- 1 A chromatogram-simplified *Streptomyces albus* host for heterologous production of natural
- 2 products
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15 Abstract

Cloning natural product biosynthetic gene clusters from cultured or uncultured sources and 16 17 their subsequent expression by genetically tractable heterologous hosts is an essential strategy for the 18 elucidation and characterisation of novel microbial natural products. The availability of suitable 19 expression hosts is a critical aspect of this workflow. In this work, we mutagenised five endogenous 20 biosynthetic gene clusters from Streptomyces albus S4, which reduced the complexity of chemical 21 extracts generated from the strain and eliminated antifungal and antibacterial bioactivity. We showed 22 that the resulting quintuple mutant can express foreign BGCs by heterologously producing 23 actinorhodin, cinnamycin and prunustatin. We envisage that our strain will be a useful addition to the 24 growing suite of heterologous expression hosts available for exploring microbial secondary 25 metabolism.

26 Introduction

27 The majority of clinically used antibiotics are derived from natural products produced by 28 Streptomyces species and other closely related Actinobacteria, which were introduced into the clinic 29 during a 'golden era' of antibiotic discovery spanning 1940-1960 [1]. The utility of these agents has 30 been eroded over the last half-century due to misuse. As a consequence, there is now an urgent need 31 to discover new antibiotics to treat bacterial infections, particularly those caused by drug-resistant 32 'ESKAPE' pathogens (Enterococcus faecium, Staphylococcus aureus, Klebsiella pneumoniae, 33 Acinetobacter baumanii, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, and Enterobacter species) [2]. Growing concerns 34 about resistance to antibacterial agents combined with the failure to find new leads from the screening 35 of large libraries of synthetic compounds has led to a renewed interest in natural products discovery [3]. This renaissance has been fuelled to a large extent by the relatively inexpensive cost to sequence 36 37 genomes of strains that produce promising bioactive small molecules. For example, there are 38 currently >750 streptomycete genomes available in GenBank compared to four years ago when there 39 were only ~150 [4]. Analysis of these genome sequences have illuminated the exciting prospect that 40 the majority of microbial secondary metabolism has yet to be uncovered [5].

41 Further study of potentially interesting natural product biosynthetic pathways is often 42 precluded by the poor growth characteristics of the strain and/or genetic intractability. Therefore, a 43 heterologous expression strategy using a faster-growing and genetically tractable host is frequently 44 adopted and indeed has become the method of choice for accessing new natural products and 45 interrogating their biosynthesis. Technology for generating and screening large-insert genomic 46 libraries (e.g. cosmid, BAC and PAC libraries) to obtain biosynthetic gene cluster (BGC) clones are 47 well established [6,7]. These approaches are in the process of being superseded by recombination-48 based cloning methods for targeted 'capture' of DNA both from isogenic strains [8] and 49 environmental DNA [9] as well as the ability to assemble natural/synthetic DNA in vivo and in vitro 50 (recently reviewed by [10-12]).

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Although fastidiously growing bacterial species, such as Escherichia coli, have been used for

52 some heterologous expression studies, its use has thus far been rather limited because of poor 53 expression of native promoter systems, but in some cases can be overcome by engineered promoter 54 swaps either with the T7 promoter or those recognised by alternative RNA polymerase sigma factors 55 [13,14]. As a consequence, streptomycetes and other related genera such as Saccharopolyspora and 56 *Salinispora* are the go-to platform for heterologous expression, because they are metabolically robust 57 with respect to availability of precursors and cofactors, and native promoter elements are more likely 58 to be functional compared to alternative hosts [11,15]. Unsurprisingly, well studied species of 59 Streptomyces such as S. avermitilis, S. coelicolor, S. lividans and S. venezuelae are commonly used 60 for heterologous expression studies [16,17]. Several of the aforementioned species have been 61 engineered for improved heterologous expression, principally via the mutation of endogenous BGCs 62 [18-21].

63 Despite the utility of these strains, S. albus is still frequently used as a heterologous expression 64 host. S. albus strains are seemingly distributed worldwide and encode a diverse range of natural 65 products produced by a variety of biosynthetic systems [4,22]. They are genetically tractable and 66 grow relatively quickly using conventional growth media and methodology. S. albus J1074 in 67 particular has served as a workhorse for heterologous production of natural products over the last two 68 decades and recently a strain with reduced biosynthetic pathway content was generated [23]. 69 Relatively recently, we isolated a streptomycete from leafcutting ants that is closely related to S. albus 70 J1074, which we designated *Streptomyces albus* S4 [24]. J1074 and S4 are phylogenetically closely 71 related strains differing in only 12 nucleotide positions across >12 kb of DNA sequence representing 72 29 conserved single-copy conserved phylogenetic markers [22]. The two strains share ~80% of their 73 BGCs, but S4 encodes a larger and more diverse complement of secondary metabolites [4]. The 74 genetic tractability, robust and fastidious growth and ability to produce diverse secondary metabolites 75 motivated us to modify this strain for easier detection of heterologously produced natural products.

76 There were two major aims of this work, the first aim was to construct a strain that when 77 cultivated under routine conditions was unable to produce antifungal or antibacterial compounds, and

- the second aim was to construct a strain from which chemical extracts with reduced complexity could
- be generated. Here we describe the construction of a chromatogram-simplified strain of *S. albus* S4
- 80 where five BGCs have been mutated and we demonstrate its ability to heterologously produce
- 81 actinorhodin, cinnamycin and prunustatin.

82 **Results and Discussion**

83 **Construction of** Streptomyces albus S4 Δ 5. The S. albus S4 genome was previously sequenced [25,26] and it harbours at least 28 putative natural product biosynthetic gene clusters 84 85 (BGCs) according to antiSMASH 3.0 (Fig. 1A, [27]. Chemical extracts prepared from S. albus S4 86 cultivated under a variety of culture conditions are dominated by antimycins and candicidin [24,26]. 87 Therefore, abolishing production of these compounds was a top priority in our mutagenesis strategy. 88 With the longer-term goal of ultimately developing an S. albus host as a platform to screen 89 uncharacterised BGC clones for antibacterial activity, we also targeted the albaflavenone, surugamide 90 and fredericamycin BGCs because these compounds have been reported to have antibacterial 91 properties [28-30]. We mutated these five BGCs using conventional marker exchange mutagenesis 92 (candicidin), PCR-targeted recombineering (antimycin) and CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing 93 (albaflavenone, surugamide and fredericamycin). The workflow for this strategy is presented in Fig. 94 1B and is described in the materials and methods section. The final mutant strain, which we 95 designated S. albus S4 Δ 5, harbours a complete pathway deletion in the antimycin BGC, and deletions 96 in key biosynthetic genes for the other four targeted BGCs. Deletions were first verified by PCR and 97 the overall integrity of the S. albus S4 Δ 5 strain was verified by genome sequencing using the Illumina 98 MiSeq platform. The expected mutations were verified by mapping sequence reads to the S. albus S4 99 wild-type genome sequence [25]. A schematic representation of the relevant areas of the mapping are 100 displayed in Fig. 1B and Figs. S1-S5.

101 Sporulation, biomass and bioactivity of $\Delta 5$. In order to ensure that serial passage (e.g. to 102 cure plasmids with temperature-sensitive replicons such as that employed by pCRISPomyces-2) did 103 not lead to mutation(s) adversely impacting sporulation and/or growth of $\Delta 5$, we assessed sporulation 104 on MS agar and analysed its ability to produce biomass when cultivated using TSB. The $\Delta 5$ mutant 105 strain sporulated equally as well as the wild-type strain, which indicated the absence of mutations 106 deleterious to a normal developmental cycle and it also produced a comparable abundance of 107 dispersed biomass to that of its parent (Fig. 2AB). Next, we analysed the bioactivity of ethyl acetate

108 chemical extracts prepared from culture supernatants of *S. albus* S4 wild-type or Δ 5 cultivated in 109 liquid MS against *Candida albicans* and *Micrococcus luteus*, which revealed that extracts from the 110 Δ 5 strain were not bioactive (Fig. 2CD).

111 **Chromatographic profile of** Δ **5.** Chemical extracts generated from *S. albus* S4 wild-type are 112 complex and chromatographs are dominated by candicidins and antimycins when using a standard 113 aqueous/organic phase gradient of 5-95% acetonitrile or methanol [26,31]. In order to assess to what 114 extent this complexity was reduced in extracts generated from the $\Delta 5$ mutant, we cultivated S4 wild-115 type and $\Delta 5$ using liquid MS and performed an ethyl acetate extraction of the resulting clarified 116 culture supernatant. Next, extracts were analysed by HPLC, which as anticipated, revealed that the 117 extracts generated from the $\Delta 5$ were far less complex than those generated from the wild-type strain 118 (Fig. 3). The cleaner chromatographic background of the S. albus S4 Δ 5 strain will simplify detection 119 of heterologously produced natural products by HPLC or LC-MS and ease their subsequent 120 purification.

121 Heterologous production of actinorhodin, cinnamycin and prunustatin. As a proof of 122 principle to demonstrate that S4 Δ 5 can produce natural products encoded by other taxa, we 123 introduced three foreign BGCs: the actinorhodin BGC from S. coelicolor A3(2), the cinnamycin BGC 124 from S. cinnamoneus DSM 40646 and the neoantimycin/prunustatin BGC from S. orinoci B-NRRL 125 3379 [20,32,33]. These BGCs were selected in part due to accessibility, but also because they 126 comprised three different biosynthetic systems. Actinorhodin is a type II polyketide antibacterial, 127 cinnamycin is a ribosomally synthesised and post-translationally modified peptide antibacterial and 128 neoantimycin/prunustatin is a hybrid non-ribosomal peptide / polyketide anti-cancer compound. 129 Recombinant strains harbouring these BGCs were generated and cultivated using MS agar or TSB 130 for seven days. Next, chemical extracts were prepared from the $\Delta 5/Act$, $\Delta 5/Cin$, $\Delta 5/Prun$ strains and 131 their parent and subsequently analysed by LC-HRMS (Fig. 4). Inspection of the resulting data 132 revealed the presence of compounds consistent with y-actinorhodin, cinnamycin and prunustatin in 133 chemical extracts prepared from $\Delta 5/Act$, $\Delta 5/Cin$, $\Delta 5/Prun$, respectively and importantly, their absence

134 from the $\Delta 5$ parental strain. These data indicate that *S. albus* S4 $\Delta 5$ is capable of heterologous 135 expressing foreign BGCs from classes of varying biosynthetic logic.

136 Summary and concluding perspectives. We have constructed a strain of S. albus S4 in 137 which the antimycin, candicidin, albaflavenone, surugamide and fredericamycin BGCs have been 138 mutated. We showed that the resulting strain, S. albus S4 $\Delta 5$, possessed a simpler chromatographic 139 profile and did not possess antibacterial or antifungal activity using the growth media tested and also 140 demonstrated that it could serve as a surrogate host for the production of actinorhodin, cinnamycin 141 and prunustatin. Interestingly, during the course of our study we also tried to heterologously produce 142 bicyclomycin and methylenomycin, but were unable to detect either metabolite by LC-HRMS. The 143 unsuccessful attempt to heterologously produce bicyclomycin and methylenomycin underscores a 144 key consideration for heterologous expression studies – host selection. For instance, S. coelicolor is 145 a native producer of methylenomycin and was recently used as a host for bicyclomycin production 146 [34], however it will not produce neoantimycin/prunustatin unless the biosynthetic genes are 147 artificially expressed from constitutive promoters [33]. Indeed, there is no panacea in terms of a heterologous expression host, each one being somewhat enigmatic with peculiarities rooted in 148 149 primary metabolism (i.e. precursor and co-factor supply) or promoter recognition elements. It is 150 therefore advantageous and indeed wise when pursuing heterologous expression of a BGC to cast a 151 wide net and screen multiple hosts. The S. albus S4 Δ 5 strain constructed here will hopefully be a 152 useful tool to that end.

153 Materials and methods

154 Growth media, strains and reagents. Escherichia coli strains were cultivated using Lennox agar (LA) or broth (LB) and Streptomyces strains were cultured using mannitol-soya flour (MS) agar, 155 156 tryptic soy broth (TSB) or agar (TSA) [35]. Culture media was supplemented with antibiotics as 157 required at the following concentrations: apramycin (50 µg/ml), carbenicillin (100 µg/ml), 158 hygromycin (75 µg/ml), kanamycin (50 µg/ml), nalidixic acid (25 µg/ml). Enzymes were purchased 159 from New England Biolabs and oligonucleotides were purchased from Integrated DNA 160 Technologies. The bacterial strains, cosmids and plasmids used in this study are described in Table 161 S1 and the oligonucleotides are described in Table S2.

162 Mutagenesis of biosynthetic gene clusters. In order to delete the *ant* BGC, the *antF* gene on 163 S4 Cosmid213 [31] was replaced with the apramycin resistance cassette from pIJ773 using PCR 164 targeted mutagenesis as previously described [36]. The mutated cosmid was used to generate an 165 apramycin resistant S. albus S4 *AantF* strain. Next, antABCDEFGHIJKLMNO on Cosmid213 were 166 replaced with the apramycin resistance cassette in the same manner as above and subsequently 167 removed by the Flp recombinase, after which the *bla* gene was replaced with the hygromycin 168 resistance cassette also harbouring an *oriT* from pIJ10701 as previously described [36] to result in 169 Cosmid213 AantFLP B2H. This cosmid was mobilised to S. albus S4 AantF and a single hygromycin 170 resistant transconjugant was selected and subsequently passaged twice in the absence of selection 171 prior to replica plate identification of an apramycin sensitive and hygromycin sensitive isolate that 172 we named S. albus S4 Δ 1. The integrity of this strain was confirmed by PCR using primers RFS236 173 and RFS237.

174 The *can* BGC was mutated using the previously constructed *fscC* (*STRS4_02234*) deletion 175 plasmid, pKC1132-UpDn [26]. pKC1132-UpDn was mobilised to *S. albus* S4 Δ 1 strain and a single 176 apramycin resistant transconjugant was selected and passaged as above until an apramycin-sensitive 177 isolate was identified, which we named *S. albus* S4 Δ 2.

178 The surugamide, fredericamycin and albaflavenone BGCs were mutated using the 179 pCRISPomyces-2 system describe previously [37]. First, a single-guide RNA protospacer was 180 generated by annealing oligonucleotides EH_S9 and EH_S10 (surugamide), EH_S3 and EH_S4 181 (albaflavenone) and EH_S7 and EH_S8 (fredericamycin); the resulting DNA fragments were cloned 182 into the BbsI site of pCRISPomyces-2 by Golden Gate Assembly. Second, two overlapping DNA 183 fragments representing a homology-directed repair template were generated by PCR using the 184 primers listed in Table S2. The overlapping PCR products were subsequently cloned into the XbaI 185 site of protospacer-containing pCRISPomyces-2 plasmid using the NEBbuilder HiFi DNA assembly 186 kit. The resulting CRISPR/Cas9 editing plasmids, pCRISPomyces-2-sur, pCRISPomyces-2-alb, 187 pCRISPomyces-2-fdm were sequentially mobilised to Streptomyces and cured as described 188 previously [38] and schematically illustrated in Figure S1 to result in the quintuple mutant strain 189 described in this study, S. albus S4 $\Delta 5$.

Genome sequencing and bioinformatics analysis. *S. albus* S4 Δ5 chromosomal DNA was
sequenced by Microbes NG (Birmingham, UK) using the Illumina MiSeq platform. This resulted in
the generation of 2,859,380 paired-end reads that were 250 nt in length. 2,809,652 of these reads
were mapped the *S. albus* S4 wild-type chromosome (GenBank accession CADY00000000.1 [25])
using the Geneious assembler (version R8.1.19). Schematic representations of relevant loci depicted
in Figs. S2-S6 were generated using Geneious version R8.1.19.

Bioactivity assays. Indicator organism was cultivated overnight in LB at 37 °C. Overnight culture was diluted to an OD_{625nm} of 0.08 in LB and spread onto an LB agar plate using a rotary platform. Sterile paper discs (6 mm diameter) holding 60 µl of chemical extract were placed atop seeded indicator plates, which were subsequently incubated at 37 °C (*Micrococcus luteus*) or room temperature (*Candida albicans*) and visualized the following day.

HPLC analysis. *S. albus* strains were cultivated in liquid MS (50 ml) whilst shaking at 220
 rpm in a 250 ml flask at 30 °C for 7 days. Bacterial cells and solid matter from the culture medium
 were removed by centrifugation and 45 ml of supernatant were extracted with 90 ml of ethyl acetate.

The extract was evaporated to dryness under reduced pressure and resuspended in 100% methanol (500 µl). The methanolic extract was centrifuged for 10 minutes at 16,000 x *g* to remove insoluble material prior to sample injection (10 µl) into a Dionex HPLC instrument. Compounds were separated on a Phenomenex Luna C18 column (5 µm, 150 x 4.6 mm) using the following gradient (solvent A: 5% acetonitrile, 0.1% formic acid, solvent B: 95% acetonitrile, 0.05% formic acid, flow rate 1 ml/min): 0-40 min, 0-100% B; 40-43 min, 100% B; 43-51 min 0% B.

210 LCMS analysis. Clones of the actinorhodin, cinnamycin and neoantimycin BGCs were 211 introduced into S. albus $\Delta 5$ by intergeneric conjugation from Escherichia coli ET12567/pUZ8002. 212 Apramycin resistant transconjugants were verified to have received BGCs by PCR. For the 213 production of actinorhodin and prunustatin, MS agar plates were seeded with either $\Delta 5$ or $\Delta 5/Act$ or 214 Δ 5/Prun and cultivated for 7 days at 30 °C. The agar was then cut into small rectangular pieces and 215 placed into an Erlenmeyer flask and metabolites extracted with ethyl acetate (100 ml) for 24 hrs. The 216 ethyl acetate extract was decanted and concentrated in vacuo and the dried residue was resuspended 217 in 100% methanol (500 µl). For the production of cinnamycin, S. albus S4 Δ 5 and Δ 5/Cin strains 218 were cultured in 50 ml TSB for 7 days at 30 °C. The resulting mycelia was collected by centrifugation 219 and extracted with 100% methanol (45 ml) for 4 hours. The methanolic extracts were evaporated to 220 dryness *in vacuo* and resuspended in 100% methanol (500 µl) as above. Equal volumes of methanolic 221 extract for three independently cultivated replicates of $\Delta 5$, $\Delta 5/Act$, $\Delta 5/Cin$, $\Delta 5/Prun$ were pooled and 222 centrifuged for 10 minutes at 16,000 x g to remove insoluble material prior to analysis by high 223 resolution electrospray ionization liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-HRMS). Only the 224 supernatant (2 µl) was injected into a Bruker MaXis Impact TOF mass spectrometer and equipped 225 with a Dionex Ultimate 3000 HPLC exactly as previously described [13].

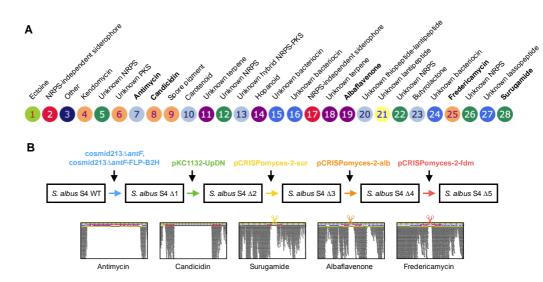
Acknowledgements. We are grateful to Iain Manfield for assistance with HPLC experiments, which were conducted in the University of Leeds Biomolecular Interactions Facility. We thank David Widdick and Mervyn Bibb for providing the cinnamycin and actinorhodin BGC clones, Andy Truman for providing the bicyclomycin BGC clone and Christophe Corre for providing the methylenomycin

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233	Conflicts of interest. The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest and that the
234	funders had no role in study design, data collection and interpretation, or the decision to submit the
235	work for publication.

- **Ethical statement.** No human or animal experiments were conducted during his study.
- 237 References

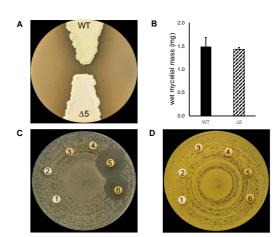
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239 Figures and legends



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241 Fig 1. Streptomyces albus S4 biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) and their mutation. (A) 242 Diagrammatic representation of putative BGCs identified by antiSMASH 3.0. The BGCs are 243 numbered and the experimentally determined or bioinformatically deduced products are listed where known. BGCs targeted for mutagenesis in this study are indicated by bold text. (B) Schematic of the 244 245 workflow used to create S. albus S4 Δ 5. Knockout constructs are colour coded according to their 246 targeted mutation and plasmid and strain designations are described in Table S1. The bottom panel 247 depicts Illumina MiSeq reads mapped to the relevant locus of the S. albus S4 Δ 5 genome illustrating 248 that the desired mutation was achieved. The scissors indicate cleavage by the Cas9 nuclease. Full 249 size versions of these images are shown in Figures S1-S5. 250

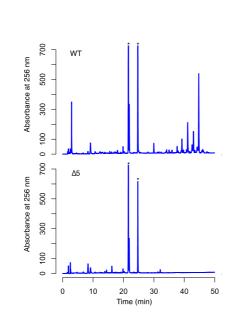


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252 Fig. 2. S. albus S4 Δ 5 sporulates normally and produces biomass equal to that of the WT strain during 253 growth in liquid media. (A) Sporulation of S. albus strains after growth on MS agar for 7 days. (B) 254 Wet cell mass of S. albus strains originating from TSB cultures. The values reported are the means 255 for a 20 ml sample of culture and the vertical bars represent the standard deviation (n = 3). The results 256 are not statistically significantly different in a Student's t test with a P value >0.60. Bioactivity of ethyl acetate chemical extracts generated from S. albus strains cultivated in liquid MS against (C) 257 258 Candida albicans and (D) Micrococcus luteus. The discs on each plate are numbered and are as 259 follows: 1, methanol; 2, extract from MS media; 3 and 4, S. albus $\Delta 5$ extract; 5 and 6, S. albus S4 260 WT extract. A zone of inhibited growth is apparent only for the wild-type extract against *C. albicans*. 261



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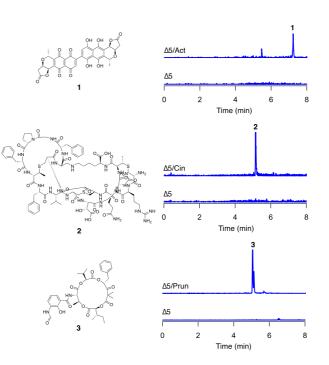


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Fig. 3. HPLC analysis of ethyl acetate extracts prepared from *S. albus* S4 WT and $\Delta 5$ strains. The HPLC chromatogram originating from the $\Delta 5$ strain is simpler in composition compared to that of the WT strain. The asterisks indicate HPLC peaks that are not fully visible in this image, but can be

seen in Fig. S6.

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Fig. 4. Heterologous production of γ -actinorhodin (1), cinnamycin (2) and prunustatin (3) by *S. albus* S4 Δ 5. LC-HRMS analysis of chemical extracts prepared from the indicated strains. The *m*/*z* values

274 corresponding to the $[M+2H]^{2+}$ ions derived from γ -actinorhodin (C₃₂H₂₂O₁₄), cinnamycin

275 (C₈₉H₁₂₅N₂₅O₂₅S₃), and prunustatin (C₃₆H₄₄N₂O₁₂) are shown. The intensity scale for extracted ion

276 chromatograms is 1×10^4 for y-actinorhodin and cinnamycin, and 1×10^5 for prunustatin.

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