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Exploiting the genome sequence of *Streptomyces nodosus* for enhanced antibiotic production

Paul Sweeney, Cormac D. Murphy and Patrick Caffrey[†]

School of Biomolecular and Biomedical Science, University College Dublin, Belfield, Dublin 4, Ireland.

[†]Correspondence to: Patrick Caffrey

patrick.caffrey@ucd.ie

Tel: + 353 1 716 2618

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Abstract

The genome of the amphotericin producer *Streptomyces nodosus* was sequenced. A single scaffold of 7,714,110 bp was obtained. Biosynthetic genes were identified for several natural products including polyketides, peptides, siderophores and terpenes. The majority of these clusters specified known compounds. Most were silent or expressed at low levels and unlikely to compete with amphotericin production. Biosynthesis of a skylamycin analogue was activated by introducing expression plasmids containing either a gene for a LuxR transcriptional regulator or genes for synthesis of the acyl moiety of the lipopeptide. In an effort to boost amphotericin production, genes for acyl CoA carboxylases, a phosphopantetheinyltransferase and the AmphRIV transcriptional activator were overexpressed, and the effects on yields were investigated. This study provides the groundwork for metabolic engineering of *S. nodosus* strains to produce high yields of amphotericin analogues.

Introduction

Many antibiotics and other drugs are synthesised by micro-organisms (Koehn and Carter, 2005). There is a need for a continuous stream of new anti-infectives to counteract the inevitable emergence of resistance in pathogenic microbes. However, few new antibiotics have been identified since the 1960s, suggesting that the supply of easily accessible bioactive natural products is limited (Li and Vederas, 2009; Worthington and Melander, 2013). Several approaches have been used in an effort to discover micro-organisms that synthesise new antibiotics. High throughput methods have been used to culture larger numbers of potential producer organisms, and more sensitive bioassays have been devised to improve detection of hit compounds (Wang et al., 2006). New producers have also been obtained by sampling of previously unexplored environments, and by investigating bacterial symbionts of higher organisms (Wilson et al., 2014). A recent breakthrough has led to laboratory cultivation of soil bacteria that were previously thought to be unculturable (Ling et al., 2015). Re-discoveries of known compounds can be identified and disregarded at an early stage in the screening process (Koehn and Carter, 2005; Fair and Tor, 2014). As well as direct screening, genome sequencing has revealed that actinomycetes and other bacteria contain silent biosynthetic genes for natural products.

The genomes of three important antibiotic producers *Streptomyces coelicolor*, *Streptomyces avermitilis* and *Saccharopolyspora erythraea* were determined by the Sanger dideoxy sequencing method (Bentley et al, 2002; Ikeda et al., 2003; Oliynyk et al., 2007). Since then, next generation technologies have allowed rapid and affordable sequencing of many actinomycete genomes. Bioinformatic methods are available for rapid identification of gene clusters for production of metabolite classes for which biosynthesis is relatively well understood (Weber et al., 2015). Some cryptic gene clusters have been activated by changing growth conditions or by overproduction of transcriptional activators (Sherlach and Hertweck, 2009; Laureti et al., 2011). Genome sequences are also valuable for unravelling new biosynthetic pathways (Rackham et al., 2010), and for metabolic engineering to increase yields of specific secondary metabolites.

Streptomyces nodosus is the only known producer of amphotericin B (Fig. 1), a medically important antifungal antibiotic. This drug is the most effective treatment for life-threatening systemic

mycoses, but has severe side effects. A few less toxic analogues have been obtained by engineering of biosynthetic genes (Stephens et al., 2012; De Poire et al., 2013). Medicinal chemists have also generated promising derivatives by modifying amphotericin B isolated from fermentation cultures of the producer organism (Yamamoto et al., 2015; Davis et al., 2015; Volmer et al., 2010). In this study, we analysed the genome of *S. nodosus*. The aim was to provide a reference sequence for this industrially important micro-organism. The sequence was mined for biosynthetic genes for other natural products. This was done to identify gene clusters that might specify potentially valuable compounds, as well as pathways that might divert precursors away from amphotericin biosynthesis in producer strains. In addition, genes that affect amphotericin yield were identified. We carried out the first experiments aimed at increasing production of the less haemolytic 16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-analogues (Carmody et al., 2005). Genes for acyl CoA carboxylases, a phosphopantetheinyltransferase and a transcriptional activator were overexpressed and the effects on yields of these amphotericins were investigated.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The *S. nodosus* wild type strain was ATCC 14899. This organism has also been deposited as strain IMD2693 in culture collection WDCM227 held at University College Dublin. *S. nodosus* Δ *amphNM* and *S. nodosus* Δ *amphI* were from our laboratory collection. Strains were grown on TS medium or *Streptomyces* medium. Protoplast transformation was carried out as described (Kieser et al., 2000). *E. coli* TG1 was used as a host for plasmid constructions. Agar diffusion assays for antibacterial activity were carried out using *Bacillus subtilis* as an indicator organism.

Genome sequencing

Total cellular DNA was isolated as described previously (Caffrey et al., 2001) and further purified using a Qiagen 500/G column. The genome was sequenced by MWG Biotech (Eurofins Genomics, Ebersberg, Germany) using a 454 Life Sciences FLX sequencer. Initially 130 large contigs were obtained. Paired end techniques were used to assemble these into a single scaffold of 7.7 Mb DNA representing the entire genome. The draft sequence contained several gaps. The largest of these was 11 kb. This region was cloned from a cosmid library (Caffrey et al., 2001). Positive clones were identified by PCR with primers matching sequences adjacent to the gap. The remaining gaps were less than 3kb. The regions containing these gaps were amplified by PCR and sequenced directly by the dideoxy method. The current version of the sequence contains 96 gaps, of which 16 are estimated at between 100 and 400 nucleotides in length, the rest are estimated as tens of nucleotides. Filling of these gaps is still in progress. None of the gaps is in a natural product biosynthetic gene cluster. The sequence has been deposited in the GenBank database with accession number CP009313. Automated annotation is available online. Biosynthetic gene clusters were identified using anti-SMASH (Weber et al., 2015) and manually curated.

Construction of expression plasmids

PCR was carried out using Phusion DNA polymerase (New England BioLabs Inc.) and the primers are listed in Table 1. The *S. nodosus accA2* gene was amplified with primers PSAf3 and PSAr3. The *accB2* gene was amplified with PSAf6 and PSAr6. The two PCR products were digested with *Sac* I and ligated together. The ligated DNA was cut with *Nsi* I and *Hind*III and cloned between the *Pst* I and *Hin* dIII sites of the pIAGO expression vector (Aguirrezabalaga et al., 2000). The resulting construct was named pIAGO-PSA3-6 (contains *accA2* and *accB2* and its associated ϵ gene).

The *S. nodosus pccB* gene was amplified with primers PSAf2 and PSAr2v2. The DNA was digested with *Sac* I and ligated to the *Sac* I –cut PCR-amplified *accA2* gene, as in construction of the previous plasmid. The *accA2-pccB* DNA was digested with *Nsi* I and *Hin* dIII and cloned between the *Pst* I and *Hin* dIII sites of pIAGO. The resulting construct was named pIAGO-PSA2-3V2 (contains *accA2* and *pccB* with its ϵ gene).

Construction of the other expression plasmids was straightforward. Biosynthetic genes for the lipopeptide acyl moiety were amplified using primers PS1 and PS4. The Lux, R4, Ppt and Epim forward and reverse primers were used to amplify the genes for the LuxR protein, AmphRIV, phosphopantetheine transferase and epimerase. *Hin* dIII and *Bam* HI or *Bgl* II sites were incorporated to allow cloning between the *Bam* HI and *Hin* dIII sites of the vector. A list of all the expression plasmids constructed is given in Table 2.

Extraction of lipopeptide

S. nodosus Δ *amphI* strains transformed with pIAGO-LuxR, pIAGO-SkyPKS or pIAGO were grown for 5 days on fructose-dextrin medium (Caffrey et al., 2001). Cultures were centrifuged to sediment mycelia cells. The supernatant fractions were extracted with ethyl acetate and the pellet fractions were extracted with methanol. The extracts were concentrated by rotary evaporation and analysed by HPLC. Authentic skyllamycin A was provided by Professor Roderich Sussmuth, Technical University of Berlin, Germany.

HPLC and mass spectrometry

HPLC was carried out on a Varian ProStar HPLC system with a ProStar 335 photodiode array detector. All separations were with the use of an Agilent Zorbax SB-C18 (4.6 x 150mm, 5 μ m for analytical and 9.4 x 150mm, 5 μ m for semi-preparative). The solvents used were A: H₂O (0.1% TFA), and B: acetonitrile (0.1% TFA). The analytical runs were carried out at 1ml/min and the semi-preparative at 4ml/min. The gradient was 5% B for 2 min, 5 to 35% B over 6 min, 35% to 100% B over 13 min, 100% B for 1 min, 100 to 5% B over 3min.

Low resolution mass spectrometry analysis was carried out using a Waters Quattro Micro tandem quadrupole mass spectrometer in both positive and negative ion modes. The ion spectra were determined up to *m/z* 2000. High resolution measurements were determined using a time-of-flight instrument (Waters Corporation, Micromass Ltd, Manchester, UK).

Analysis of amphotericin production

For accurate comparisons, it was necessary to calculate total polyene yields per gram dry weight of biomass. To compare polyene yields, *S. nodosus* $\Delta amphNM$ and transformants were grown for 5 days at 30°C with shaking in *Streptomyces* medium containing 1% (w/v) glycerol. To determine dry weights, mycelial cells from 100ml cultures were sedimented and washed three times with purified water. The pellets were left at 50°C until the dry weight values were constant.

Polyene yields were estimated by UV-visible spectrophotometry. A sample of each culture was added to an equal volume of butanol and shaken to extract all the polyene into the organic layer. In most cases a single extraction was sufficient to recover all of the polyene. A_{320} and A_{405} were measured to estimate yields of 16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-amphotericin B and 8-deoxy-16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-amphotericin A, with extinction coefficients of 71,500 M⁻¹cm⁻¹ and 190,000 M⁻¹cm⁻¹ respectively. These values were combined to obtain the total polyene yield. Triplicate cultures were grown to estimate dry weights and polyene yields.

GC-MS analysis

GC-MS was carried out on organic extracts using a 6890N network GC system, 7683B series injector and 5973 inert mass selective detector, all by Agilent technologies. Samples for derivatisation were incubated with 50µl *N*-methyl-*N*-(trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetamide at 100°C for 1hr. Derivatised and non-derivatised samples (1µl) were injected onto a HP5 MS column. The oven temperature was held at 150 °C for 2 min then raised to 300 °C over 8 min with a run time of 17 min. The operating mass range was from *m/z* 100-500.

Results

Natural product biosynthetic gene clusters in the *S. nodosus* genome

The genome sequence was mined to identify biosynthetic genes for secondary metabolites. Twenty-four clusters were initially identified using Anti-SMASH (Table 3). These included five clusters containing polyketide synthase (PKS) genes, and eight containing non-ribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS) protein genes. There were also clusters capable of synthesising four terpenes, a bacteriocin, ectoine, a lantipeptide, and a butyrolactone. Another three unlinked clusters (7, 10 and 13) function in biosynthesis and transport of an aerobactin-type hydroxamate siderophore (Challis, 2005). Most of the clusters showed a high degree of sequence identity with previously characterised clusters.

The amphotericin cluster includes genes for the only modular PKS encoded within the genome. PKS2, PKS3 and PKS4 are likely to be important for the fitness of the producer organism. PKS2 functions in synthesis of hexahydroxyperylenequinone (HPQ) melanin that protects against UV radiation (Funa et al., 2005). PKS3 synthesises white spore pigment compounds (Shen et al., 1999), and PKS4 synthesises alkylresorcinol lipids that confer rigidity on the cytoplasmic membrane (Funabashi et al., 2008). PKS5 appears to be capable of synthesising the angucycline urdamycin G (Decker and Haag, 1995). Interestingly, the ketosynthase (KS) α gene from this cluster was independently identified by PCR

with degenerate primers (Chuck et al., 2006). We previously cloned this region from a cosmid library and generated targeted deletions in the chromosome of *S. nodosus* Δ *amphNM*; the deletion mutants did not produce increased yields of 16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-amphotericins (P. Caffrey, unpublished data). An organism closely related to *S. nodosus* produces saquayamycins (Uchida et al., 1985). However, the fact that angucyclines have not been observed suggests that cluster 5 is silent or expressed at a very low level under growth conditions favourable for amphotericin production.

While the PKS genes are related to previously characterised clusters, some of the NRPSs are novel. More detailed descriptions of new NRPS clusters are presented in the supplementary information. Four of the eight NRPSs (NRPSs 1, 2, 5 and 6) contain activation (A) and thiolation (T) domains but not condensation domains; these may form modified amino acids rather than peptide products, or they may function in pathways that have yet to be elucidated (Fig.s S1, S2, S3, S4; Tables S1, S2, S3, S4). NRPS3 is closely related to the NRPS for skyllamycins A and B (Pohle et al., 2011). These are 11-residue cyclic depsipeptides modified with a 2-[1-(Z)-propenyl]-cinnamoyl lipid moiety (Fig. 2). The *S. nodosus* cluster contains a gene (SNOD_28885) for an additional cytochrome P450 (Table S5), suggesting that the product is a skyllamycin analogue with an additional hydroxyl or epoxide group. This cluster is normally silent or expressed at a low level (see below). NRPS4 consists of two multienzyme polypeptides and is related to the pyochelin NRPS of *Streptomyces scabei* (Seipke et al., 2011). The gene for the first NRPS4 protein contains a frameshift mutation, which was verified by PCR and re-sequencing. In future work, repair of this frameshift should give a functional assembly line that uses a hydroxybenzoate primer and incorporates and heterocyclises three cysteine residues to thiazoles (Fig.s S5 and S6, Table S6). Pyochelin is synthesised in a similar way except that only two cysteines are incorporated.

NRPS7 consists of three NRPS modules and a PKS module housed within two multienzyme polypeptides (Fig. S7, Table S7). NRPS8 is almost identical to the system that synthesises coelichelin in *Streptomyces coelicolor* (Lautru et al., 2005) (Fig. S8, Table S8).

S. nodosus has the genes for production of the terpenoids albaflavenone, geosmin, and hopanoids (clusters 9, 11 and 14). Biosynthesis of these compounds has been characterised in other streptomycetes (Seipke and Loria, 2009; Cane and Ikeda, 2012; Zhao et al., 2008; Bradley et al., 2010). Cluster 19 contains a putative terpene cyclase with 32% identity to the pentalenene cyclase of *Streptomyces exfoliates* and 31% identity with avermitilol cyclase SAV_76 of *S. avermitilis* (Cane and Ikeda, 2011). The genome contains genes for all enzymes of the methyl erythritol pathway. These are not clustered.

Cluster 1 includes a gene (SNOD_01550) for a bacteriocin that is 54% identical to linocin from *Brevibacterium linens* (Valdes-Stauber and Scherer, 1994). Cluster 5 contains three genes specifically required for biosynthesis of ectoine, an osmotic stabiliser (Reshetnikov et al., 2011). Cluster 24 includes a homologue (SNOD_34350) of the gene for the AfsA protein that synthesises A factor from dihydroxyacetone phosphate and a methyl-branched 3-ketoacyl thioester (Kato et al., 2007). The adjacent SNOD_34345 gene encodes a butyrolactone receptor. This suggests that these compounds function as quorum sensing in populations of *S. nodosus* cells. The lantipeptide encoded by cluster 12 may also function in intercellular communication.

Activation of skyllamycin-like lipopeptide biosynthesis

Three different skyllamycins have been identified so far (Fig. 2). Skyllamycin A has anti-cancer activity (Pohle et al., 2011) whereas skyllamycins B and C inhibit bacterial biofilms (Navarro et al., 2014). Slight structural changes can alter biological activity. We attempted to activate the *S. nodosus* cluster encoding a putative skyllamycin analogue. The NRPS genes are preceded by a 10 kb region containing genes for two acyl carrier proteins and multiple discrete KS, ketoreductase (KR), and dehydratase (DH) enzymes that assemble the substituted cinnamoyl lipid moiety. The PKS and NRPS genes are apparently transcribed in the same direction (Fig. S9). The PKS genes were amplified with primers PS4 and PS1 and cloned into pIAGO. The construct pIAGO-SkyPKS was transformed into an *amphI* mutant of *S. nodosus* that does not produce amphotericins. We did not detect a substituted cinnamate by GC-MS or HPLC. However, a new metabolite appeared that had a UV-visible absorption spectrum very similar to that of skyllamycin A, but had a slightly earlier retention time (Fig. 3 and Fig S10). It is possible that the product of the lipid biosynthetic genes activates the cluster, or alternatively the 11 kb insert causes integration of the construct into the chromosome by homologous recombination. This would place the cluster downstream from the strong *ermE** promoter. The *luxR* (SNOD_28895) gene was also cloned into pIAGO and transformed into *S. nodosus* Δ *amphI*. The new putative lipopeptide was again produced. Extracts containing the new compound were not active against *B. subtilis*. However, even at concentrations of 105 to 140 μ M, skyllamycin A only has weak antibacterial activity (Toki et al., 2001).

Skyllamycin A has a mass of 1482.7 (Pohle et al., 2011). The new *S. nodosus* metabolite was purified by preparative HPLC and analysed by mass spectrometry (Fig. S11). This revealed that the new compound had a mass appropriate for a hydroxylated skyllamycin A ($[M + Na]^+ = 1521.4$). Further work will be required to identify the hydroxylation site, and to investigate biological activities.

Genes affecting amphotericin production

The amphotericin cluster has previously been extensively characterised (Caffrey et al., 2001). This contains PKS and cytochrome P450 genes for assembly and modification of the macrolactone core, genes involved in conversion of GDP- α -D-mannose to GDP-D-mycosamine, a mycosamine glycosyltransferase, and export and regulatory genes. Many unlinked genes also contribute to amphotericin production. These include genes for phosphopantetheinylation of PKS ACP domains, and genes involved in acyl CoA precursor supply. In this study, some of these genes were investigated, with a view to increasing the yields of amphotericin B and its analogues. We have previously shown that phosphomannose isomerase (SNOD_13725) and phosphomannomutase (SNOD_13740) are important for generating GDP- α -D-mannose for mycosamine formation (Nic Lochlainn and Caffrey, 2009).

Acyl CoA carboxylases

Polyketides are synthesised from activated acyl units, commonly malonyl CoA and (2*S*)-methylmalonyl CoA (Marsden et al., 1994). There is evidence that overproduction of acyl CoAs in cells can boost polyketide production (Ryu et al., 2005; Olano et al., 2008). Malonyl CoA is synthesised from acetyl CoA and carbon dioxide in an ATP-requiring reaction catalysed by acetyl CoA carboxylase.

Methylmalonyl CoA can be formed by a number of pathways. In one of these, (2*S*)-methylmalonyl CoA is synthesised by carboxylation of propionyl CoA. Another important pathway involves rearrangement of succinyl CoA to form (2*R*)-methylmalonyl CoA, which can be epimerised to the 2*S* stereoisomer by an epimerase (Leadlay and Fuller, 1983). Two other pathways to methylmalonyl CoA are known (Li et al., 2004). However, the propionyl CoA carboxylase route appears to be the most important for complex polyketide biosynthesis (Murli et al., 1999).

Acetyl CoA and propionyl CoA carboxylases each contain α and β subunits (Rodriguez and Gramajo, 1999). The α subunit contains carboxylase and biotin carrier protein domains. The carboxylase catalyzes ATP-dependent carboxylation of the biotin prosthetic group. The β subunit binds acetyl CoA or propionyl CoA and catalyzes transfer of the carboxyl group from biotin to C-2 of the acyl group to form the dicarboxylic acyl thioesters. Some acyl CoA carboxylases also have an ϵ subunit that aids association between α and β subunits.

In *S. nodosus* the SNOD_20870 *accA2* gene encodes acetyl CoA carboxylase α subunit. SNOD_23485 encodes acetyl CoA carboxylase β subunit gene *accB2*. The SNOD_20890 *pccB* gene encodes propionyl CoA carboxylase β subunit. The *S. nodosus* *accB2* and *pccB* genes both have downstream ϵ subunit genes.

The SNOD_20870, SNOD_23485 and SNOD_20890 genes are homologous to the *S. coelicolor* SCO4921 *accA2*, SCO5535 *accB* and SCO4926 *pccB* genes, respectively. [There is no *S. nodosus* counterpart of the non-essential *S. coelicolor* *accA1* gene SCO6271]. These *S. coelicolor* enzymes have been experimentally characterised. The *S. coelicolor* AccA2 SCO4921 protein can interact with the SCO5535 β subunit to form malonyl CoA, or with SCO4926 to form (2*S*)-methylmalonyl CoA (Diacovich et al., 2002). The β subunits must have their cognate ϵ subunits for good activity *in vitro*. Overexpression of these enzymes in *S. coelicolor* gave a six-fold increase in yield of actinorhodin (Ryu et al., 2006).

S. nodosus has another acetyl CoA carboxylase β subunit gene *accB1* SNOD_29345 which is linked to the urdamycin cluster and lacks an associated ϵ subunit gene. Expression plasmids were constructed for the *S. nodosus* acetyl and propionyl CoA carboxylases, as shown in Fig. 4.

The mutase/epimerase pathway for generation of 2*S* methylmalonyl CoA

The *S. nodosus* genome contains genes for three methylmalonyl CoA mutases. SNOD_20515 and SNOD_27715 each encode α_2 homodimeric enzymes, whereas SNOD_29730 plus SNOD_29735 encode an $\alpha\beta$ heterodimer. SNOD_26810 appears to encode an isobutyryl CoA mutase. The *S. nodosus* methylmalonyl CoA mutase enzymes should be capable of synthesising (2*R*)-methylmalonyl CoA from succinyl CoA. However, there is no obvious gene for a methylmalonyl CoA epimerase that can interconvert (2*R*)- and (2*S*)- methylmalonyl CoA. Possibly this activity is present, but the gene cannot be identified by sequence homology. Some of these epimerases are incorrectly annotated as glyoxylases (Gross et al., 2006). A gene for this enzyme has been identified in a preliminary draft genome sequence of an aromatic heptaene producer, *Actinoplanes caeruleus* (Stephens et al., 2013). The GenBank accession number for the epimerase region is KT374297. This gene was amplified and cloned into

pIAGO and the construct was transformed into *S. nodosus*. The aim was to investigate whether overexpression of the epimerase would increase yields of amphotericins and analogues.

Phosphopantetheine transferases

The ACPs and PCPs involved in fatty acid, polyketide and non-ribosomal peptide biosynthesis are post-translationally modified with phosphopantetheine prosthetic groups. There are three 4'-phosphopantetheine transferases encoded in the *S. nodosus* genome. These were assigned functions based on size, conserved motifs, and homology to known phosphopantetheinyltransferases (Beld et al., 2014). One, SNOD_19940 protein, is likely to be involved in modifying discrete ACPs involved in fatty acid biosynthesis. Another, SNOD_28340 protein, is likely to be involved in modifying ACP domains in NRPSs and PKSs. The third, SNOD_29350 protein, is encoded within the urdamycin cluster and is probably dedicated to ACPs involved in biosynthesis of this aromatic polyketide (Wang et al., 2001). Jiang and co-workers (2013) found that overproduction of a Sfp-type phosphopantetheinyltransferase in *Streptomyces chattanoogensis* L10 gave a 40% increase in production of pimarin. The SNOD28340 gene for a Sfp-type phosphopantetheine transferase was amplified and cloned into pIAGO.

AmphRIV

Regulation of nystatin and pimarin biosynthesis has been thoroughly investigated (Sekurova et al., 2004; Santos-Alberturas et al., 2011 and 2012). From these studies it is clear that AmphRIV and homologues are pathway-specific regulators that activate transcription of polyene biosynthetic genes. The *amphRIV* gene was also cloned into pIAGO and the expression plasmid was transformed into *S. nodosus*.

Effects of expression plasmids on polyene yields

Transformations were carried out to introduce the five expression plasmids and the empty pIAGO vector into the *S. nodosus* Δ *amphNM* mutant. Transformants were grown and total polyene yields per g dry weight of biomass were determined.

In strain Δ *amphNM* neither the acetyl CoA carboxylase (AccA2-AccB2) nor the propionyl CoA carboxylase (AccA2-PccB) gave a significant increase in yield (Fig. 5). The epimerase and phosphopantetheine transferase also made little difference. Overexpression of the *amphRIV* gene gave a four-fold increase in yield as compared to the untransformed strain. This indicates that the levels of PKS proteins are the limiting factor in amphotericin production.

Discussion

The *S. nodosus* genome was sequenced for two reasons, to search for biosynthetic gene clusters for potentially valuable natural products, and to enable attempts to increase yields of amphotericin B and analogues. The genome was found to contain twenty-four biosynthetic gene clusters for natural products. Of these, eighteen are apparently capable of specifying known metabolites or closely related compounds. This is not surprising as rediscovery is common in *Streptomyces* species (Koehn and Carter

2005). It is becoming clear that rare non-streptomycete actinomycetes are a more promising source of new chemical entities (Jose and Jebukumar 2013). Of the clusters that specify unknown products, four contain NRPS adenylation and thiolation domains but not condensation domains and are likely to activate and modify single amino acid residues. NRPS7 appears to synthesise a peptide-ketide hybrid compound from three amino acids and an organic acid. These enzymes may be amenable to overexpression and characterization *in vitro*, which may assist identification of their products. NRPS3 and NRPS4 are of interest because they have the potential to synthesise analogues of skyllamycins and pyochelins. Skyllamycins are important because they are active against some cancers and against bacterial biofilms. Skyllamycin A inhibits mitosis of certain tumour cells by interfering with the platelet-derived growth factor signalling pathway (Tori et al., 2001; Pohle et al., 2011). It also has weak antibiotic activity against *B. subtilis* and *Staphylococcus aureus* but not against Gram-negative bacteria or fungi. Skyllamycins B and C are non-antibiotic inhibitors of biofilms caused by the opportunistic human pathogen *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Navarro et al., 2014). Skyllamycin B is capable of dispersing biofilms and may be important in combination therapies for treating respiratory tract infections in cystic fibrosis patients (Navarro et al., 2014). Slight structural changes have profound effects on biological activity. We have shown that *S. nodosus* can be activated to produce a new skyllamycin analogue. This compound will be investigated further in future work.

Repair of the frameshift in the SNOD_29570 gene for the first NRPS4 protein may result in synthesis of a novel siderophore related to pyochelin. This will be investigated in future work. Pyochelin siderophores are important virulence factors in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Pyochelin analogues have been synthesised that exert antibiotic activity because they block iron uptake (Mislin et al., 2006). Siderophores have also been conjugated to drugs to improve penetration of the outer membranes of Gram-negative pathogens (Starr et al., 2014).

The polyketide macrolactone of amphotericin B is assembled from activated acyl precursors, sixteen acetyl and three propionyl units. Overproduction of AmphRIV gave a four-fold increase in yield in the $\Delta amphN$ strain. This agrees with findings of other groups who have investigated the effects of AmphRIV homologues on production of other polyenes (Sekurova et al., 2004; Santos-Alberturas et al., 2011 and 2012). Elevation of AmphRIV is likely to increase transcription of PKS and late genes. The cellular levels of PKS proteins appear to be limiting, because overexpression of acetyl and propionyl CoA carboxylase genes made little difference to polyene production. Overexpression of acetyl CoA carboxylase significantly increased yields of actinorhodin in *S. coelicolor* (Ryu et al., 2006), but the small discrete enzymes of a type II PKS are more rapidly translated than the largest hexamodular amphotericin PKS proteins. These considerations suggest that with aromatic polyketide biosynthesis, precursor supply may be the limiting factor whereas with polyene biosynthesis it is the abundance of the PKS catalyst. While Jiang and co-workers (2013) found that overproduction of phosphopantetheine transferase gave a modest increase in pimarin production, this approach did not increase the yield of amphotericin. This indicates that the basal level of SNOD_28340 phosphopantetheine transferase is sufficient for post-translational modification of all nineteen ACP domains in the amphotericin PKS. It is unclear why empty pIAGO vector gave a tenfold increase in amphotericin production in wild type *S. nodosus*.

Further work should lead to greater increases in yields of amphotericins and analogues. With new methods for disruption of chromosomal genes (Cobb et al., 2015), this can be achieved more efficiently. The availability of a reference sequence will also allow identification of mutations that increase yields in high producer strains generated by traditional strain improvement techniques. These methods involve radiation or chemical mutagenesis, followed by screening for mutants that give higher yields. This approach is laborious but genome sequencing of improved strains can give insights into secondary metabolism by revealing which genes are affected in high producers (Wang et al., 2014). The provision of a reference sequence is essential for this approach.

This study reports the first sequencing and analysis of the *S. nodosus* genome. The work has led to isolation of a new skyllamycin analogue, and has provided the basis for further metabolic engineering to improve amphotericin yields.

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Compliance with ethical standards

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Figure captions

Fig. 1 Amphotericin B. In the co-metabolite amphotericin A, the C28-C29 double bond is reduced. The C8 and C16 positions are modified in the analogues 8-deoxy-16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-amphotericin A and 16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-amphotericin B

Fig. 2 Structures of skyllamycins A, B and C. In biosynthesis of skyllamycin A, β -methylaspartate is incorporated in peptide chain extension cycle 3. Aspartate is incorporated at this position in formation of skyllamycins B and C.

Fig. 3 Activation of lipopeptide biosynthesis. Extracts of *S. nodosus* $\Delta amphI$ containing pIAGO (A) or pIAGO-SkyPKS (B) were analysed by HPLC. The new peak in panel B is marked with a triangle. Purified skyllamycin A standard was analysed in panel C

Fig. 4 Schematic diagram showing acyl CoA carboxylase expression plasmids

Fig. 5 Yields of total polyene (16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-amphotericin B + 8-deoxy-16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-amphotericin A) per g dry weight from *S. nodosus* $\Delta amphNM$ and transformants

Primer	Sequence (5' to 3')	Restriction sites
PS1	GAT <u>CAA GCT</u> TTT GTT CGG AGC TCT TAC TGC G	<i>Hin</i> dIII
PS4	ACG <u>TAG ATC TCG</u> AGG GAG CAA GTG CGA TAT G	<i>Bgl</i> II
LuxF	GCA <u>AAG ATC TAC</u> CGG CCA GAC AGG GTG GAG GAA TG	<i>Bgl</i> II
LuxR	GAT <u>CAA GCT TCG</u> TGT CGG TCG TGT CAT GAG	<i>Hin</i> dIII
R4f	CAG <u>TGG ATC CAC</u> TGC ACG AAG GGC GAT CAT GC	<i>Bam</i> HI
R4r	GAT <u>CAA GCT TCA</u> GTC CTT GAT GAA GTC CTG G	<i>Hin</i> dIII
PSAf2	GAT <u>CAT GCA TGT</u> CCC CCT GAG CAG GCA AGG GAG	<i>Nsi</i> I
PSAr2v2	GAT <u>CGA GCT CTT</u> TTC GGT CAT GGG CTC AGC	<i>Sac</i> I
PSAf3	GTA <u>CGA GCT CTA</u> AAC TCG GCT TGT TTC AAG GAG AG	<i>Sac</i> I
PSAr3	GAT <u>CAA GCT TCT</u> GGG ACC GAT GAC AAC GGT TCC AG	<i>Hin</i> dIII
PSAf6	GAT <u>CAT GCA TGT</u> TTG CTT GGT TGA CTT CGT AAG	<i>Nsi</i> I
PSAr6	GTA <u>CGA GCT CTT</u> CGC AAG AGG GGC CCC TGA AG	<i>Sac</i> I
PptF	AGC <u>TGG ATC CAT</u> TCT GCC GAT GGA GGT TCA AG	<i>Bam</i> HI
PptR	GAT <u>CAA GCT TCC</u> GAA CGA ATG TGC CTA GCC TTG	<i>Hin</i> dIII
EpimF	GTA <u>CGG ATC CGC</u> TGA CGA TCA CCG AAC TGG TCA C	<i>Bam</i> HI
EpimR	GAT <u>CAA GCT TCA</u> GGA CGT TTC ACC CTG AAG GCT	<i>Hin</i> dIII

Table 1. Primers used in this work. The restriction sites are underlined.

Construct	Overproduced enzyme(s)/protein(s)
pIAGO-SkyPKS	2-[1-(Z)-propenyl]-cinnamoyl-ACP synthase
pIAGO-SkyLuxR	Cluster 15 activator
pIAGO-PSA3-6	Acetyl CoA carboxylase 1, AccA2-AccB2
pIAGO-PSA2-3	Propionyl CoA carboxylase AccA2-PccB
pIAGO- <i>amphRIV</i>	AmphRIV transcriptional activator
pIAGO- Epimerase	Methylmalonyl CoA epimerase
pIAGO- Ppt	Phosphopantetheinyltransferase

Table 2. Expression plasmids constructed in this work.

Cluster	Type	Genome co-ordinates	Product
1	Bacteriocin	296267.. 299024	Linocin-like bacteriocin
2	PKS1, modular type 1	506865.. 641492	Amphotericins A and B
3	NRPS1	787598.. 796177	Unknown
4	NRPS2	824164.. 815770	Unknown
5	PKS2, type III	1215016.. 1217905	Melanin
6	Ectoine	1906068.. 1908393	Ectoine
7	Siderophore	2783683.. 2795593	Aerobactin
8	PKS3, type II	3445305.. 3454830	WhiE polyketide
9	Terpene	4886903.. 4890326	Albaflavenone
10	Siderophore	5480447.. 5484841	Aerobactin
11	Terpene	5779158.. 5784154	Geosmin
12	Lantipeptide	5783009.. 5794979	Lantipeptide
13	Siderophore	5887270.. 5890531	Aerobactin
14	Terpene	6416499.. 6439625	Hopanoid
15	NRPS3	6439806.. 6518525	Skylamycin-like lipopeptide
16	PKS4, type III	6589432.. 6593954	Alkylresorcinol
17	PKS5, type II	6595620.. 6630781	Urdamycin G
18	NRPS4	6644423.. 6673402	Pyochelin-like siderophore
19	Terpene	6680483.. 6684565	Unknown
20	NRPS5	6794716.. 6811755	Unknown
21	NRPS6	7119075.. 7131917	Unknown
22	NRPS7	7486817.. 7516584	Unknown
23	NRPS8	7586466.. 7617079	Coelichelin
24	Butyrolactone	7684006.. 7685986	Butyrolactone

Table 3. Biosynthetic gene clusters for natural products in the *S. nodosus* genome. Clusters identified by AntiSMASH2 and verified are listed in order of appearance in the sequence.

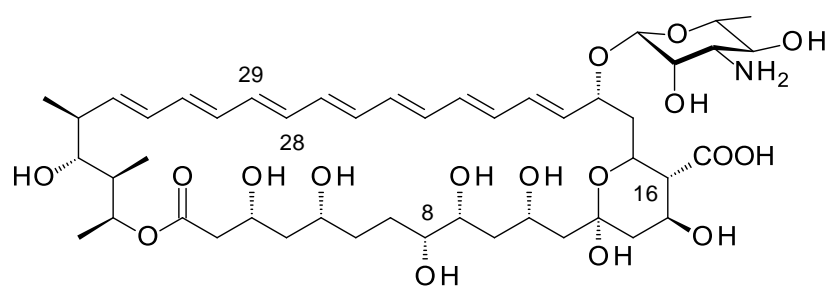


Fig. 1 Amphotericin B. In the co-metabolite amphotericin A, the C28-C29 double bond is reduced. The C8 and C16 positions are modified in the analogues 8-deoxy-16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-amphotericin A and 16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-amphotericin B.

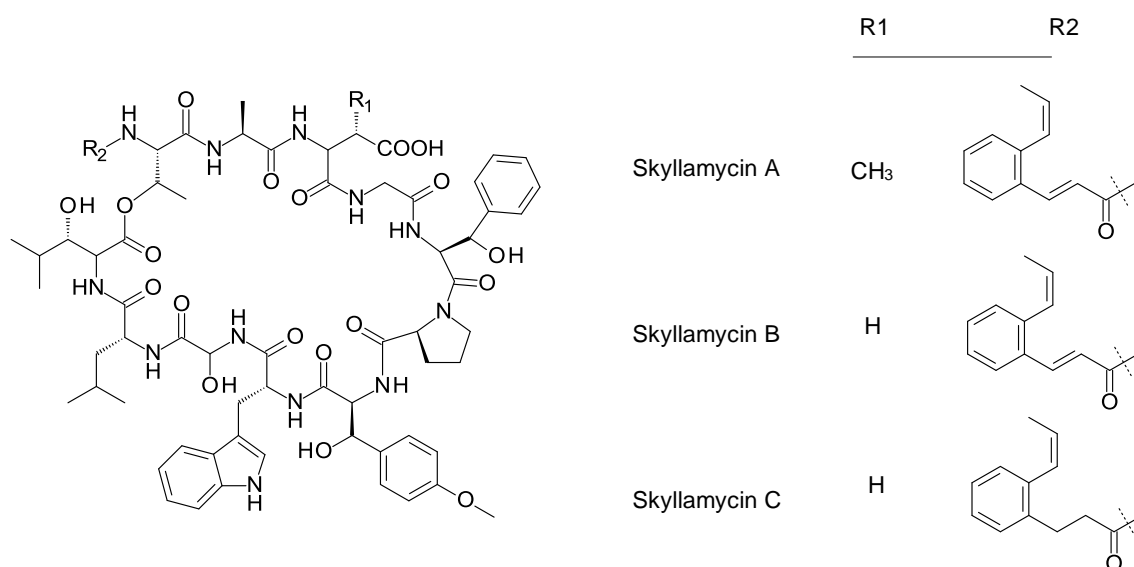


Fig. 2 Structures of skyllamycins A, B and C. In biosynthesis of skyllamycin A, β -methylaspartate is incorporated in peptide chain extension cycle 3. Aspartate is incorporated at this position in formation of skyllamycins B and C.

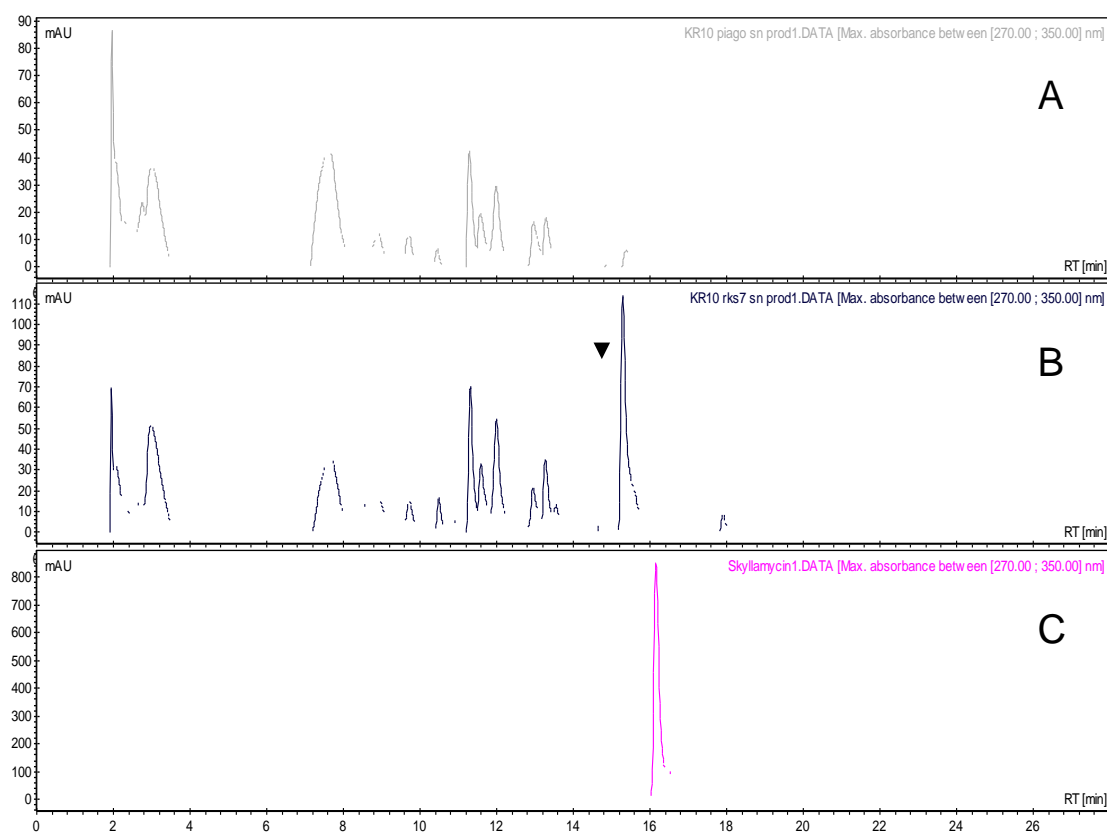


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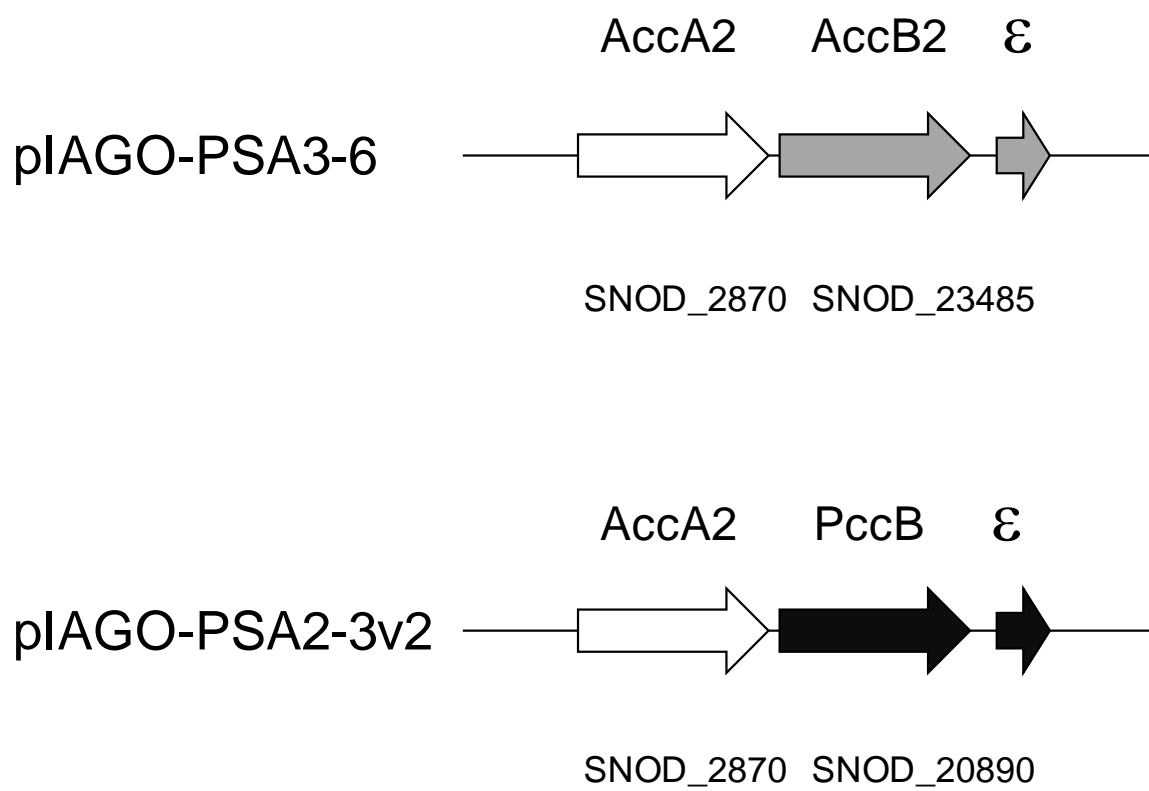


Fig. 4 Schematic diagram showing acyl CoA carboxylase expression plasmids.

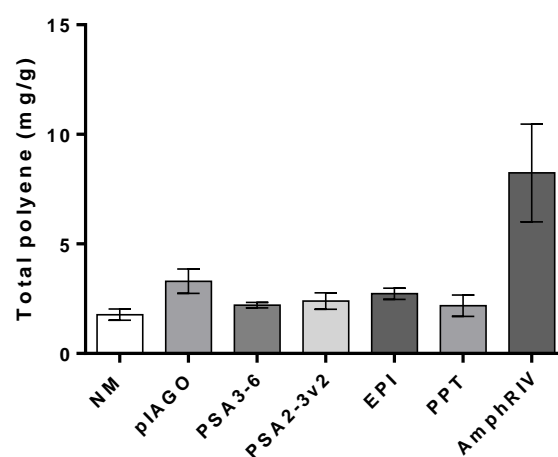


Fig. 5 Yields of total polyene (16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-amphotericin B + 8-deoxy-16-descarboxyl-16-methyl-amphotericin A) per g dry weight from *S. nodosus* $\Delta amphNM$ and transformants.

Supplementary information

Exploiting the genome sequence of *Streptomyces nodosus* for enhanced antibiotic production

Paul Sweeney¹, Cormac D. Murphy and Patrick Caffrey[†]

School of Biomolecular and Biomedical Science, University College Dublin, Belfield, Dublin 4, Ireland.

[†]Correspondence to: Patrick Caffrey

E-mail: patrick.caffrey@ucd.ie

Tel: + 353 (0)1 716 1396

Tables

Table S1. Genes in cluster 3 containing NRPS1

Table S2. Genes in cluster 4 containing NRPS2

Table S3. Genes in cluster 20 containing NRPS5

Table S4. Genes in cluster 21 containing NRPS6

Table S5. Genes in cluster 15 containing NRPS3

Table S6. Genes in cluster 18 containing NRPS4

Table S7. Genes in cluster 22 containing NRPS7

Table S8. Genes in cluster 23 containing NRPS8

Figures

Fig. S1 Domain composition of NRPS1 from cluster 3 (see Table S1). NRPS 1 is a 1390-residue single-module protein with an A domain, a PCP domain, and a terminal domain. The C-terminal 746-residue region is related to “terminal domains of unknown function” that are present in some other NRPSs. The A domain is predicted to activate pipecolic acid.

Fig. S2 Domain composition of NRPS2 from cluster 4 (see Table S2). NRPS2 consists of two multienzyme polypeptides. The first is an 888-residue protein that contains a PCP domain from residues 33-95 and a C-terminal domain of unknown function from residues 133-833. The second is a 1096-residue protein that contains A, PCP and TE domains. It is not possible to predict the specificity of the A domain. Cluster 4 includes genes for ornithine cyclodeaminase and serine dehydratase enzymes that function in synthesis of the non-proteinogenic amino acid diaminopropionate.

Fig. S3. Domain composition of NRPS5 encoded by cluster 20 (see Table S3). This contains just one NRPS protein with activation, thiolation and thioester reductase (Red) domains.

Fig. S4 Domain composition of NRPS6 encoded by cluster 21 (see Table S4). This is a mixed NRPS-modular PKS system. One 668-residue protein contains KS and ACP domains. The other protein is a 512-residue A domain predicted to activate leucine.

Fig. S5 Domain composition of NRPS4 from cluster 18 (see Table S6). There is a frameshift mutation in the coding sequence for the first NRPS protein. If corrected, this *S. nodosus* NRPS would consist of two proteins with three modules. All three are predicted to incorporate and heterocyclise cysteine residues.

Fig. S6 Predicted biosynthesis of pyochelin-like peptide by NRPS4. If the *S. nodosus* cluster were functional, the peptide would be synthesised from hydroxybenzoate and three cysteines. The final module contains a methyltransferase (MT) domain. A cytochrome P450 (SNOD29590 protein) could modify the end product further.

Fig. S7. Domain composition of NRPS7 encoded by cluster 22 (see Table S7). NRPS7 is a mixed NRPS-PKS. The first protein is 1376-residue single NRPS module that terminates with a TE domain. The specificity of the A domain is predicted to be valine, isoleucine or leucine. The second protein consists of 3022 amino acid residues and contains NRPS and PKS domains. The first A domain is predicted to activate isoleucine or leucine, the second proline. There is no AT in the PKS module, but there is a gene for a discrete GCN AT nearby. It is not clear why there is a TE domain at the end of each protein.

Fig. S8 Domain composition of NRPS8, encoded by cluster 23 (see Table S8), and structure of predicted coelichelin product. NRPS8 is identical to the NRPS that synthesises the siderophore coelichelin in *S. coelicolor*. This is a single NRPS protein with three modules that catalyse four condensation cycles. The predicted specificities of the three A domains are ornithine, threonine and ornithine. There is no thioesterase domain. Ornithine monooxygenase and formyl transferase genes are located nearby.

Fig. S9 Schematic diagram showing the organisation of genes in the cluster for the skyllamycin-like peptide. H = Hydrolase, I = isomerase, D = dehydrogenase. The 834 bp *luxR* gene SNOD_28895 cloned into pIAGO-*luxR* is shaded black. The PKS genes cloned into pIAGO-SkyPKS are shaded grey. The large NRPS genes are not to scale.

Fig. S10 Comparison of UV-visible absorption spectra of putative *S. nodosus* lipopeptide (A) and skyllamycin A (B)

Fig. S11 MS analysis of putative lipopeptide purified from *S. nodosus* $\Delta amphi$ pIAGO-LuxR. A. Re-chromatography of lipopeptide purified by HPLC. B. Mass spectrometric analysis of purified material in positive ion mode. The major ion had a mass consistent with a hydroxylated analogue of skyllamycin A ($[M + Na]^+ = 1521.4415$).

<i>Gene</i>	<i>Gene product</i>	<i>Size (AA)</i>	<i>Orientation</i>
SNOD_03475	TetR	224	↑
SNOD_03470	Hypothetical protein	134	↑
SNOD_03465	Hypothetical protein	158	↓
SNOD_03460	NRPS1	1390	↑
SNOD_03455	Putative amidotransferase	258	↑
SNOD_03450	GntR regulator	145	↑
SNOD_03445	ABC transporter ATP BP	318	↑
SNOD_03440	ABC transporter permease	229	↑

Table S1. Genes in cluster 3 containing NRPS1

<i>Gene</i>	<i>Gene product</i>	<i>Size (AA)</i>	<i>Orientation</i>
SNOD_03580	Hypothetical protein	165	↑
SNOD_03585	Phosphatase	191	↓
SNOD_03590	Formaldehyde dehydrogenase	383	↑
SNOD_03595	NRPS 2.1	888	↓
SNOD_03600	NRPS 2.2	1096	↓
SNOD_03605	Taurine dioxygenase	335	↓
SNOD_03610	Ornithine cyclodeaminase	358	↓
SNOD_03615	Serine dehydratase	338	↓
SNOD_03620	Formaldehyde dehydrogenase	386	↑
SNOD_03625	Diene lactone hydrolase	230	↓
SNOD_03630	Membrane protein	530	↓
SNOD_03635	Glycosyltransferase	394	↑
SNOD_03640	Oxidoreductase	251	↓
SNOD_03645	Integral membrane protein	286	↓
SNOD_03650	Polysaccharide deacetylase	248	↓

Table S2. Genes in cluster 4 containing NRPS2

<i>Gene</i>	<i>Gene product</i>	<i>Size (AA)</i>	<i>Orientation</i>
SNOD_30175	ABC transporter	557	↓
SNOD_30180	ABC transporter	473	↓
SNOD_30185	ArsR regulator	138	↓
SNOD_30190	Hypothetical protein	216	↓
SNOD_30195	Pyridoxamine oxidase	151	↓
SNOD_30200	NRPS 5	1055	↓
SNOD_30205	Cytochrome P450	408	↓
SNOD_30210	Cytochrome P450	424	↓
SNOD_30215	TetR regulator	224	↑
SNOD_30220	TetR regulator	279	↑
SNOD_30225	Exporter	600	↓
SNOD_30230	Hypothetical protein	197	↑
SNOD_30235	SDR	259	↓
SNOD_30240	Hypothetical protein	164	↑

Table S3. Genes in cluster 20 containing NRPS5

<i>Gene</i>	<i>Gene product</i>	<i>Size (AA)</i>	<i>Orientation</i>
SNOD_31730	ATP binding protein	198	↑
SNOD_31735	Histidine kinase	965	↑
SNOD_31745	Hydroxylase	394	↑
SNOD_31750	NRPS 6.2	512	↑
SNOD_31755	PKS 6.1	668	↑
SNOD_31760	Hypothetical protein	349	↓
SNOD_31765	Hypothetical protein	78	↓
SNOD_31770	Stress protein	304	↓
SNOD_31775	Hypothetical protein	165	↓

Table S4. Genes in cluster 21 containing NRPS6

<i>Gene</i>	<i>Gene product</i>	<i>Size (AA)</i>	<i>Orientation</i>
SNOD_28725	Putative protein tyrosine phosphatase	288	↑
SNOD_28730	Alpha-galactosidase	704	↓
SNOD_28735	SGNH hydrolase	261	↓
SNOD_28740	Glutamate mutase subunit A	156	↓
SNOD_28745	Glutamate mutase subunit B	436	↓
SNOD_28750	Flavin reductase	162	↑
SNOD_28755	Flavin dependent monooxygenase	356	↑
SNOD_28760	ABC transporter	264	↑
SNOD_28765	O-methyltransferase	342	↑
SNOD_28770	ABC transporter	262	↑
SNOD_28775	ABC transporter	324	↑
SNOD_28790	Thioesterase	247	↑
SNOD_28795	Cytochrome P450	418	↑
SNOD_28800	NRPS 3.3	3897	↑
SNOD_28805	NRPS 3.2	4724	↑
SNOD_28810	NRPS 3.1	4758	↑
SNOD_28815	Oxidoreductase	554	↑
SNOD_28820	Isomerase	225	↑
SNOD_28825	Ketoreductase	248	↑
SNOD_28830	Dehydratase	156	↑
SNOD_28835	Dehydratase	132	↑
SNOD_28840	ACP	78	↑
SNOD_28845	Ketosynthase	367	↑
SNOD_28850	Thioesterase	346	↑
SNOD_34515	Hydrolase	264	↑
SNOD_28860	Ketosynthase	316	↑
SNOD_28865	Ketosynthase	377	↑
SNOD_28870	Ketosynthase	418	↑
SNOD_28875	ACP	72	↑
SNOD_28885	Cytochrome P450*	405	↓
SNOD_28890	MbtH like protein	73	↓
SNOD_28895	LuxR transcriptional regulator	277	↓
SNOD_28900	Metallo beta lactamase	395	↓
SNOD_28905	Hypothetical protein	171	↓
SNOD_28915	Zinc carboxypeptidase	814	↑
SNOD_28925	Transposase	234	↑

Table S5. Genes in cluster 15 containing NRPS3. This *S. nodosus* cluster is identical to the *Str. Acta* 2897 skyllamycin cluster (Pohle et al., 2011) except that it has an extra cytochrome P450 gene (marked with an asterisk, SNOD28885 protein) and lacks a malonyltransferase gene.

<i>Gene</i>	<i>Gene product</i>	<i>Size (AA)</i>	<i>Orientation</i>
SNOD_29550	Integral membrane protein	316	↓
SNOD_29555	Integral membrane protein	286	↓
SNOD_29560	ABC transporter	529	↓
SNOD_29565	Hydroxybenzoate-AMP ligase	551	↑
SNOD_29570	NRPS 4. 1 (contains frameshift)	384 + 1882	↓
SNOD_29575	NRPS 4.2	1857	↓
SNOD_29580	epimerase	393	↓
SNOD_29585	Thiazolinyll imide reductase	719	↓
SNOD_29590	Cytochrome P450	421	↓
SNOD_29595	Thioesterase	274	↓
SNOD_29600	Methyltransferase	242	↓
SNOD_29605	ABC transporter	628	↓
SNOD_29610	ABC transporter	585	↓
SNOD_29615	Salicylate synthase	465	↓

Table S6. Genes in cluster 18 containing NRPS4

	<i>Gene product</i>	<i>Size (AA)</i>	<i>Orientation</i>
SNOD_33460	Hypothetical protein	62	↑
SNOD_33465	β Hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase	298	↑
SNOD_33475	TetR regulator	192	↓
SNOD_33480	Transporter	482	↑
SNOD_33485	TetR regulator	232	↓
SNOD_33490	Oxidoreductase	397	↓
SNOD_33495	Cytochrome P450	408	↓
SNOD_33500	GCN acyltransferase	179	↑
SNOD_33505	NRPS 7. 1	1376	↓
SNOD_33510	NRPS 7.2	3022	↓
SNOD_33515	Hydroxylase	257	↓
SNOD_33520	Erythromycin esterase	426	↑
SNOD_33525	MerR transcriptional regulator	240	↓
SNOD_33530	Haloalkane dehalogenase	295	↓
SNOD_33535	Alcohol dehydrogenase	321	↑
SNOD_33540	Regulatory protein	221	↓
SNOD_33545	Hypothetical protein	203	↑
SNOD_33550	Hypothetical protein	411	↑

Table S7. Genes in cluster 22 containing NRPS7

<i>Gene</i>	<i>Gene product</i>	<i>Size (AA)</i>	<i>Orientation</i>
SNOD_33885	Hypothetical protein	483	↓
SNOD_33895	Formyl transferase	315	↑
SNOD_33900	L ornithine monooxygenase	451	↓
SNOD_33910	ABC transporter	305	↓
SNOD_33915	ABC transporter	353	↓
SNOD_33920	ABC transporter	282	↓
SNOD_33925	ABC transporter	353	↓
SNOD_33930	ABC transporter	595	↓
SNOD_33935	NRPS 8	3638	↓
SNOD_33940	ABC transporter	566	↓
SNOD_33945	Esterase	365	↑
SNOD_33950	MbtH protein	70	↓
SNOD_33955	Amidohydrolase	525	↓
SNOD_33960	N-acetyl glutamate synthase	172	↓
SNOD_33965	N-acetyl glutamate kinase	280	↑
SNOD_33970	Isochorismatase	218	↑
SNOD_33975	Hypothetical protein	231	↑
SNOD_33980	LysR transcriptional regulator	164	↑

Table S8. Genes in cluster 23 containing NRPS8

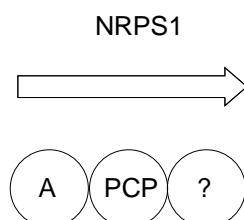


Fig. S1 Domain composition of NRPS1 from cluster 3 (see Table S1). NRPS 1 is a 1390-residue single-module protein with an A domain, a PCP domain, and a terminal domain. The C-terminal 746-residue region is related to “terminal domains of unknown function” that are present in some other NRPSs. The A domain is predicted to activate pipecolic acid.

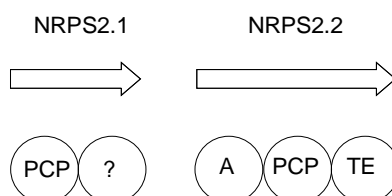


Fig. S2 Domain composition of NRPS2 from cluster 4 (see Table S2). NRPS2 consists of two multienzyme polypeptides. The first is an 888-residue protein that contains a PCP domain from residues 33-95 and a C-terminal domain of unknown function from residues 133-833. The second is a 1096-residue protein that contains A, PCP and TE domains. It is not possible to predict the specificity of the A domain. Cluster 4 includes genes for ornithine cyclodeaminase and serine dehydratase enzymes that function in synthesis of the non-proteinogenic amino acid diaminopropionate.

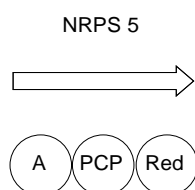


Fig. S3. Domain composition of NRPS5 encoded by cluster 20 (see Table S3). This contains just one NRPS protein with activation, thiolation and thioester reductase (Red) domains.

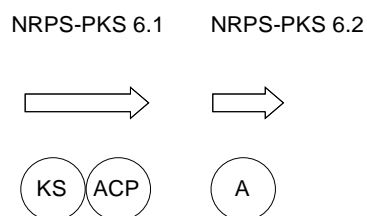


Fig. S4 Domain composition of NRPS6 encoded by cluster 21 (see Table S6). This is a mixed NRPS-modular PKS system. One 668-residue protein contains KS and ACP domains. The other protein is a 512-residue A domain predicted to activate leucine.

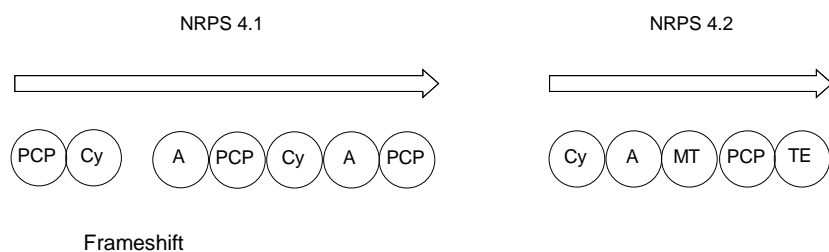


Fig. S5 Domain composition of NRPS4 from cluster 18 (see Table S4). There is a frameshift mutation in the coding sequence for the first NRPS protein. If corrected, this *S. nodosus* NRPS would consist of two proteins with three modules. All three are predicted to incorporate and heterocyclise cysteine residues.

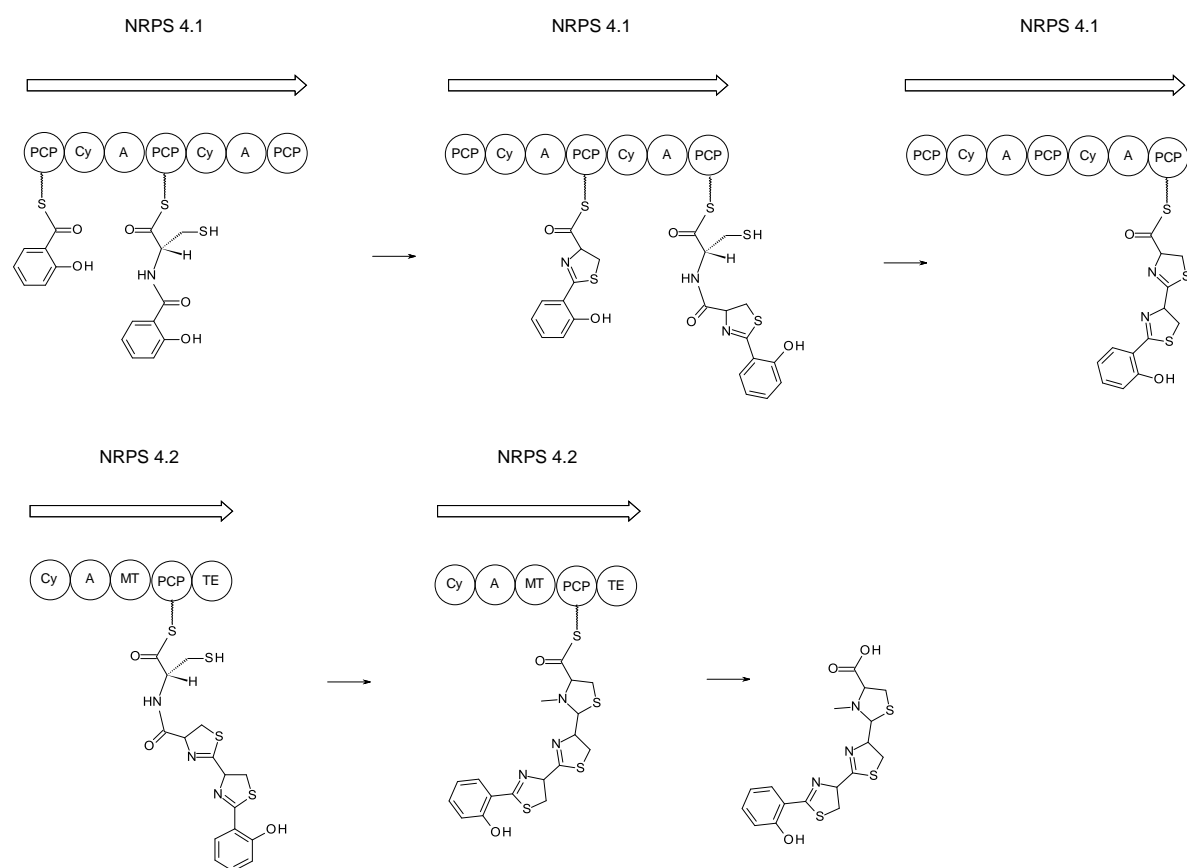


Fig. S6 Predicted biosynthesis of pyochelin-like peptide by NRPS4. If the *S. nodosus* cluster were functional, the peptide would be synthesised from hydroxybenzoate and three cysteines. The final module contains a methyltransferase (MT) domain. A cytochrome P450 (SNOD29590 protein) could modify the end product further.

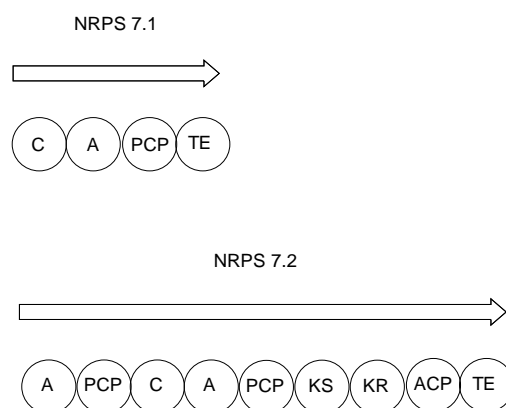


Fig. S7. Domain composition of NRPS7 encoded by cluster 22 (see Table S7). NRPS7 is a mixed NRPS-PKS. The first protein is 1376-residue single NRPS module that terminates with a TE domain. The specificity of the A domain is predicted to be valine, isoleucine or leucine. The second protein consists of 3022 amino acid residues and contains NRPS and PKS domains. The first A domain is predicted to activate isoleucine or leucine, the second proline. There is no AT in the PKS module, but there is a gene for a discrete GCN AT nearby. It is not clear why there is a TE domain at the end of each protein.

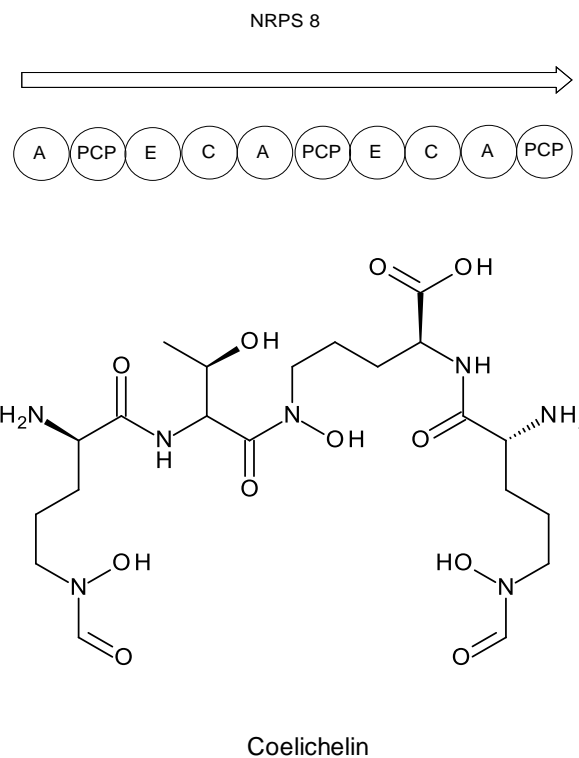


Fig. S8 Domain composition of NRPS8, encoded by cluster 23 (see Table S8), and structure of predicted coelichelin product. NRPS8 is identical to the NRPS that synthesises the siderophore coelichelin in *S. coelicolor*. This is a single NRPS protein with three modules that catalyse four condensation cycles. The predicted specificities of the three A domains are ornithine, threonine and ornithine. There is no thioesterase domain. Ornithine monooxygenase and formyl transferase genes are located nearby.

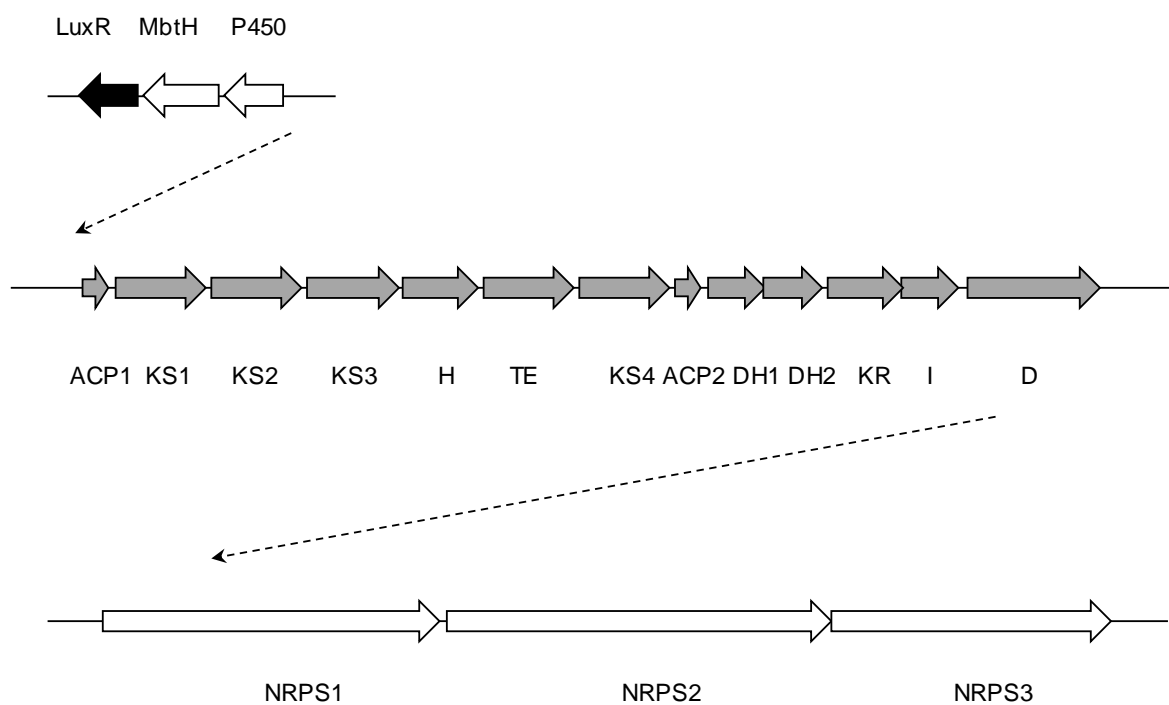


Fig. S9 Schematic diagram showing the organisation of genes in the cluster for the skyllamycin-like peptide. H = Hydrolase, I = isomerase, D = dehydrogenase. The 834 bp *luxR* gene SNOD_28895 cloned into pIAGO-*luxR* is shaded black. The PKS genes cloned into pIAGO-SkyPKS are shaded grey. The large NRPS genes are not to scale.

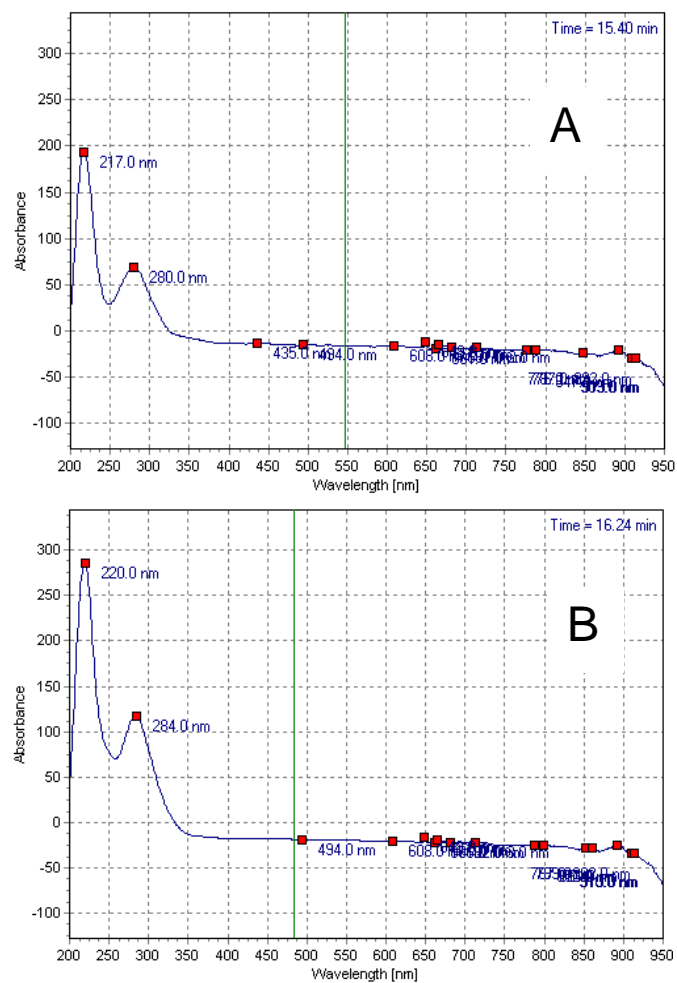


Fig. S10 Comparison of UV-visible absorption spectra of putative *S. nodosus* lipopeptide (A) and skyllamycin A (B)

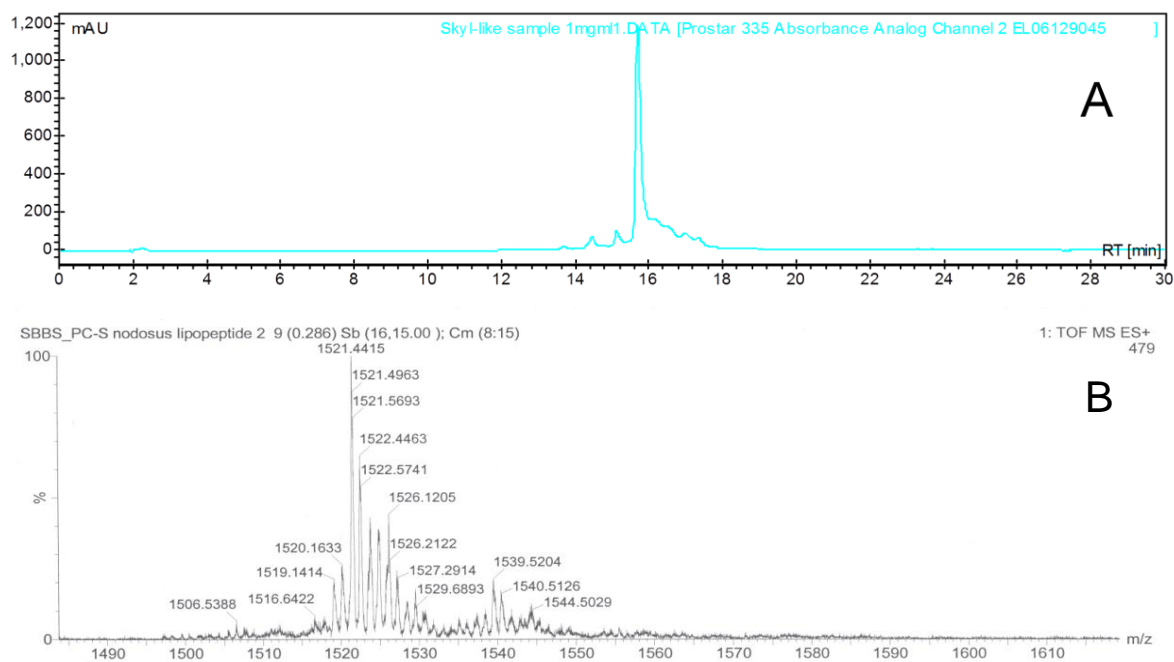


Fig. S11 MS analysis of putative lipopeptide purified from *S. nodosus* $\Delta amphI$ pIAGO-LuxR. A. Re-chromatography of lipopeptide purified by HPLC. B. Mass spectrometric analysis of purified material in positive ion mode. The major ion had a mass consistent with a hydroxylated analogue of skyllamycin A ($[M + Na]^+ = 1521.4415$).