Protein-Protein Interactions, Not Substrate Recognition, Dominate the Turnover of Chimeric Assembly Line Polyketide Synthases

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The potential for recombining intact polyketide synthase (PKS) modules has been extensively explored. Both enzyme-substrate and protein-protein interactions influence chimeric PKS activity, but their relative contributions are unclear. We now address this issue by studying a library of 11 bimodular and 8 trimodular chimeric PKSs harboring modules from the erythromycin, rifamycin, and rapamycin synthases. Although many chimeras yielded detectable products, nearly all had specific activities below 10% of the reference natural PKSs. Analysis of selected bimodular chimeras, each with the same upstream module, revealed that turnover correlated with the efficiency of intermodular chain translocation. Mutation of the acyl carrier protein (ACP) domain of the upstream module in one chimera at a residue predicted to influence ketosynthase-ACP recognition led to improved turnover. In contrast, replacement of the ketoreductase domain of the upstream module by a paralog that produced the enantiomeric ACP-bound diketide caused no changes in processing rates for each of six heterologous downstream modules compared with those of the native diketide. Taken together, these results demonstrate that protein-protein interactions play a larger role than enzyme-substrate recognition in the evolution or design of catalytically efficient chimeric PKSs.

The assembly line architecture of multimodular polyketide synthases (PKSs) represents a promising catalytic framework for combinatorial biosynthesis (1). A particularly well studied example of this family of multienzyme systems is the 6-deoxyerythronolide B synthase (DEBS), which produces 6-deoxyerythronolide B (Fig. 1), the parent aglycone of the macroline antibiotic erythromycin (2). DEBS is comprised of three distinct homodimeric proteins: DEBS1, DEBS2, and DEBS3, each containing two PKS modules, with each module being responsible for a distinct round of polyketide elongation and modification. DEBS uses propionyl-CoA to prime the loading didomain (LDD) of module 1 and six methylmalonyl-CoA-derived extender units in catalysis of the six cycles of polyketide chain elongation, followed by terminal release of the mature polyketide chain by thioesterase (TE)-catalyzed macrolactone formation.

Since the original genetic characterization of DEBS over two decades ago (3, 4), extensive in vivo and in vitro analysis has revealed that specific protein-protein interactions play a critical role in the proper vectorial channeling of biosynthetic intermediates from one PKS module to the next (5). A particularly effective mini-assembly line for mechanistic analysis has been a simple bimodular derivative of DEBS (Fig. 2) harboring modules 1 and 2 with a fused TE domain. This bimodular PKS has served as a prototype for many analogous constructs. The potential for engineering chimeric PKSs by recombining modules from paralogous polyketide biosynthetic pathways has been explored for nearly two decades. Early studies revealed the importance of ACP-KS interactions (6, 7), as well as the utility of intermodular linker interactions (8), in the design of productive chimeric assembly lines. At the same time, the relatively broad, but not unrestricted, substrate tolerance of typical KS domains was also recognized (9). In one particularly thorough study, Menzella et al. (10) carried out a large scale assessment of the feasibility of combinatorial biosynthesis by pairwise combinations of 14 modules derived from 8 different PKS clusters, thereby allowing the in vivo characterization of 154 chimeric bimodular PKSs, with the bimodular DEBS derivative (Fig. 2) serving as the benchmark system. Approximately 50% of the resulting chimeras yielded measurable quantities of the expected polyketide product when expressed in Escherichia coli (>0.1 mg/liter culture; ~1% of the productivity of the benchmark DEBS system). These researchers then extended their investigation to the generation and analysis of trimodular PKSs, using the corresponding trimodular DEBS construct (DEBS modules 1, 2, and 3 + TE) as a reference standard (11). Although this extensive study succeeded in revealing many functional PKS combinations, the low yields of the resulting engineered tetraketides suggested that inactive or low producing chimeras...
most likely resulted from some undefined combination of poor recognition of the diketide by the KS domain of heterologous downstream module or defective interaction of the donor ACP and acceptor KS domains at the junction between heterologous modules.

Recent biochemical investigations in our own laboratories have revealed that protein-protein recognition during intermodular polyketide chain translocation involves a set of protein-protein interactions that are orthogonal to those implicated in intramodular polyketide chain elongation (12, 13). This critical distinction has provided a critical mechanistic framework for factoring the contribution of imperfect intermodular ACP-KS interactions to the turnover efficiency of chimeric assembly line PKSs. We have also established that the KR domain of DEBS M2, which generates the enantiomeric (2R,3S)-2-methyl-3-hydroxy diketide diastereomer of the natural (2S,3R) product of DEBS M1, has comparable specificity for the ACP domain of DEBS M1 compared with its natural ACP2 substrate (14). This finding has now allowed us to investigate the influence of the recognition of substrate stereochemistry by an acceptor KS on the overall turnover by otherwise identical chimeric PKSs. We have therefore undertaken a carefully controlled, quantitative analysis of the relative contribution of these protein-protein and protein-substrate recognition to the turnover efficiency of chimeric PKS assembly lines generated by recombining intact modules obtained from heterologous PKSs.

**FIGURE 1. Architecture of DEBS and structure of the resulting product 6-deoxyerythronolide B (6-dEB, 1).** The modular architecture of the three constituent proteins (DEBS1, DEBS2, and DEBS3) is shown in cartoon form, together with the product of each catalytic module attached to its acyl carrier protein (ACP) domain. AT, acyltransferase; KS, ketosynthase; KR, ketoreductase (KR0, inactive KR); DH, dehydratase; ER, enoylreductase; TE, thioesterase. Black tabs represent docking domains, short C- and N-terminal polypeptides that enable selective interactions between specific pairs of individual polypeptides.

**FIGURE 2. Catalytic cycle of a bimodular DEBS derivative.** This mini assembly line is comprised of three proteins: the LDD (shown in red), DEBS module 1 (M1, shown in yellow), and DEBS module 2 fused to the TE domain (M2+TE, shown in blue/gray). The acyltransferase (AT) of the LDD specifically transfers the propionyl moiety of propionyl-CoA (step 1) to the terminal thiol of the phosphopantetheinylated ACP (step 2) of the LDD. This primer unit is then translocated by acylation of the active site Cys-SH of the KS domain of DEBS M1 (step 3). Meanwhile, the ACP of DEBS M1 is loaded with a methylmalonyl extender unit by the action of the acyltransferase domain of DEBS M1. KS-catalyzed chain elongation by decarboxylative Claisen condensation yields an ACP-bound β-ketoacyl-diketide intermediate (step 4). In DEBS M1, the KR domain then catalyzes an epimerization of the C-2 methyl group followed by diastereospecific reduction (step 5) to give the mature (2S,3R)-diketide, which is then translocated to DEBS M2 via a thioester to thiol transacylation. There it undergoes another round of chain elongation and KR-catalyzed reduction (without epimerization), followed by (TE)-catalyzed release and lactonization (steps 6 and 7).
Results

Engineering of Chimeric Bimodular and Trimodular PKSs—Eleven chimeric derivatives of the bimodular PKS shown in Fig. 2 were constructed in which DEBS M2 was replaced by DEBS M3, M5, or M6, or alternatively by each of six modules from the rifamycin synthase (RIFS) (15), or rapamycin synthase (RAPS) (16; Fig. 3). The predicted structures of each of the corresponding triketide products (structures 2–8 (17–19)) are shown in Fig. 3. To facilitate intermodular interactions between heterologous modules, each acceptor module was fused to the N-terminal docking domain of DEBS2 (Fig. 1). (The numbers in parentheses define the identity of the docking domains. For example, the benchmark bimodular derivative of DEBS consists of LDD(4), (5)M1(2), and (3)M2/HE, where parenthetical numbers refer to the parent DEBS modules that are normally adjacent to the corresponding N- or C-terminal docking domains). These helical docking domains mediate weak but specific non-covalent interactions between donor and acceptor modules (20).

An additional eight chimeric trimodular PKSs were also engineered in an analogous manner using LDD(4), DEBS (5)M1(2), an intervening heterologous (3)Module(2), and DEBS (3)M3+TE as the terminal acceptor module. As before, appropriate docking domains were fused to the C- and N-terminal ends of each protein so as to enable effective protein-protein interactions. In addition to the benchmark trimodular PKS with DEBS (3)M2(2) as the intervening module, six modules from RIFS and two modules from RAPS were also tested (Fig. 4). The structures of each of the predicted tetraketide products (structures 9–15) are shown above each trimodular series (Fig. 4). The yield and purity of individual proteins used in this study are documented in Fig. 5.

Activity of Chimeric Bimodular and Trimodular PKSs—To test the in vitro activity of each chimeric PKS, a previously developed UV340 spectrophotometric assay was performed using propionyl-CoA, methylmalonyl-CoA (and malonyl-CoA in the case of RIFS M2+TE), and NADPH as substrates (21). The stoichiometric coupling between polyketide formation and NADPH consumption at steady state, in which the stoichiometric coefficient corresponds to the number of catalytically active ketoreductase domains in the assembly line, allows convenient and sensitive monitoring of the steady-state turnover rate of the multimodular PKS assembly line (Fig. 6) (21).

For the bimodular PKSs, the reference DEBS M1+M2+TE construct showed a steady-state rate of triketide formation rate of 11.6 nmol/min/mg total protein, in good agreement with that previously reported for this system (21). All the other chimeric bimodular assembly lines exhibited significantly reduced rates of turnover, the highest being that using DEBS M6 as the surrogate acceptor module (1.4 nmol/min/mg total protein; Fig. 6A). Background NADPH consumption was measured in a control reaction containing only LDD(4) and (5)DEBSM1(2) in the absence of a downstream acceptor module (Fig. 6A, dashed line). Only the chimeras derived from DEBS M3, DEBS M5, DEBS M6, and RIFS M2 showed detectable activity above this threshold background.
A similar decrease in polyketide synthase activity was observed for the chimeric trimodular PKSs. The reference DEBS M1 + M2 + M3 + TE construct showed a steady-state rate of tetraketide formation rate of 1.5 nmol/min/mg total protein, whereas the remaining nine chimeric trimodular PKSs were 6–20-fold less active (Fig. 6B). The baseline rate of NADPH consumption was established by a control reaction lacking DEBS M2 and containing only LDD(4), (5)M1(2), and DEBS (3)M3/H11001 TE. Importantly, this control also established the extent to which aberrant intermodular chain translocation between DEBS M1 and M3 could be facilitated solely by compatible docking domains. Relative to this threshold (Fig. 6B, dashed line), only the trimodular construct harboring RIFS M2 showed detectable activity, albeit only 15% of the reference DEBS M1 + M2 + M3 + TE system. The close correspondence between the turnover rates of the corresponding bimodular and trimodular PKSs argues against any potential influence of the appended TE domain on the measured relative activities of the chimeric bimodular PKSs.

The polyketide product profiles of each of the above reaction mixtures were analyzed by LC-MS after overnight incubation. As shown in Fig. 7, 6 of the 11 chimeric bimodular PKSs synthesized detectable quantities of their expected product. Although the chimeras harboring RIFS M5 and RIFS M7 showed detectable activity, albeit only 15% of the reference DEBS M1 + M2 + M3 + TE system, the close correspondence between the turnover rates of the corresponding bimodular and trimodular PKSs argues against any potential influence of the appended TE domain on the measured relative activities of the chimeric bimodular PKSs.

To ascertain the cause-effect relationship between ineffective chain translocation and turnover, we sought to enhance the rate of chain translocation in a representative chimeric PKS via site-directed mutagenesis of the ACP domain of DEBS M1. We recently carried out a detailed analysis of the structural elements that control ACP-KS recognition at the DEBS M2-M3 interface (13). Our findings revealed that the N terminus of helix I of ACP2 is the primary specificity determinant during intermodular chain translocation. By contrast, chain elonga-
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**FIGURE 5. Yields and purity of proteins used.** A and B, SDS-PAGE analysis of individual PKS modules used to reconstitute chimeric bimodular (A) and trimodular (B) assembly lines are shown. C, SDS-PAGE analysis of mutant and hybrid modules used in this study is shown. The yield of each protein from a recombinant *E. coli* culture is summarized in the panel to the right.
tion within DEBS M3 was controlled by a loop connecting helices I and II of ACP3.

Based on this earlier observation, we predicted that chain translocation from DEBS M1 to M3 in a chimeric bimodular PKS would be enhanced by introducing the E23K mutation (corresponding to E1424K, based on whole module numbering) into helix I of ACP1, because a cationic residue is also found at the corresponding position of ACP2. Indeed, turnover of the E23K mutant of DEBS M1 + M3 + TE was increased more than 2-fold over the corresponding bimodular PKS derived exclusively from wild-type modules (0.6 ± 0.05 nmol/min/mg total protein, compared with 0.3 ± 0.05 nmol/min/mg total protein) under experimental conditions identical to those of Fig. 6). Taken together, these results underscore the pivotal role of ACP-KS interactions during translocation of the growing polyketide chain between heterologous PKS modules.

Role of Substrate-KS Recognition at Fusion Junctions in Chimeric PKSs—Having examined the influence of ACP-KS interactions on chain translocation at chimeric PKS junctions, we sought to interrogate the relative contribution of substrate-KS recognition on the turnover efficiency of these systems. To this end we rationalized that presentation of the enantiomer of the native (2S,3R)-2-methyl-3-hydroxy-diketide-ACP product of DEBS M1 (Fig. 2) to the downstream modules of selected chimeric bimodular PKSs from Fig. 3 would enable a controlled comparison of the relative importance of specific protein-protein and protein-substrate recognition. Because we have recently shown that the KR domain of DEBS M2 has comparable specificity for ACP1 as for its cognate ACP2 domain (14), we engineered DEBS M1 by replacing its endogenous KR domain with the paralogous KR2 from DEBS M2. The resulting hybrid module, DEBS (5)M1-KR2(2), was expressed as a soluble protein (Fig. 5, 2 mg/liter in E. coli) with purification behavior on an ion exchange chromatography column that was indistinguishable from most wild-type PKS modules.

In addition to evaluating the turnover efficiency of this hybrid module in the presence of DEBS LDD(4) and M2 + TE, we also measured turnover in the presence of six other acceptor PKS modules (Fig. 9). The products (Fig. 9A, structures 16-18) of each of these chimeric PKSs were predicted to be the corresponding (2R, 3S)-diastereomers of the previously characterized triketide lactones 2, 3, and 8. Consistent with the previously established 7-fold preference of DEBS M2 for its natural (2S, 3R)-diketide substrate over the enantiomeric (2R, 3S)-diketide analog (22), the bimodular construct harboring the hybrid donor module showed a comparable 7-fold reduction in turnover rate compared with its wild-type bimodular counterpart (Fig. 9B). Remarkably, none of the other bimodular PKSs containing heterologous downstream modules was significantly affected in response to the change in the configuration of the diketide intermediate (Fig. 9B), indicating that enzyme-substrate recognition is not as important as specific ACP-KS protein-protein recognition during intermodular polyketide chain translocation. To verify the predicted properties of the bimodular PKSs in Fig. 9, the corresponding triketide products were each analyzed by LC-MS (Fig. 10).

Discussion

Combinatorial assembly of modules from different assembly line PKSs is, in principle, a powerful strategy for complex molecule biosynthesis. The relative importance of protein-protein interactions and enzyme-substrate recognition in such engineered systems remains unclear, however. We have now car-
ried an extensive *in vitro* analysis that addresses these issues for the first time in a systematic, carefully controlled manner.

Purification and analysis of 11 chimeric bimodular PKSs and 8 chimeric trimodular PKSs harboring modules from the erythromycin, the rifamycin, and the rapamycin synthases vividly demonstrated that most chimeric PKSs suffer severe impairment of catalytic activity (Fig. 6), notwithstanding the grafting of demonstrated compatible C- and N-terminal docking sites to their intermodular interfaces (8, 23). The 10–100-fold reduction in the catalytic efficiency and productivity between wild-type and chimeric systems was particularly striking, given that the choice of bimodular and trimodular PKS constructs was based on published reports that demonstrated measurable in *vivo* product forming capacity for several of these chimeras (10, 11). We therefore sought to exploit the power of biochemical reconstitution to dissect the mechanistic basis for the observed loss in catalytic effectiveness.

Analysis of the occupancy of the acceptor modules in chimeric bimodular PKSs showed that in the majority of cases, polyketide chain translocation represented a serious bottleneck (Table 1). Earlier studies have highlighted a role for ACP-KS interactions in the channeling of polyketide chains between modules (13, 18); this conclusion is reinforced by our observation that a Glu → Lys charge reversal mutation in the ACP domain of the donor module DEBS M1 improved turnover in the presence of DEBS M3/H11001 TE. The structural logic of these protein-protein interactions is starting to become apparent (24).

We note that, because interactions between the donor ACP and acceptor KS domains have not been explicitly interrogated in the experiments summarized in Table 1, the possibility of additional unproductive and therefore catalytically silent binding between chimeric PKS modules cannot be ruled out. Indeed, an important feature of these studies is that they focus only on catalytically relevant protein-protein interactions.

To assess the relative importance of substrate-KS recognition in the same chimeric bimodular PKSs, we engineered a variant DEBS M1 donor module harboring the KR2 domain derived from DEBS M2. In place of the natural (2S,3R)-2-methyl-3-hydroxydiketide product of DEBS M1, this hybrid module generates the enantiomeric (2R,3S)-diketide-ACP intermediates. The structural basis for this substrate-KS recognition is likely to be a critical determinant of catalytic effectiveness in chimeric PKSs.

FIGURE 7. LC-MS analysis of triketide products. A, lactones 2 and 4 (C₉H₁₆O₃, calculated molecular weight 172.110) were detected in reaction mixtures containing the reference module (DEBS (3)M2+TE), as well as DEBS (3)M5+TE and (3)M6+TE, and RIFS (3)M5+TE and (3)M7+TE. 8-ketolactone 3 (C₉H₁₄O₃, calculated molecular weight 170.090) was detected in reaction mixtures containing DEBS (3)M3+TE and RIFS (3)M2+TE. Ketolactone 8 (C₈H₁₁O₃, calculated molecular weight 156.080) was detected in reaction mixtures containing RIFS (3)M2+TE with malonyl-CoA. For all systems the extracted ion chromatograms, obtained by extraction of the [M + Na]+ species, are shown, and the peak of interest is marked by an arrow based on its characteristic mass spectrum, shown explicitly in the case of DEBS (3)M2+TE. (Labeled peaks from left to right correspond to [M + H-H₂O]+, [M + H]+, and [M + Na]+ ions.)

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ate. Replacement of KR1 by KR2 was not expected to significantly alter the rate of reduction of the ACP-bound β-ketoacylthioester intermediate (Fig. 2) (14), thereby enabling a comparison with the corresponding bimodular PKSs harboring wild-type DEBS M1 (Fig. 9). The observed 7-fold decrease in the turnover rate of the reference system is in excellent agreement with the differences in $k_{\text{cat}}$ previously reported when DEBS M2/H11001 TE was presented with chemo-enzymatically synthesized (2S,3R)-diketide-ACP versus (2R,3S)-diketide-ACP (22). In sharp contrast, none of the intrinsically slower chimeric bimodular PKSs harboring DEBS M3, DEBS M5, DEBS M6, RIFS M2, RIFS M5, or RAPS M6 as acceptor modules were significantly further affected by the change in configuration of the diketide intermediate. Thus, recognition of the incoming substrate by the KS domain of the acceptor module does not appear to influence intermodular chain translocation to the same extent as protein-protein recognition of the donor ACP domain by the acceptor KS. Future efforts to

TABLE 1
Quantification of the occupancy of acceptor modules in chimeric bimodular PKSs

| Acceptor module | After 1 min | After 3 min |
|-----------------|-------------|-------------|
| DEBS M2 + TE$^a$ | 0.83 ± 0.11 | 1.00 ± 0.08 |
| DEBS M3 + TE$^a$ | <0.02       | <0.02       |
| DEBS M6 + TE$^a$ | 0.21 ± 0.07 | 0.42 ± 0.17 |
| RIFS M2 + TE$^a$ | 0.04 ± 0.01 | 0.08 ± 0.00 |
| RAPS M4 + TE$^a$ | <0.02       | <0.02       |
| RAPS M6 + TE$^a$ | <0.02       | 0.05 ± 0.00 |

FIGURE 8. LC-MS analysis of tetraketide products. A, lactone 10 (C$_{12}$H$_{20}$O$_4$, calculated molecular weight 228.140) was detected in reaction mixtures containing the reference module (DEBS (3)M2(2)), as well as RIFS (3)M5(2). B, pyrone 9 (C$_{12}$H$_{18}$O$_4$, calculated molecular weight 226.120) was detected in reaction mixtures containing RIFS (3)M2(2) and (3)M3(2), as well as RAPS (3)M6(2). For all systems, the extracted ion chromatograms, obtained by extraction of the [M + Na]$^+$ species, are shown, and the peak of interest is marked by an arrow based on its characteristic mass spectrum, shown explicitly in the case of DEBS (3)M2(2). (Labeled peaks from left to right correspond to [M + H-H$_2$O]$^+$, [M + H]$^+$, and [M + Na]$^+$ ions.)
design catalytically efficient chimeric assembly lines must therefore focus on optimizing protein-protein interactions at the junctions between heterologous PKS modules.

**Experimental Procedures**

**Reagents**—Phusion Hot Start II polymerase was from Thermo Scientific. T4 DNA Ligase was from Invitrogen. Restriction enzymes were from New England Biolabs. All primers were synthesized by Elim Biopharm. For DNA purification, the GeneJET plasmid miniprep kit and the GeneJET gel extraction kit from Thermo Scientific were used. XL10-Gold competent cells were from Agilent; MAX Efficiency DH5α competent cells and One Shot BL21 (DE3) cells were from Invitrogen. All chemicals for buffer preparations were from Sigma-Aldrich. Isopropyl-β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside, kanamycin sulfate, and carbencillin were from Gold Biotechnology. LB-Miller broth for cell cultures was from Fisher Scientific. Nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid affinity resin was from MC Lab. For anion exchange chromatography, the HiTrapQ column was from GE Healthcare. For all SDS-PAGE analyses, SDS-PAGE Mini Protein TGX precast gels were from Bio-Rad (4–20% and 7.5%). For protein concentration, Amicon Ultra centrifugal filters were from Millipore. CoA, reduced NADPH, sodium propionate, propionic acid, methylmalonic acid, malonic acid, and magnesium chloride hexahydrate were from Sigma-Aldrich. ATP was from Teknova. Reducing agent tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP) was from Thermo Scientific. UVette cuvettes (2 × 10-mm path) were from Eppendorf. Sodium [1-14C]-propionate was from Moravek Biochemicals.

**Strains**—Glycerol stocks were prepared by mixing LB medium containing 30% glycerol with the appropriate overnight culture in a 1:2 v/v ratio and were stored at −80 °C. Seed cultures were inoculated with cells from the cell stock and grown overnight.

**Plasmids**—Plasmids harboring genes encoding individual PKS modules from different organisms were amplified from primary cosmid DNA of the corresponding PKS gene clusters (DEBS, RIFS, RAPS). Supplemental Table S1 specifies the primer sequences used for this purpose. All plasmids were constructed using the two-fragment Gibson assembly method or infusion cloning (Clontech), and their sequences were verified by DNA sequencing. Supplemental Tables S2 and S3 summarize the plasmid construction details for bimodular and trimodular PKS systems, respectively. Templates and primers used for the construction of DEBS M1-KR2 are shown in supplemental Table S5.

**Site-directed Mutagenesis**—To alter individual amino acid residues in expressed modules, either QuikChange site-directed mutagenesis (Agilent) or a site-directed mutagenesis strategy coupled to restriction-ligation was used. Mutagenesis primers are defined in supplemental Table S4. All mutations were verified by DNA sequencing.

**Bacterial Cell Culture and Protein Purification**—All proteins were expressed and purified using similar protocols. For holo-proteins (where the ACP domain is post-translationally modi-
fied with a phosphopantetheine arm), E. coli BAP1 cells (25) were used as the host. All proteins contained a C-terminal His$_6$ tag for purification. Cultures were grown on a 1-liter scale at 37 °C to an $A_{600}$ of 0.6. Protein production was induced with 0.25 mM isopropyl-β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside, whereupon the temperature was adjusted to 18 °C, and the cells were grown for another 16 h. The cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4420×g for 20 min and lysed by sonication in a buffer consisting of 50 mM sodium phosphate, 10 mM imidazole, 450 mM NaCl, and 10% glycerol, pH 7.6. The cell debris was removed by centrifugation at 25,000×g for 1 h. The supernatant was added to nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid-agarose resin (2 ml of resin/liter of culture), and the resulting slurry was incubated at 4 °C for 1 h. Thereafter, the mixture was applied to a Kimble-Kontes Flex column and washed with the above lysis buffer (25 column volumes). Additional washing was performed with 12.5 column volumes of wash buffer (50 mM phosphate, 25 mM imidazole, 300 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, pH 7.6). Proteins were eluted in two steps (each with 6 column volumes). The first elution step utilized 75 mM phosphate, 150 mM imidazole, 40 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, pH 7.6, whereas the second elution step was performed with 75 mM phosphate, 500 mM imidazole, 40 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, pH 7.6.

Further purification was performed by anion exchange chromatography on an ÄKTA FPLC system using a HiTrapQ column. Buffer A contained 50 mM phosphate, 10% glycerol, pH 7.6, whereas buffer B contained 50 mM phosphate, 500 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, pH 7.6. Protein concentrations were measured with the BCA protein assay kit (Thermo Scientific). Samples were stored as aliquots at −80 °C until further use.

**PKS Enzymatic Assays**—The stoichiometric relationship between polyketide production and NADPH consumption in a reconstituted enzyme system has been previously verified, thereby enabling the use of a UV assay procedure to monitor PKS turnover (21). Reactions were performed on a 70-μl scale and contained 400 mM sodium phosphate (pH 7.2), 5 mM TCEP, 10 mM MgCl$_2$, 1 mM CoA, and 8 mM ATP. Methylmalonate/malonate (1 mM) was converted to racemic methylmalonyl-CoA using the enzymes MatB (2 μM) and methylmalonyl-CoA epimerase (4 μM) (26). Propionyl-CoA was synthesized from propionate using PrpE (1 μM) (27). The concentration of these enzymes and cofactors was selected to assure that the acyl-CoA supply was not limiting the rate of product formation. Reactions were initiated by the addition of PKS proteins (4 μM each) along with a mixture of propionate (0.5 mM), methylmalonate/
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malonate (1 mM), and NADPH (0.5 mM). The rate was monitored at 340 nm over 20 min. For product analysis by LC-MS, reactions were quenched with ethyl acetate, extracted twice with 450 μL, dried in vacuo, and stored at −20 °C.

**Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry Analysis of Polyketides**—Dried samples were reconstituted in 100 μL of methanol, separated on a Gemini-NX C18 column (Phenomenex, 5 μm, 2 × 100 mm) connected to an Agilent 1260 HPLC over a 28-min linear gradient of acetonitrile from 3% to 95% in water, and subsequently injected into a 6520 Accurate-Mass QTOF mass spectrometer. Reduced and unreduced triketides and tetraketide products were located by searching for the theoretical m/z for the [M + Na]⁺ and [M + H]⁺ ion. Unreduced triketides: [M + Na]⁺ = 193.080 and [M + H]⁺ = 171.098, reduced triketides [M + Na]⁺ = 195.100 and [M + H]⁺ = 173.118, acyclic triketides: [M + Na]⁺ = 177.090 and [M + H]⁺ = 155.108, unreduced tetraketides using malonyl-CoA: [M + Na]⁺ = 179.070 and [M + H]⁺ = 157.088. Unreduced tetraketides: [M + Na]⁺ = 249.110 and [M + H]⁺ = 227.128, reduced tetraketides: [M + Na]⁺ = 251.130 and [M + H]⁺ = 229.148, acyclic tetraketides: [M + Na]⁺ = 252.130 and [M + H]⁺ = 230.148, unreduced tetraketides using malonyl-CoA: [M + Na]⁺ = 235.090 and [M + H]⁺ = 213.108.

**¹⁴C Radios isotopic SDS-PAGE Labeling Assay**—[¹-¹⁴C]Propionate was used to interrogate intermodular chain translocation from LDD (4) to DEBS (5)M1(2) and subsequently to an acceptor module in the presence of 400 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.2, 5 mM TCEP, and 0.75 mM NADPH. By minimizing the amount of TE. Substrates were generated by mixing 0.4 mM PrpE, 2 mM MatB, and 4 mM SCME in a 30-min reaction containing 400 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.2, 5 mM TCEP, and 0.75 mM SCME in a 30-min reaction containing 400 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.2, 5 mM TCEP, and 0.75 mM SCME in a 30-min reaction containing 400 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.2, 5 mM TCEP, and 0.75 mM SCME in a 30-min reaction containing 400 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.2, 5 mM TCEP, and 0.75 mM SCME in a 30-min reaction containing 400 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.2, 5 mM TCEP, and 0.75 mM SCME in a 30-min reaction containing 400 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.2, 5 mM TCEP, and 0.75 mM NADPH. By minimizing the amount of labeled propionyl-CoA in the reaction mixture, nonspecific contributions of all authors. M. K., M. P. O., J. A., T. R., and B. L. designed the study. M. K. purified the proteins, constructed TE-knockout mutants, and carried out the NADPH consumption, LC-MS analysis, and ¹⁴C radiolabeling experiments. J. A. constructed the plasmid library. M. P. O. constructed the DEBS M1-KR2 mutant, purified it, and performed experiments for Fig. 9. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

**Author Contributions**—The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. M. K., M. P. O., J. A., T. R., and B. L. designed the study. M. K. purified the proteins, constructed TE-knockout mutants, and carried out the NADPH consumption, LC-MS analysis, and ¹⁴C radiolabeling experiments. J. A. constructed the plasmid library. M. P. O. constructed the DEBS M1-KR2 mutant, purified it, and performed experiments for Fig. 9. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

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