

1 Review

## 2 Biosynthesis of Polyketides in *Streptomyces*

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9 **Abstract:** Polyketides are large group of secondary metabolites that have notable variety in their  
10 structure and function. Polyketides exhibit a wide range of bioactivities such as antibacterial,  
11 antifungal, anticancer, antiviral, immune-suppressing, anti-cholesterol and anti-inflammatory  
12 activity. Naturally, they are found in bacteria, fungi, plants, protists, insects, mollusks and sponges.  
13 *Streptomyces* is a genus of Gram-positive bacteria that has a filamentous form like fungi. This genus  
14 is best known as one of polyketides producers. Some examples of polyketides produced by  
15 *Streptomyces* are rapamycin, oleandomycin, actinorhodin, daunorubicin and caprazamycin.  
16 Biosynthesis of polyketides involves a group of enzyme activities called polyketide synthases  
17 (PKSs). There are three types of PKSs (type I, type II, and type III) in *Streptomyces* that responsible  
18 for producing polyketides. This paper focuses on biosynthesis of polyketides in *Streptomyces* with  
19 three structurally different types of PKSs.

20 **Keywords:** *Streptomyces*, polyketides, secondary metabolite, polyketide synthases (PKSs)

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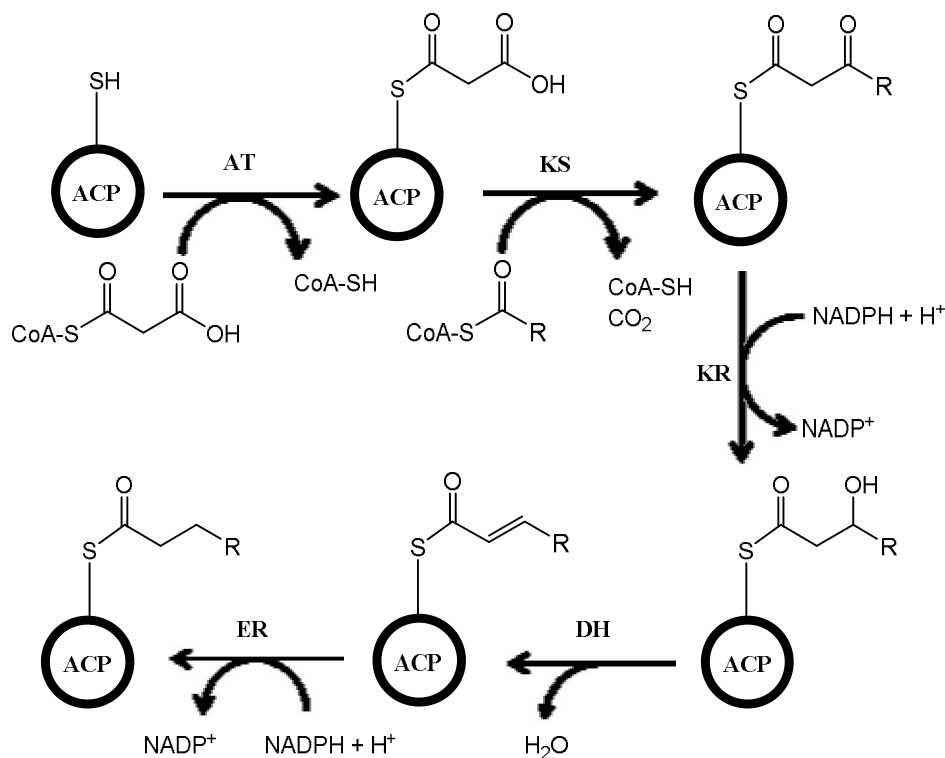
### 23 1. Introduction

24 Polyketides, large group of secondary metabolites, are known possessing remarkable variety  
25 not only in their structure and but also in their function [1,2]. Polyketides exhibit a wide range of  
26 bioactivities such as antibacterial (e.g., tetracycline), antifungal (e.g., amphotericin B), anticancer  
27 (e.g., doxorubicin), antiviral (e.g., balticolid), immune-suppressing (e.g., rapamycin), anti-cholesterol  
28 (e.g., lovastatin) and anti-inflammatory activity (e.g., flavonoids) [3–9]. Some organisms such as  
29 bacteria, fungi, plants, protists, insects, mollusks and sponges can produce polyketides naturally  
30 [10–12]. In order to survive, these polyketide-producing organisms could use polyketides that they  
31 generate to protect themselves in their environment [13].

32 Since the beginning of 1940's, the history of antibiotic is much related to microorganisms. One  
33 of the groups of bacteria which produce many important antibiotics is Actinobacteria.  
34 Actinobacteria are Gram-positive bacteria, have high GC content and comprise various genera  
35 known for their secondary metabolite production, such as *Streptomyces*, *Micromonospora*,  
36 *Kitasatospora*, *Nocardiosis*, *Pseudonocardia*, *Nocardia*, *Actinoplanes*, *Saccharopolyspora* and *Amycolatopsis*  
37 [14,15]. The most important genus of them is *Streptomyces* which has a filamentous form like fungi  
38 and recently becomes a source of 80% of the antibiotics since the discovery streptothricin within  
39 this genus in 1942 [16–18]. Among the antibiotics produced by *Streptomyces*, polyketides are one  
40 group of the very important compounds. Some examples of polyketides produced by *Streptomyces*  
41 are rapamycin (produced by *Streptomyces hygroscopicus*), oleandomycin (produced by *Streptomyces*  
42 *antibioticus*), actinorhodin (produced by *Streptomyces coelicolor* A3(2)), daunorubicin (produced by  
43 *Streptomyces peuceitius*) and caprazamycin (produced by *Streptomyces* sp. MK730-62F2) [19–23].

44 Biosynthesis of polyketides is very complex because the process involves multifunctional  
45 enzymes called polyketide synthases (PKSs). The mechanism of PKS is similar to fatty acid synthase  
46 (FAS) which includes acyltransferase (AT) that has a role in catalyzing the attachment of the

47 substrate (e.g., acetyl or malonyl) to the acyl carrier protein (ACP), ketosynthase (KS) which  
 48 catalyzes condensation of substrates attached in ACP. For the subsequent steps, polyketide  
 49 intermediate is processed by ketoreductase (KR), dehydratase (DH) and enoylreductase (ER) as  
 50 shown in Figure 1. Unlike in FAS, the three remaining process are optional in PKSs that can give the  
 51 various structures of polyketides [24–26]. In *Streptomyces*, there are three types of PKSs (type I, type  
 52 II, and type III) [27–29]. This review describes the biosynthesis of polyketides in *Streptomyces* with  
 53 three distinct types of PKSs.  
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Figure 1. Scheme of reaction occurred in polyketide synthases (PKSs).

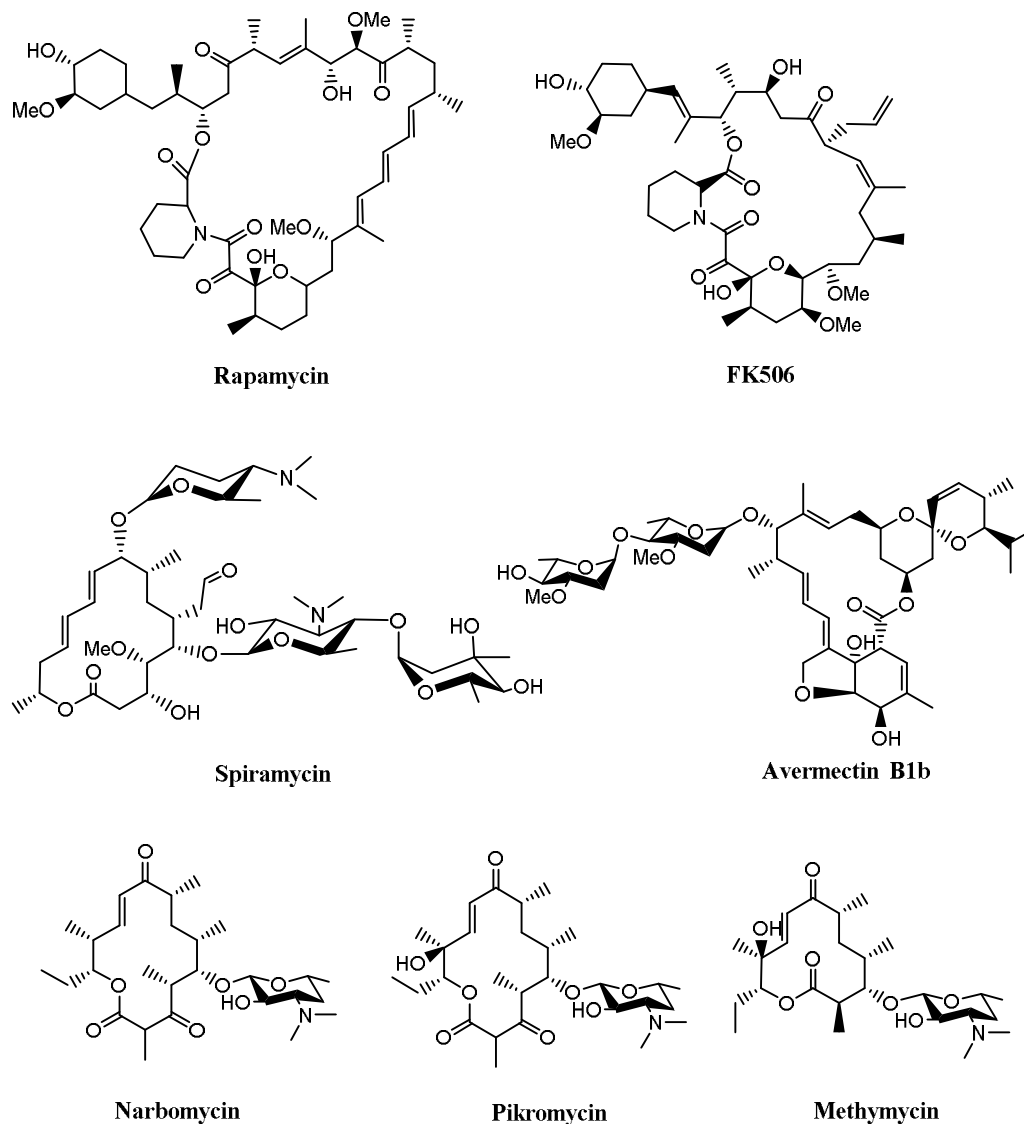
## 57 2. Polyketide Synthases Type I

58 The type I polyketide synthases (type-I PKSs) involve huge multifunctional proteins that have  
 59 many modules containing domains, in which a particular enzymatic reaction occur. Each module  
 60 has responsibility to perform one condensation cycle in a non-iterative way. Because this system  
 61 works with some modules, hence it is also called as modular PKS. The essential domains exist in  
 62 each module are acyltransferase (AT), keto synthase (KS) and acyl carrier protein (ACP) that  
 63 collaborates to produce  $\beta$ -keto ester intermediate. In addition, the other domains that may be  
 64 present in the module are  $\beta$ -ketoreductase (KR), dehydratase (DH) and enoyl reductase (ER) which  
 65 are responsible for keto group modification. In the process of producing polyketide, the expanding  
 66 polyketide chain is transferred from one module to other module until the completed molecule is  
 67 liberated from the last module by a special enzyme [2,26,30].

68 Furthermore, type-I PKSs are responsible for producing macrocyclic polyketides (macrolides).  
 69 Macrolide belongs to polyketide compound characterized by macrocyclic lactone ring containing  
 70 between 12 and 16 atoms which has various bioactivities such as antibacterial, antifungal,  
 71 immunosuppressant and anticancer. As an antibacterial agent, macrolide works by inhibiting  
 72 protein synthesis by binding to the 50S ribosomal subunit and blocking translocation steps of protein

73 synthesis [8,27,31]. Some examples of macrolides produced by *Streptomyces* are rapamycin, FK506,  
74 spiramycin, avermectin, methymycin, narbomycin and pikromycin as shown in Figure 2 [32–36].

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**Figure 2.** Some of macrolides produced by *Streptomyces*.

### 79 3. Biosynthesis of Rapamycin

80 Rapamycin is 31-membered ring macrolide produced by *Streptomyces hygroscopicus* isolated  
81 firstly from a soil of Easter Island (Chile) in South Pacific Ocean. It is a hydrophobic compound and  
82 was discovered as antifungal compound against *Candida albicans*, *Cryptococcus neoformans*, *Aspergillus*  
83 *fumigatus*, *Fusarium oxysporum*, and some pathogenic species from genus *Penicillium*. The antifungal  
84 mechanism of this compound has been described by diffusing into the cell and attaching to  
85 intracellular receptor FKB12. Moreover, the complex of FKB12-rapamycin inhibits the TOR (target of  
86 rapamycin) kinases that has important role in cell cycle progression. Interestingly, rapamycin has  
87 not only antifungal activity but also anticancer and immunosuppressant activity [8,27,37,38].

88 Rapamycin is synthesized by type-I PKSs rapamycin synthase (RAPS) [39]. Rapamycin-PKS  
89 gene cluster (*rapPKS*) is 107.3 kb in size and has 3 remarkable large ORFs (open reading frames),

90 *rapA*, *rapB* and *rapC* which encode multifunctional protein RAPS1 (~900 kDa), RAPS2 (~1.07 MDa)  
91 and RAPS3 (~660 kDa), respectively. Protein RAPS1 comprises four modules for polyketide chain  
92 extension, protein RAPS2 contains six modules responsible for continuing the process of polyketide  
93 chain elongation until C-16, and RAPS3 possesses four modules which have role in completing the  
94 polyketide fraction of rapamycin molecule. Overall, these three giant proteins encompass 70  
95 domains or enzymatic functions and because of this, rapamycin PKSs are considered as the most  
96 complex multienzyme system discovered so far [26,27,32].

97 In rapamycin PKSs, there is a loading domain (LD) before the first module involving three  
98 domains, i.e. coenzyme A ligase (CL), ER and ACP domain, which are considered to play in role of  
99 activating and reducing a free shikimic-acid-derived moiety starter unit and finally passing it to the  
100 KS domain of the first module. The extender units incorporated for growing chain are malonyl-CoA  
101 and methylmalonyl-CoA. Rapamycin PKSs has special characteristic not only in the starting process  
102 but also in the finishing process which the mechanism of transferring from the last domain in  
103 rapamycin PKSs and cyclisation of polyketide molecule is assisted by pipecolate-incorporating  
104 enzyme (PIE) as depicted in Figure 3. This enzyme (170 kD) is encoded by gene *rapP* which is also  
105 located in the *rapPKS* gene cluster and considered has the similarity to genes encoding nonribosomal  
106 peptide synthethases (NRPSs) [26,27,32].

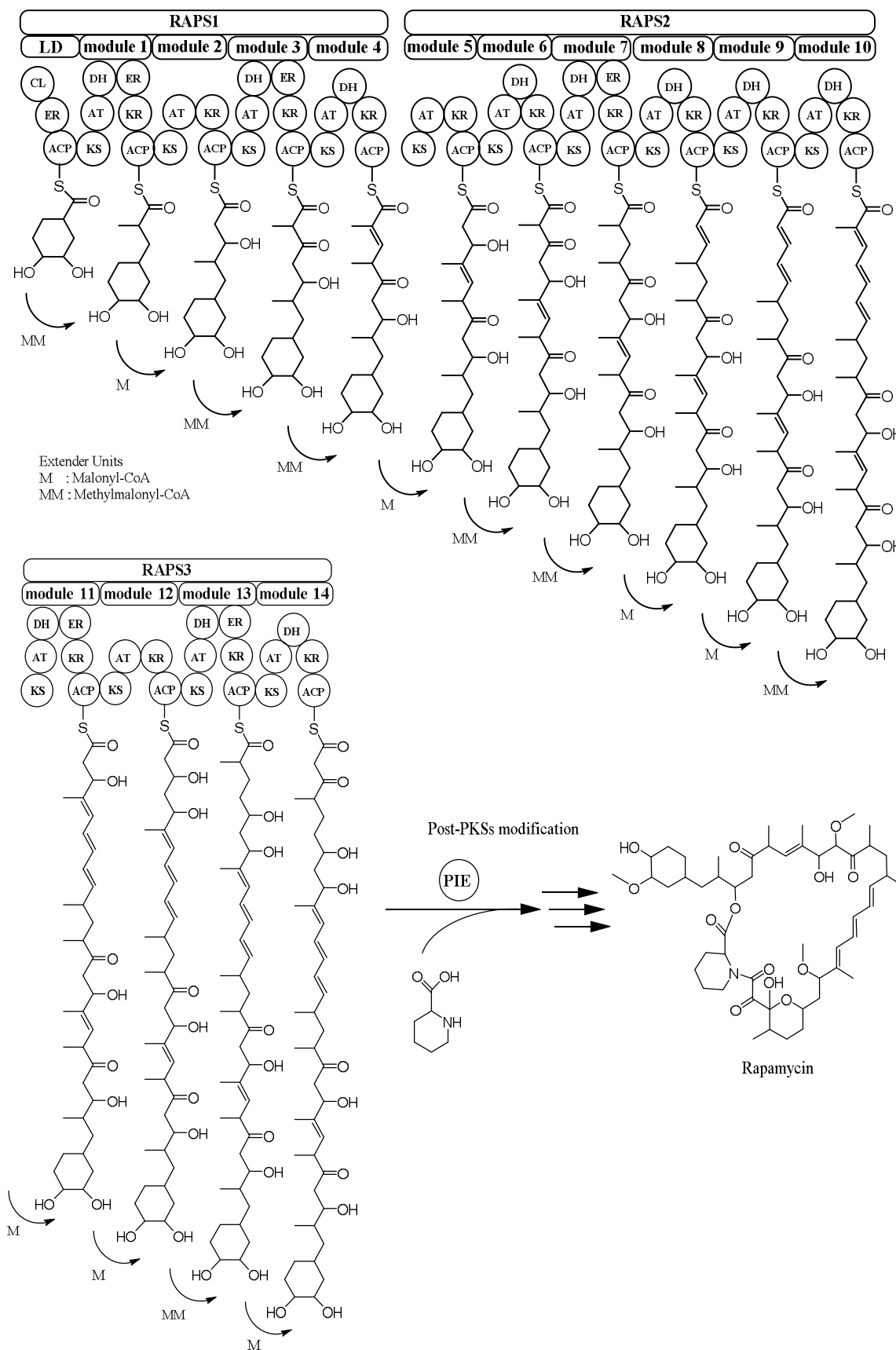
#### 107 4. Polyketide Synthases Type II

108 The type II polyketide synthases (type-II PKSs) are responsible for producing aromatic  
109 polyketide. Based on the polyphenolic ring system and their biosynthetic pathways, the aromatic  
110 polyketides produced by type-II PKSs are classified into three groups, i.e. anthracyclines,  
111 angucyclines, aureolic acids, tetracyclines, tetracenomycins, pradimicin-type polyphenols, and  
112 benzoisochromanequinones. Some examples of aromatic polyketide produced by *Streptomyces* are  
113 actinorhodin, doxorubicin, jadomycin B, oxytetracycline, mithramycin, tetracenomycin C, and  
114 benastatin A (Figure 4) [28,40–45].

115 Unlike type-I PKSs that involve huge multifunctional proteins that have many modules  
116 containing domains and perform the enzymatic reaction in a non-iterative way, the type-II PKSs  
117 have monofunctional polypeptides and work iteratively to produce aromatic polyketide. However,  
118 like the type-I PKS, the type-II PKSs also comprise acyl carrier protein (ACP) that functions as an  
119 anchor for the nascent polyketide chain. In addition to possessing ACP, the type-II PKSs also consist  
120 of two ketosynthases units ( $KS_{\alpha}$  and  $KS_{\beta}$ ) that work cooperatively to produce poly- $\beta$ -keto chain.  $KS_{\alpha}$   
121 unit catalyze condensation of the precursors, on the other hand, the role of  $KS_{\beta}$  in the type-II PKSs is  
122 as a chain length-determining factor. The three major systems (ACP,  $KS_{\alpha}$  and  $KS_{\beta}$ ) are called  
123 'minimal PKS' that work iteratively to produce aromatic polyketide. The other additional enzymes  
124 such as ketoreductases, cyclases and aromatases cooperate together to transform the poly- $\beta$ -keto  
125 chain into the aromatic compound core. Furthermore, the post-tailoring process is conducted by  
126 oxygenases, glycosyl and methyl transferases [40,46–48].

#### 127 5. Biosynthesis of Doxorubicin

128 Doxorubicin was isolated from *Streptomyces peucetius* in the early of 1960s. It belongs to  
129 anthracyclines that has tetracyclic ring containing quinone and hydroquinone group in its structure.  
130 Doxorubicin is one of the important drugs for treatment of cancer such as breast cancer, childhood  
131 solid tumors, soft tissue sarcomas, and aggressive lymphomas. There are some proposed  
132 mechanisms how doxorubicin kills the cancer cells, i.e. (i) DNA intercalation, (ii) topoisomerase II  
133 poisoning, (iii) oxidative stress, and (iv) ceramide overproduction [49–51].

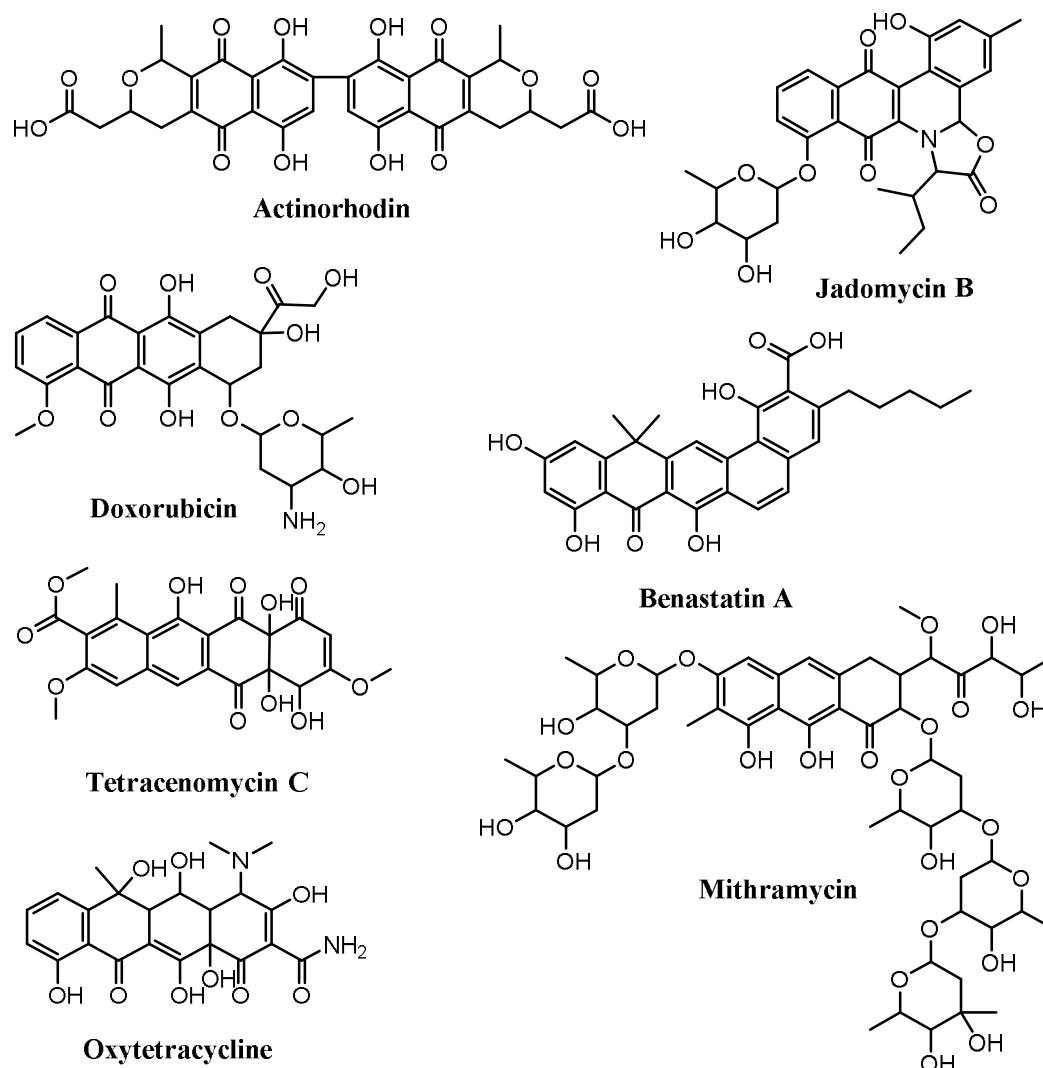


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Figure 3. Biosynthesis of rapamycin.



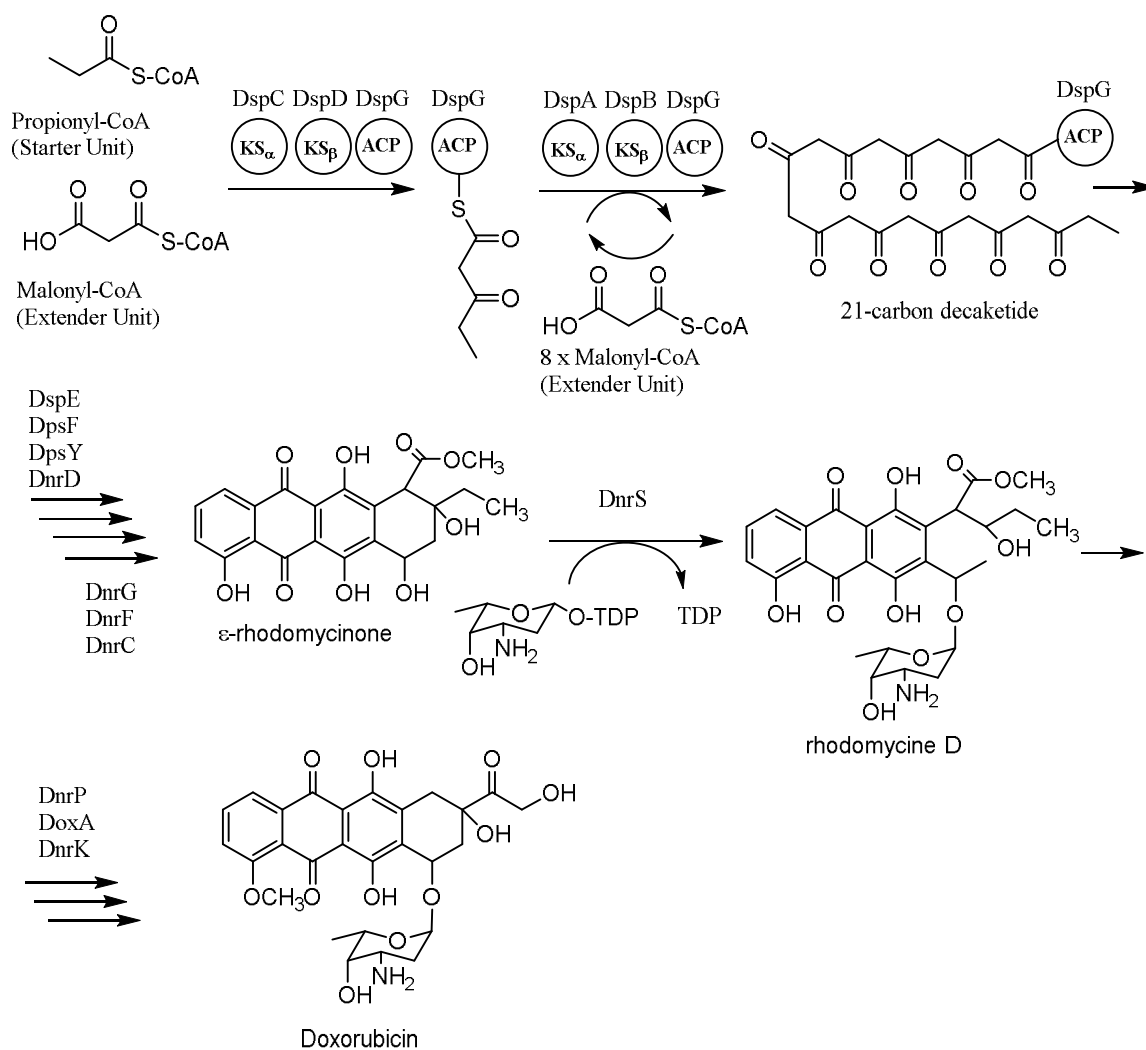
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Figure 4. Some aromatic polyketides produced by *Streptomyces*.

139 Daunorubicin (DNR)-doxorubicin (DXR) type-II PKSs, encoded by *dps* genes in *Streptomyces*  
140 *peucetius*, are involved in the formation of doxorubicin. The biosynthesis of doxorubicin requires one  
141 of propionyl-CoA as the starter unit and nine of malonyl-CoA as the extender units. The process  
142 involves two 'minimal PKS' expressed by *dpsABCDG* genes to produce a 21-carbon decaketide as an  
143 intermediate compound. The repetitive process is conducted by  $KS_{\alpha}$  (DpsA),  $KS_{\beta}$  (DpsB) and ACP  
144 (DpsG). The next process employs several enzymes such as ketoreductase (DpsE), cyclases (DpsF,  
145 DpsY and DnrD), oxygenase (DnrG and DnrF), and methyl transferase (DnrC) to produce  
146  $\epsilon$ -rhodomycinone, an important intermediate of doxorubicin biosynthesis. The remaining steps to  
147 synthesize doxorubicin utilize glycosyltransferase (DnrS) with the thymidinediphospho (TDP)  
148 derivative of L-daunosamine, methyl esterase (DnrP), oxygenase (DoxA) and methyl transferase  
149 (DnrK) (Figure 5) [48,52–56].

## 150 6. Polyketide Synthases Type III

151 Unlike the type-I and type II PKSs, the type-III PKSs do not utilize ACP as an anchor for the  
152 production of polyketide metabolite. In this case, acyl-CoAs are used directly as substrates for  
153 generating polyketide compounds. In order to create polyketides, this system contains enzymes that  
154 construct homodimers and catalyzes many reactions such as priming, extension, and cyclization in  
155 the iterative way. With this fact, the type-III PKSs are the simplest structure among the other type  
156 PKSs. The type-III PKSs founded in bacteria was first time reported in 1999 and before that time the  
157 type-III PKSs were known only could be detected in plants [57–59].

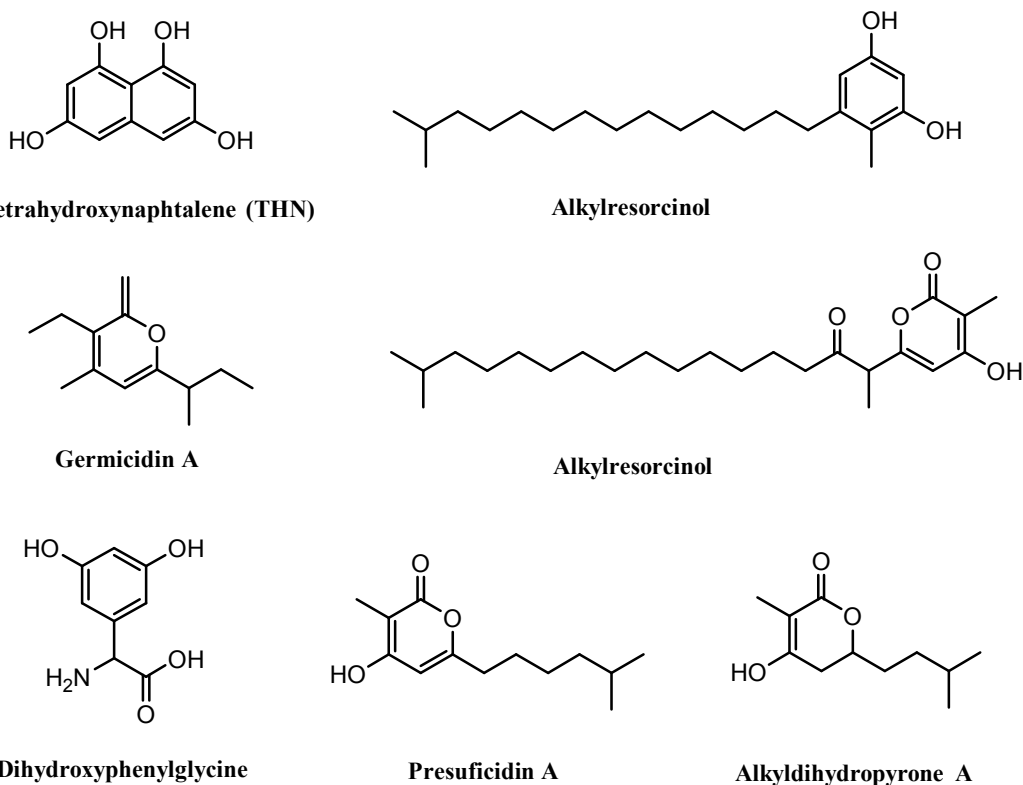
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**Figure 5.** Biosynthesis of doxorubicin.

161 Some studies previously revealed that type-III PKSs could also be identified in the *Streptomyces*  
 162 such as RppA, founded in *Streptomyces griseus*, that is responsible in the synthesis of  
 163 1,3,6,8-tetrahydroxynaphthalene (THN), which is the intermediate compound in the synthesis of  
 164 flaviolin and hexahydroxyperylenequinone (HPQ) melanin [60]. Gcs, identified in *Streptomyces*  
 165 *coelicolor* A3(2), is reported has an important role in the biosynthesis of germicidin [61]. SrsA,  
 166 encoded by *srsA* gene and isolated from *Streptomyces griseus*, is known to have an important role in  
 167 the biosynthesis of phenolic lipids, i.e. alkylresorcinols and alkylpyrones [29]. The type-III PKS  
 168 Ken2, isolated from *Streptomyces violaceoruber*, was suggested to be involved in the production of  
 169 3,5-dihydroxyphenylglycine (3,5-DHPG). This compound is nonproteinogenic amino acid needed  
 170 for formation of kendomycin and several other glycopeptide antibiotics such as ballhimycin,  
 171 chloroeremomycin and also vancomycin [62]. Cpz6, encoded by *cpz6* gene and isolated from  
 172 *Streptomyces sp.* MK730-62F2, was reported to be engaged in the biosynthesis of caprazamycins by  
 173 producing a group of new triketidepyrenes (presulficidins) [63]. Moreover, other finding also  
 174 suggested that DpyA, encoded on a linear plasmid of *Streptomyces reveromyceticus*, catalyzes the  
 175 formation of the alkylidihydropyrones (Figure 6) [64].

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**Figure 6.** Some compounds produced by type-III PKSs.

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**7. Biosynthesis of Germicidin**

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Germicidin, a pyrone-derived polyketide, is produced by a type-III PKSs germicidin synthase (Gcs) and is known to inhibit spore germination. Germicidin A, produced by *Streptomyces viridochromogenes* and *Streptomyces coelicolor*, prevents the spore germination reversibly at very low concentration (40 pg/ml). The mechanism of inhibition is suggested by affecting the sporal respiratory chain and blocking Ca<sup>2+</sup>-activated ATPase, thus resulting inadequate energy for spore germination. Furthermore, germicidin A also has antibacterial properties against various Gram-positive bacteria [65,66].

Although, many bacterial type-III PKSs use only malonyl-CoA as both starter and extender units, the type-III PKS Gcs, which is responsible in germicidin biosynthesis, is suggested having ability to utilize either acyl-ACP or acyl-CoA as a starter unit [67]. Moreover, for extender units, Gcs may involved malonyl-CoA and either methylmalonyl-CoA or ethylmalonyl-CoA in order to produce many types of germicidins [68]. In the first step, the starter unit is transacylated onto the cystein residue of Gcs and then Gcs catalyzes the condensation reaction between starter unit and extender unit concomitantly with decarboxylation process resulting  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-thioester of CoA. The process continues with  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-CoA that transacylates back onto the cysteine residue of Gcs (repetitive process) and subsequently undergoes condensation reaction with either methylmalonyl-CoA or ethylmalonyl-CoA simultaneously with decarboxylation to formulate  $\beta,\delta$ -diketothioester of CoA. In the end of the reaction, cyclization of the  $\beta,\delta$ -diketothioester of CoA is catalyzed also by Gcs to produce various type of germicidins (Figure 7) [61].



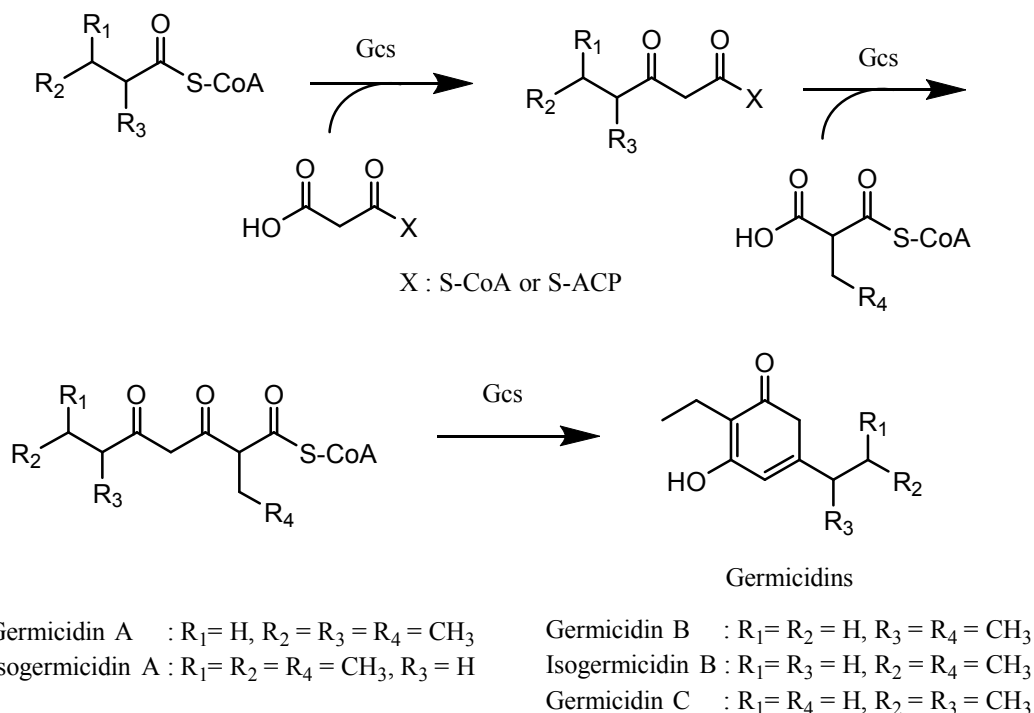


Figure 7. Biosynthesis of Germicidins.

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## 202 8. Conclusions

203 There are three types of PKSs (type I, type II, and type III) in *Streptomyces* which is responsible  
 204 in the biosynthesis of polyketides. Type I polyketide synthases (type-I PKSs) are huge  
 205 multifunctional proteins that have many modules containing different domains. Each module has  
 206 responsibility to perform one condensation cycle in a non-iterative way and in each domain, a  
 207 particular enzymatic reaction is occurred. Type-I PKSs are responsible for producing macrocyclic  
 208 polyketides (macrolides) such as rapamycin, FK506, spiramycin, avermectin, methymycin,  
 209 narbomycin and pikromycin. The type-II PKSs have monofunctional polypeptides and synthesize  
 210 iteratively aromatic polyketide such as actinorhodin, doxorubicin, jadomycin B, oxytetracycline,  
 211 mithramycin, tetracenomycin C, and benastatin A. Unlike the type-I and type II PKSs, the type-III  
 212 PKSs do not utilize ACP as an anchor for the production of polyketide and use acyl-CoAs directly as  
 213 substrates for generating polyketide compounds. Type-III PKSs contain enzymes that construct  
 214 homodimers and catalyze many reactions in the iterative way in the biosynthesis of some  
 215 compounds such as tetrahydroxynaphthalene (THN), alkylresorcinols, alkylpyrones,  
 216 dihydroxyphenylglycine, germicidins, presulficidins, and alkylidihydropyrones. The type-III PKSs  
 217 are also considered as the simplest structure among the other type PKSs.

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