun.1988: 943~945, 1988
- 17) KIM, C. G.; T. W. YU, C. B. FRYHLE, S. HANDA & H. G. FLOSS: 3-Amino-5-hydroxybenzoic acid synthase, the terminal enzyme in the formation of the precursor of mC₇N units in rifamycin and related antibiotics. J. Biol. Chem. 273: 6030~6040, 1998, and references therein
- 18) KAO, C. M.; G. LUO, L. KATZ, D. E. CANE & C. KHOSLA: Engineered biosynthesis of a triketide lactone from an incomplete modular polyketide synthase. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 116: 11612~11613, 1994
- 19) KAO, C. M.; G. LUO, L. KATZ, D. E. CANE & C. KHOSLA: Manipulation of macrolide ring size by directed mutagenesis of a modular polyketide synthase. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 117: 9105~9106, 1995
- 20) CORÉS, J.; K. E. H. WIESMANN, G. A. ROBERTS, M. J. B. BROWN, J. STAUNTON & P. F. LEADLAY: Repositioning of a domain in a modular polyketide synthase to promote specific chain cleavage. Science 268: 1487~1489, 1995
- 21) KAO, C. M.; G. LUO, L. KATZ, D. E. CANE & C. KHOSLA: Engineered biosynthesis of structurally diverse tetraketides by a trimodular polyketide synthase. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 118: 9184~9185, 1996
- 22) AGGARWAL, R.; P. CAFFREY, P. F. LEADLAY, C. J. SMITH & J. STAUNTON: The thioesterase of the erythromycinproducing polyketide synthase: mechanictic studies *in vitro* to investigate its mode of action and substrate specificity. J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun. 1519~1520, 1995

- 23) WEISSMAN, K. J.; C. J. SMITH, U. HANEFELD, R. AGGARAWAL, M. BYCROFT, J. STAUNTON & P. F. LEADLAY: The thioesterase of the erythromycin-producing polyketide synthases: Influence of acyl chain structure on the mode of release of substrate analogues from the acyl enzyme intermediates. Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 37:1437~1440, 1998
- 24) GOKHALE, R. S.; D. HUNZIKER, D. E. CANE & C. KHOSLA: Mechanism and specificity of the terminal thioesterase domain from the erythromycin polyketide synthase. Chem. Biol. 6: 117~125, 1999
- 25) XUE, Y.; L. ZHAO, H. W. LIU & D. H. SHERMAN: A gene cluster for macrolide antibiotic biosynthesis in *Streptomyces venezuelae*: Architecture of metabolic diversity. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 95: 12111~12116, 1998
- 26) BUTLER, A. R.; N. BATE & E. CUNDLIFFE: Impact of thioesterase activity on tylosin biosynthesis in *Streptomyces fradiae*. Chem. Biol. 6: 287~292, 1999
- 27) SCHNEIDER, A. & M. A. MARAHIEL: 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, 1998
- 28) HEATHCOTE, M. L.; J. STAUNTON & P. F. LEADLAY: Substrate specificity and putative roles of thioesterases in polyketide biosynthesis. Abstr. of Eleventh International Symposium on the Biology of the Actinomycetes, Sissi, Crete, October, 1999; p. 187
- 29) SAMBROOK, J.; E. F. FRITSCH & T. MANIATIS: Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual, (2nd edn), Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY, 1989
- 30) HOPWOOD, D. A.; M. J. BIBB, K. F. CHATER, T. KIESSER, C. J. BRUTON, D. J. LYDIATE, C. P. SMITH, J. M. WARD & H. SCHREMPF: Genetic manipulation of *Streptomyces*: a laboratory manual. The John Innes Foundation, Norwich, United Kingdom, 1985
- 31) MOORE, D. J.; P. J. PERRINO, C. P. KLERER & P. ROBERTSON: High-performance liquid chromatographic assay for two rifamycin-derived hypocholesterolemic agents in liver and biological fluids. J. Chromatograph. 612: 310~314, 1993
- 32) HAHN, D. R.; P. J. SOLENBERG & R. H. BALTZ: *Tn*5099, a *xylE* promoter probe transposon for *Streptomyces* spp. J. Bacteriol. 173: 5573~5577, 1991