Functional Operons in Secondary Metabolic Gene Clusters in *Glarea lozoyensis* (Fungi, Ascomycota, Leotiomycetes)

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**ABSTRACT**

Operons are multigene transcriptional units which occur mostly in prokaryotes but rarely in eukaryotes. Protein-coding operons have not been reported in the Fungi even though they represent a very diverse kingdom of organisms. Here, we report a functional operon involved in the secondary metabolism of the fungus *Glarea lozoyensis* belonging to Leotiomycetes (Ascomycota). Two contiguous genes, *glpks3* and *glnrps7*, encoding polyketide synthase and nonribosomal peptide synthetase, respectively, are cotranscribed into one dicistronic mRNA under the control of the same promoter, and the mRNA is then translated into two individual proteins, GLPKS3 and GLNRPS7. Heterologous expression in *Aspergillus nidulans* shows that the GLPKS3-GLNRPS7 enzyme complex catalyzes the biosynthesis of a novel pyrrolidinedione-containing compound, xenolozo-yenone (compound 1), which indicates the operon is functional. Although it is structurally similar to prokaryotic operons, the *glpks3-glnrps7* operon locus has a monophyletic origin from fungi rather than having been horizontally transferred from prokaryotes. Moreover, two additional operons, *glpks28-glnrps8* and *glpks29-glnrps9*, were verified at the transcriptional level in the same fungus. This is the first report of protein-coding operons in a member of the Fungi.

**IMPORTANCE**

Operons are multigene transcriptional units which occur mostly in prokaryotes but rarely in eukaryotes. Three operon-like gene structures for secondary metabolism that were discovered in the filamentous fungus *Glarea lozoyensis* are the first examples of protein-coding operons identified in a member of the Fungi. Among them, the *glpks3-glnrps7* operon is responsible for the biosynthesis of xenolozo-yenone, which is a novel tetramic acid-containing compound. Although structurally similar to prokaryotic operons, the *glpks3-glnrps7* operon locus did not result from horizontal gene transfer from prokaryotes. In addition, operonlike structures have been predicted in *silico* to be common in other fungi. The common occurrence and operonlike structure in fungi provide evolutionary insight and essential data for eukaryotic gene transcription.

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**Genes that cooperate in a particular biological process often require coordinated regulation of their expression (1). In prokaryotic genomes, many functionally coupled genes are grouped together within an operon that allows the genes to be cotranscribed under the control of a single regulatory element, which results in a single polycistronic mRNA. In contrast, eukaryotic genes are usually transcribed individually into monocistronic mRNA. Although operons were previously thought to exist solely in prokaryotes, clustered protein-coding genes with coexpression behave as operons in some eukaryotes (2), and RNA genes are often grouped in operons. Except for the operons transcribed into rRNAs that do not encode proteins, the other eukaryotic operons reported so far are divided into two broad types. The first type of eukaryotic operon is transcribed to produce polycistronic transcripts that are subsequently converted into mature monocistronic mRNAs. This type of operon was first reported in the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* and subsequently in other nematodes and some early-diverging chordates (3–5). A global analysis of the *C. elegans* genome showed that about 15% of all *C. elegans* genes are in operons (6). The second type of eukaryotic operon is transcribed as dicistronic mRNAs that are translated as a single polypeptide. Examples of the latter type have been found in plants, flies, and mammals, encoding γ-glutamyl kinase and γ-glutamyl phosphate reductase, sugar receptors, and a candidate gene for a role in the imprinted Prader-Willi syndrome, respectively (7–9). However, operons with protein-coding genes have not been previously reported in the Fungi even though they represent a kingdom with more than 100,000 described species and potentially more than a million awaiting discovery.

The filamentous fungus *Glarea lozoyensis* (ATCC 20868) pro-
duces pneumocandin B0, which is the starting molecule for the production of the antifungal drug caspofungin acetate (10). To identify the gene cluster, comprised of a nonribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS) and a polyketide synthase (PKS), that is required for the biosynthesis of pneumocandin B0, we sequenced the genome of *G. lozoyensis* and annotated the gene structures for secondary metabolite biosynthesis (10). Among six PKS and NRPS gene clusters, five are predicted to be involved in the biosynthesis of hybrid polyketide-nonribosomal peptide molecules containing 1 amino acid residue. cDNA analysis revealed that three of these five polyketide synthase-nonribosomal peptide synthetase (PKS-NRPS) hybrid genes are transcribed as operons. After analysis at the protein and metabolite levels, one of them, containing the genes *glpks3* and *glnrps7*, is confirmed to be transcribed as an operon, and the two resultant proteins catalyze the biosynthesis of a novel secondary metabolite.

**RESULTS**

The *glpks3* and *glnrps7* genes are transcribed as an operon. The *glpks3-glnrps7* locus, annotated as a PKS-NRPS hybrid gene, is part of a typical secondary metabolite gene cluster (Fig. 1). To investigate the transcription of *glpks3-glnrps7*, we used 5′-rapid amplification of cDNA ends (5′-RACE), 3′-RACE, and reverse transcription (RT)-PCR to amplify seven overlapping cDNA fragments to obtain the whole mRNA transcript. Each of the seven overlapping cDNA fragments spans at least one intron in the corresponding genomic DNA sequence to ensure that they were amplified from cDNA templates. By comparing the genomic DNA and the cDNA sequences, we confirmed that *glpks3-glnrps7* is transcribed as a single 12,562-nucleotide (nt) transcript (Fig. 2A and B). We assessed the cDNA sequence for potential open reading frames (ORFs) and confirmed two distinct ORFs separated by a 26-bp intergenic sequence (Fig. 2C and D). *glpks3* contains a 9,021-bp ORF with six introns, and *glnrps7* contains a 2,664-bp intronless ORF. The 26-bp intergenic sequence between *glpks3* and *glnrps7* lacks a polyadenylation signal, which is required for 3′-end cleavage and polyadenylation of pre-messenger RNA in eukaryotic protein-coding genes (11). In addition, neither a transcriptional termination site for *glpks3* nor a transcription initiation site for *glnrps7* was detected. Taken together, these results confirm that *glpks3* and *glnrps7* are cotranscribed into one dicistronic mRNA.

Since the *glpks3-glnrps7* locus contains two ORFs, two distinct proteins are expected to be translated from the single 12,562-nt transcript. We carried out two experiments to confirm the translation of two proteins from the 12,562-nt transcript. First, a
genomic DNA fragment spanning the promoter sequence and the region annotated to encode the ketosynthase domain (KS) of the glpks3 gene was fused downstream with a green fluorescent protein (GFP) reporter gene (Fig. 2E). The reporter plasmid was introduced into the erologous host. Based on these results, we conclude that the glpks3 and glnrps7 genes are cotranscribed into one dicistronic mRNA under the control of a single promoter and the resultant transcript is then translated into two individual proteins, GLPKS3 and GLNRPS7, proving that the glpks3-glnrps7 locus belongs to the second type of eukaryotic operon in which the dicistronic mRNAs are translated as in prokaryotic operons.

Functional analysis of the glpks3-glnrps7 gene cluster. The glpks3-glnrps7 locus is clustered with two putative transporter genes, one putative oxidoreductase gene, and one putative transcriptional regulatory gene (Fig. 1), which constitutes a typical organization for a gene cluster for the biosynthesis of a secondary metabolite. Based on the catalytic domain structures of GLPKS3-GLNRPS7, it is predicted that the gene cluster is responsible for the biosynthesis of a polyketide chain linked to 1 amino acid residue. In order to detect this compound, we generated A. lozoyensis mutant strains in which the DNA fragment from 8,512 to 9,946 bp downstream from the translation start codon of glpks3 (including the 26-bp gap and partial region annotated as an adenylation domain [A]) was deleted by Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation to inactivate GLPKS3-GLNRPS7 (∆glpks3-glnrps7) (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). By comparing the metabolite profiles of the wild-type and ∆glpks3-glnrps7 strains, we hoped to identify the compound encoded by the glpks3-glnrps7 gene cluster. Repeated attempts under different fermentation conditions did not reveal any differences between the high-performance liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (HPLC-MS) profiles of the wild-type strain and the ∆glpks3-glnrps7 deletion strain. As an alternative strategy, we compared the HPLC-MS profiles of the A. nidulans parent strain and the A. nidulans strain transformed with the PtrpC-glpsk3-glnrps7 gene construct. One new and unique peak was observed in the fermentation broth of the A. nidulans transformant without a promoter (Fig. 4A). We purified the target compound, referred to as compound 1, and elucidated its structure with the high-resolution electrospray ionization-mass spectrometry (HRESIMS) and one-dimensional and two-dimensional nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra (Fig. 4B; see also Fig. S2).

Operon Structure in Fungi

FIG 3 Verifying the glpks3-glnrps7 operon gene organization in Aspergillus nidulans. (A) Heterologous expression vector pAg1-PtrpC-glpsk3-glnrps7. Primer Y and Z and 1 and 999’ were used to detect transcription of glpks3-glnrps7 in A. nidulans by RT-PCR. The RT-PCR products were 474 bp and 1,528 bp, respectively. (B) Transcription of glpks3-glnrps7 in PtrpC-glpsk3-glnrps7 transformant of A. nidulans. All fragments were obtained by RT-PCR. (C) RT-PCR analysis of glpks3-glnrps7. Lane 1, negative control A. nidulans A773; lane 2, negative control glpks3-glnrps7 transformant of A. nidulans; lane 3, PtrpC-glpsk3-glnrps7 transformant of A. nidulans; lane 4, positive control Glaea lozoyensis. Primer sets Y/Z and I/999’ yielded a 474-bp RT-PCR product and a 1,528-bp RT-PCR product, respectively, in the PtrpC-glpsk3-glnrps7 transformant of A. nidulans. (D) Western blotting analysis of GLNRPS7. Lane 1, negative control A. nidulans A773; lane 2, negative control glpks3-glnrps7 transformant of A. nidulans; lane 3, PtrpC-glpsk3-glnrps7 transformant of A. nidulans.
It is a novel tetramic acid-containing metabolite and is given the trivial name xenolozoyenone. The prefix “xeno” refers to the biosynthetic gene’s expression in a foreign host. Xenolozoyenone is a polyketide chain linked to an amino acid residue, which is consistent with the expected biosynthetic product of the \( \text{glpks3-glnrps7} \) gene cluster. Collectively, these results suggest that the \( \text{glpks3-glnrps7} \) operon is functional at the transcriptional, translational, and chemical levels.

**Evolutionary origin of GLPKS3–GLNRPS7 operon.** Operons are common in prokaryotes. In order to clarify the evolutionary origin of the \( \text{glpks3-glnrps7} \) operon, we constructed a phylogenetic tree based on the KS domain of GLPKS3, 30 fungal PKSs, and 9 bacterial PKSs (Fig. 5; see also Fig. S3 and S4 and Table S1 in the supplemental material). The 30 fungal PKSs and 9 bacterial PKSs have been linked to products with known chemical structures (Table S1) and, thus, were proven to be functional PKSs. GLPKS3 and
FIG 5 Domain prediction and phylogenetic analysis of ketosynthase domain (KS) of GLPKS3–GLNRPS7 and its orthologs, GLPKS28–GLNRPS8, GLPKS29–GLNRPS9, and 30 characterized fungal polyketide synthases (PKSs), and 9 characterized bacterial PKSs. The domains were annotated by anti-SMASH or visually in multiple alignments. The genealogy of PKSs was inferred by maximum-likelihood analysis of the aligned predicted amino acid sequences of the KS domains. The branch length indicates the number of inferred amino acid changes. Red dots indicate branch nodes with ≥70% support. AT, acyltransferase domain; DH, dehydratase domain; MT, methyltransferase; MDR, medium-chain reductase/dehydrogenase domain; ER, enoylreductase domain; KR, β-ketoacylreductase domain; ACP, acyl carrier protein; C, condensation domain; A, adenylation domain; PCP, peptidyl carrier protein; R, reductive domain; DKC, Dieckmann cyclase domain; TE, thioesterase domain.
the 30 fungal PKSs were grouped together (bootstrap value of 92%), and the clade was distantly related to and distinct from the bacterial PKSs. Thus, the glpks3-glnrps7 locus and its fungal orthologs appear to have a monophyletic origin among fungal PKSs, and the glpks3-glnrps7 locus did not result from horizontal gene transfer from prokaryotes. Among the fungal PKSs, GLPKS3 and its fungal orthologs were grouped in a monophyletic clade with a high bootstrap value (100%). In this clade, 26 proteins were from 13 genera belonging to four classes of Pezizomycotina, which suggests that these kinds of enzymes are widespread and possibly serve a basic function in these fungi.

Two other G. lozoyensis gene loci transcribed as operons. In addition to glpks3-glnrps7, the G. lozoyensis genome revealed four more genes (glpks26-nrps, glpks27-nrps, glpks28-nrps, and glpks29-nrps) that are predicted to be responsible for the biosynthesis of polyketide linked to 1 amino acid residue (10). To find out if the occurrence of operons is common among these secondary metabolic genes in G. lozoyensis, we determined the CDNAS of the other four PKS-NRPS hybrid genes. Whole transcripts assembled with overlapping cDNA fragments obtained by RACE-PCR and RT-PCR revealed that glpks28-nrps and glpks29-nrps possess gene organization patterns similar to that of the glpks3-glnrps7 locus (Fig. 6). Because not every cDNA fragment spans an intron, one primer set, PF3-1 and Ou3er5 (located in the third intron of glpks29-nrps), was used as a genomic DNA contamination control. No PCR product was amplified by this primer set with the template cDNA, indicating there was no genomic DNA contamination in the RNA samples used for cDNA amplification. The glpks28-nrps locus was transcribed as a dicistronic transcript with an intergenic sequence of 443 nt, while the glpks29-nrps locus also was transcribed as a dicistronic transcript with an intergenic sequence of 179 nt. No polyadenylation signal sequences or promoter elements were detected in the intergenic region. Moreover, no transcriptional termination site for the upstream gene or transcription initiation site for the downstream gene were detected in the intergenic regions. These results demonstrated that the glpks28-nrps and glpks29-nrps loci are organized as operons. Based on these results, we renamed these two loci as glpks28-glnrps8 and glpks29-glnrps9. glpks28 contained a 966-bp ORF, and ghnrps8 contained a 10,822-bp ORF. glpks29 had a 9,212-bp ORF, and ghnrps9 contained a 5,439-bp ORF. Among the four genes, glpks28 contains no introns, while ghnrps8, glpks29, and ghnrps9 contain multiple introns. These two loci are organized as typical secondary metabolic gene clusters which are predicted to be responsible for the biosynthesis of compounds consisting of a polyketide chain linked to an amino acid residue.

**DISCUSSION**

rRNA operons are widespread in eukaryotes, including the Fungi. However, protein-coding operons have not been reported in the Fungi. A dicistronic mRNA of CRG1 and PUT1 was reported in the filamentous fungus *Cereospora nicotianae*, but these two loci are controlled by separate promoters (12). Therefore, this locus does not fulfill the definition of an operon (2). We demonstrated experimentally in this study that three of the five PKS-NRPS loci in G. lozoyensis are operons. To our knowledge, the three operons in G. lozoyensis are the first examples of eukaryotic protein-coding operons identified in a member of the fungal kingdom.

The majority of known eukaryotic operons belong to the first type of eukaryotic operons, in which the polycistronic transcripts are processed into mature monocistronic mRNAs (2). Although the mechanism for transcript maturation in *C. elegans* operons is different from that in the *Drosophila melanogaster* CheB42dull operon, the polyadenylation signal in the intergenic region is crucial for the 3'-end formation in all of these operons (6, 13). No polyadenylation signal was found in the intergenic regions of the glpks3-glnrps7, glpks28-glnrps8, and glpks29-glnrps9 operons, suggesting that the operons in *G. lozoyensis*, like the stonedA/stonedB operon in *D. melanogaster* (14), belong to the second type of eukaryotic operons, in which the dicistronic mRNAs are translated as in prokaryotic operons.

It has been suggested that some of the second type of eukaryotic operons had originated from bacteria via horizontal gene transfer (8). However, phylogenetic analysis of the glpks3-glnrps7, glpks28-glnrps8, and glpks29-glnrps9 operons showed that they do not resemble prokaryotic genes (Fig. 5). Not only do the three operons contain multiple introns, but they also have GC content (46 to 50%) consistent with that the resident genome (46%) (10). These results suggest that these operons were not products of horizontal gene transfer from bacteria. We also constructed phylogenetic trees for the KS and A domains of GLPKS3-GLNRP5 and their orthologs (see Fig. S5 in the supplemental material). The proteins containing both KS and A orthologs formed distinct clades with GLPKS3-GLNRP5 in the two trees. However, the A domain tree appears to be in conflict with the KS tree and established ascomycete phylogeny, while the KS tree does not significantly conflict with the established phylogeny. These results suggest that these proteins may have descended from a common ancestor, but the NRPS module and the PKS module may have evolved at different evolutionary rates.

Characterization of the three operon gene structures in the *G. lozoyensis* genome suggests that operon structures might be common in the Fungi. Based on the prerequisites for an operon, such as two genes that are transcribed in the same direction with a predicted upstream promoter and an intergenic region of ≤700 bp that lacks predicted promoter sequences and polyadenylation signal sequences (13), we predicted the potential operon structures of three fungal genomes in *silico*. Genome and transcriptome data analysis revealed operonlike gene structures in 3.8%, 1.6%, and 3.7% of *A. nidulans*, *Glomerella graminicola*, and *Drechslerella stenobrocha* genes, respectively (see Table S2 in the supplemental material). If validated experimentally, this analysis suggests that operonlike gene structures may occur widely in the Fungi.

Xenolozooyenone, the novel secondary metabolite of GLPKS3-GLNRP5 expressed in *A. nidulans*, is a typical fungal PKS-NRPS hybrid product. It belongs to the tetramic acid class of metabolites, such as ravenic acid (15), marinitorine C (16), and pretenellin A (17), which are common in fungi. Its structure is similar to those of other tetramic acids but not identical due to having a different polyketide side chain and substituents on the 2,4-pyrrolidinedione ring. Moreover, the fungal hybrid polyketide-norribosomal peptide molecules are generally assembled by a PKS-NRPS hybrid product (18), including pyranonigrin E, biysynthesized by PynA in *Aspergillus niger*, which is one of the GLPKS3 KS domain orthologs showing a domain organization similar to that of GLPKS3-GLNRP5 (19). However, GLPKS3-GLNRP5 is an enzyme complex of two proteins, GLPKS3 and GLNRP5. The PKS portion is responsible for the formation of the linear polyketide chain, and the NRPS portion for the exten-
FIG 6  Genomic characterization of the glpks28-glnrps8 and glpks29-glnrps9 gene clusters. (A) glpks28-glnrps8 gene clusters. The glpks28-glnrps8 locus is located in a 54.4-kb gene cluster that includes two putative transporter genes and two putative transcriptional regulatory protein genes. (B) glpks29-glnrps9 gene clusters. The glpks29-glnrps9 locus is located in a 55.0-kb gene cluster that includes one putative oxidoreductase gene and two putative transcriptional regulatory protein genes. Vertical pointers indicate intron positions. cDNA fragments 1 and 9 were obtained by RACE-PCR, and fragments 2 to 8 were obtained by RT-PCR. The (Continued)
sion of the polyketide chain with an activated glycine. The linear polyketide-nonribosomal peptide chain undergoes a Dieckmann cyclization reaction that results in the formation of compound 1 (17). Finally, compound 1a could be modified by tailoring enzymes (e.g., cytochrome P450) of A. nidulans to yield compound 1 (Fig. 4C). As the NRPS portion of GLPKS3-GLNRPS7 is located in two individual proteins, GLPKS3 (containing a condensation domain [C] and a partial A domain proximal to the C terminus) and GLNRPS7 (containing the complementary partial A domain, a peptidyl carrier protein [PCP], and a Dieckmann cyclase domain [DKC]), we presume that GLPKS3 and GLNRPS7 are translated in a 1:1 ratio to assemble the optimal number of functional enzyme complexes, and the operon genomic organization helps maintain the stoichiometric ratio (20).

The identification of operons in the Fungi not only reveals the complexity of gene transcription and regulation in eukaryotic organisms but also facilitates future studies concerning the origin and evolution of fungal genes that encode antibiotics and other secondary metabolites. These findings may have important practical implications in the construction of synthetic gene clusters for antibiotic discovery.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**DNA and RNA procedures.** Fungal genomic DNA was extracted as described previously (10). Plasmids and PCR products were purified using the E.Z.N.A. gel extraction kit (Omega Bio-Tek, Norcross, GA). Phusion high-fidelity DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, Massachusetts) and EasyTaq DNA polymerase (TransGen Biotech, Beijing, China) were used for PCRs. Sequences were determined by SinoGenoMax Co., Ltd. (Beijing, China). Restriction endonucleases and DNA-modifying enzymes were from New England Biolabs (Ipswich, Massachusetts).

RNA was extracted with the Qiagen RNeasy minikit, and carryover DNA was removed by DNase I digestion (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). cDNA fragments were synthesized using the Transcript II first-strand cDNA synthesis supermix (TransGen Biotech, Beijing, China). Introns were identified by comparing genomic and cDNA sequences. The 5’ ends of the mRNA and the poly(A) attachment sites were mapped by 5’- and 3’-RACE–PCR (FirstChoice RLM-RACE kit; Ambion, Austin, Texas). All primers used in the study are listed in Table S3 in the supplemental material.

**Genetic manipulation of glpks3-glnrps7 in G. lozoyensis.** To detect the expression of GLPKS3, a genomic fragment extending from the promoter to the region annotated as the KS domain of glpks3, the GFP reporter gene, and the A. nidulans trpC terminator were amplified and inserted into pAg1-H3 to give the expression vector pAg1-GFP-KS2-TrpC (see Text S1 and Fig. S6 in the supplemental material).

To disrupt glpks3, the 3’ regions of glpks3 and glnrps7 were amplified and inserted into pAg1-H3 to give pAg1-G3-glplks3-glnrps7, containing the gene replacement cassette (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material).

Conidia of G. lozoyensis were prepared and transformed as previously described (10). After isolation of single spores from the transformants, the positive transformants of Δglpks3-glnrps7 were determined by PCR using two primer pairs (GLPKS3-F2/R and GLPKS3-F1/T). Transforms positive for KS-GFP were determined by PCR using two primer pairs (GFP-F/GFP-R and GFP-F/N).

**Figure Legend Continued**

whole transcript was assembled based on the overlapping cDNA fragments. Primer set PF5-1 and Outer5 was designed to amplify a 404-bp sequence from genomic DNA templates but not from cDNA templates. KS, ketosynthase domain; AT, acyltransferase domain; DH, dehydratase domain; MT, methyltransferase; KR, β-ketoadyeductase domain; ACP, acyl carrier protein; C, condensation domain; A, adenylation domain; PCP, peptidyl carrier protein; R, reductive domain; DKC, Dieckmann cyclase domain.
500-MHz spectrometer equipped with a 5-mm triple-resonance cryo-probe at 298 K. Residual solvent signals were used as references (acetone-
\( \delta_{\text{H}} \), \( \delta_{\text{C}} \) 2.05, \( \delta_{\text{H}} \) 29.8, 206.0, and CDCl3, \( \delta_{\text{H}} \) 7.26, \( \delta_{\text{C}} \) 77.0). HPLC-MS spectra were obtained on an Agilent 6120 quadrupole mass spectrometer using a positive ESI source. Amounts of 10 \( \mu \)l of the test samples were injected for HPLC-MS analysis (Agilent Zorbax Eclipse plus C18 reverse-phase column, 5 \( \mu \)m, 4.6 by 150 mm, 10% to 90% CH3CN in H2O with 0.1% formic acid for 30 min, 1 ml min\(^{-1}\)) HRESIMS data were obtained using the Agilent 6520 quadrupole time of flight (Q-TOF) LC-MS instrument equipped with an electrospray ionization (ESI) source.

**Isolation of xenolozoyenone.** The scaled-up fermentation culture (PnPrpC-glpks3-gnrps7 transformant of \( A. \) nidulans in 2.0 liters of H medium) was extracted repeatedly with MEK (3 times per 2.0 liters), and the organic solvent was vacuum evaporated to dryness to obtain the crude extract (1.2 g), which was fractionated by using a Sephadex LH-20 column with 1:1 CH2Cl2-MeOH as eluents. The resulting subfractions were combined and further purified by semipreparative reverse-phase HPLC (Agilent Zorbax SB-C18 column, 5 \( \mu \)m, 250 mm, 65% CH3CN in H2O with 0.1% formic acid for 25 min, 2 ml min\(^{-1}\)) to obtain xenolozoyenone (compound 1) as follows: 4.5 mg, \( t_{\text{R}} \) 17.25 min (MeOH); UV (MeOH) \( \lambda_{\text{max}} \) (log \( e \)) 217 (4.46), 256 (4.10), 390 (4.86) nm; \( 1^H \) NMR (acetone-
\( \delta_{\text{H}} \), 60 MHz) \( \delta \) 7.73 (1H, br s, OH-1 or OH-6), 7.50 (1H, dd, J = 15.0, 7.2 Hz, H-12), 3.81 (2H, m, H-16, and H-17), 0.89 (3H, t, J = 6.6, H-18); \( 1^C \) NMR (CDCl3, 125 MHz) \( \delta \) 193.4 (C-4), 176.1 (C-2), 175.0 (C-6), 146.3 (C-8), 144.6 (C-10), 143.4 (C-12), 130.2 (C-11), 128.8 (C-9), 120.1 (C-7), 99.7 (C-3), 62.9 (C-5), 33.2 (C-13), 31.4 (C-15), 29.7 (C-17), 28.6 (C-14), 22.5 (C-16), 14.0 (C-18); HRESIMS m/z \([M+H]^+\) 306.1708 (calculated for C17H24NO4, 306.1700).

**Phylogenetic analysis of PKSs and PKS-NRPs.** To test whether the glpks3-gnrps7 locus is a product of horizontal gene transfer from bacteria, we built a phylogenetic tree based on the KS domain of GLPKS3-GLNRPS7, its orthologs in other fungi (coverage, \( \geq 95\% \)), and identity, \( \geq 64\% \)), GLPKS28-GLNRPS8, GLPKS29-GLNRPS9, 30 characterized fungal PKSs, and 9 characterized bacterial PKSs (see Table S1 in the supplemental material). All domains were identified by using the program anti-SMASH (26) or manually in multiple alignments. The amino acid sequences of the KS domains were aligned with MUSCLE and analyzed using an LG+I+F+G+1 model selected by Prot-test and a 1,000-replication bootstrap test (27, 28). The R/DKC domains were also aligned with MUSCLE. To test whether the glpks3-gnrps7 locus might be of single or multiple evolutionary origins, we constructed two phylogenetic trees, one based on the KS domain of GLPKS3, all orthologs in other fungi (coverage, \( \geq 95\% \)), and identity, \( \geq 55\% \)) and 3 characterized fungal PKS-NRPSs and the other based on the A domain of GLPKS3, all orthologs in other fungi (coverage, \( \geq 95\% \)), and identity, \( \geq 40\% \)), and 3 characterized fungal PKS-NRPSs. The KS and A domains were identified by the program anti-SMASH (26) or manually in multiple alignments. The amino acid sequences of these domains were aligned with MUSCLE and analyzed with RAxML BlackBox by the ML method under a WAG (Whelan And Goldman) model with or without a constraint from the reference fungal taxonomy (27, 29). The A domain tree was also analyzed with RAxML BlackBox by the ML method under the WAG model with a constraint from the KS domain tree.

Alternative hypotheses based on the tree topologies under the null hypothesis that all topologies are equally good explanations of the data were tested with the Shimodaira-Hasegawa test (30), weighted Shimodaira-Hasegawa test, and approximately unbiased test (31), as implemented in TREEFINDER (32).

**Bioinformatics.** Putative promoter sequences in the intergenic region of glpks3-gnrps7 and 1 kb upstream from the genes in other gene pairs were investigated with Promoter 2.0 Prediction Server (33). The polyadenylation signals (AATAAA and ATTAAA) in the intergenic region of glpks3-gnrps7 and other gene pairs were identified by using the nucleotide sequence pattern search tool Fuzznuc in EMBOSB (http://emboss.bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/emboss/fuzznuc). To identify potential polycistrons, genome and transcriptome data of \( A. \) nidulans (GenBank accession numbers PRJNA31961 and PRJNA182282), \( G. \) graminicola (GenBank accession numbers PRJNA378779 and PRJNA151285), and \( D. \) stenobrocha (GenBank accession numbers PRJNA67941 and PRJNA236481) were downloaded from NCBI (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/). The genomic loci were annotated by InterProScan, KEGG, FunCat, and UniProt-GO (34–37) to rule out the possibility of pseudogenes. The RNA-Seq data were assembled as described previously and then mapped and aligned to the genome (38, 39).

The mRNA sequences of glpks3-gnrps7, glpks28-gnrps8, and glpks29-gnrps9 have been deposited at GenBank under the accession numbers KM603664, KM603665, and KM603666, respectively.

**SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL**

Supplemental material for this article may be found at http://mbio.asm.org/lookup/suppl;doi:10.1128/mBio.00703-15/-/DCSupplemental.

Text S1, DOC file, 0.04 MB.
Figure S1, PDF file, 0.1 MB.
Figure S2, PDF file, 0.2 MB.
Figure S3, PDF file, 0.2 MB.
Figure S4, PDF file, 0.3 MB.
Figure S5, PDF file, 0.2 MB.
Figure S6, PDF file, 0.5 MB.
Table S1, DOC file, 0.1 MB.
Table S2, DOC file, 0.03 MB.
Table S3, DOC file, 0.1 MB.

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