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Evidence for an ergot alkaloid gene cluster in Claviceps purpurea

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Abstract A gene (cpd1) coding for the dimethylallyltryptophan synthase (DMATS) that catalyzes the first specific step in the biosynthesis of ergot alkaloids, was cloned from a strain of Claviceps purpurea that produces alkaloids in axenic culture. The derived gene product (CPD1) shows only 70% similarity to the corresponding gene previously isolated from Claviceps strain ATCC 26245, which is likely to be an isolate of C. fusiformis. Therefore, the related cpd1 most probably represents the first C . *purpurea* gene coding for an enzymatic step of the alkaloid biosynthetic pathway to be cloned. Analysis of the 3'-flanking region of $cpd1$ revealed a second, closely linked ergot alkaloid biosynthetic gene named cpps1, which codes for a 356-kDa polypeptide showing signi ficant similiarity to fungal modular peptide synthetases. The protein contains three amino acid-activating modules, and in the second module a sequence is found which matches that of an internal peptide (17 amino acids in length) obtained from a tryptic digest of lysergyl peptide synthetase 1 (LPS1) of C. purpurea, thus con firming that *cpps1* encodes LPS1. LPS1 activates the three amino acids of the peptide portion of ergot peptide alkaloids during D-lysergyl peptide assembly. Chromosome walking revealed the presence of additional genes upstream of cpd1 which are probably also involved in ergot alkaloid biosynthesis: cpox1 probably codes for an FAD-dependent oxidoreductase (which could represent the chanoclavine cyclase), and a second putative oxido-

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reductase gene, *cpox2*, is closely linked to it in inverse orientation. RT-PCR experiments confirm that all four genes are expressed under conditions of peptide alkaloid biosynthesis. These results strongly suggest that at least some genes of ergot alkaloid biosynthesis in C. purpurea are clustered, opening the way for a detailed molecular genetic analysis of the pathway.

Key words Peptide alkaloids \cdot p-lysergyl-peptide synthetase \cdot Dimethylallyltryptophan synthase \cdot FAD oxidoreductase

Introduction

Claviceps purpurea is a common pathogen of grasses, which attacks young ovaries and forms the typical ergot sclerotia (Tudzynski et al. 1995). These dormant structures contain ergot alkaloids, pharmaceutically important mycotoxins which have a wide range of therapeutical applications and are produced world-wide on a large scale. Under natural conditions, alkaloid biosynthesis is restricted to sclerotial tissue formed during parasitic culture; however, several deregulated strains have been described which produce significant amounts of alkaloids under axenic culture conditions (Lohmeyer and Tudzynski 1997).

Although the physiology and biochemistry of ergot alkaloid biosynthesis have been studied in detail, knowledge of the enzymes involved is limited (Socic and Gaberc-Porekar 1992). As shown in Fig. 1, biosynthesis begins with dimethylallyltryptophan which is converted, via several intermediates, into lysergic acid (Fig. 1A). Successive condensation of the D-lysergic acid moiety with three amino acids and modification and cyclization of the resultant D-lysergyl tripeptide yields the peptide alkaloids (ergopeptines) (Fig. 1B). So far only a few enzymes of the pathway have been characterized in detail, among them the dimethylallyltryptophan synthase (DMATS) (Gebler and Poulter 1992), which, as the catalyst of the first pathway-specific step, is probably a

Fig. 1A, B The ergot alkaloid biosynthetic pathway. A Biosynthesis of lysergic acid. **B** Biosynthesis of ergopeptines, as exemplified by ergotamin (modified from Lohmeyer and Tudzynski 1997 and Walzel et al. 1997). LPS, D-Lysergyl peptide synthetase; DMATS, dimethylallyltryptophan synthase; SE, thioesterified LPS2

strictly regulated enzyme; chanoclavine cyclase has been preliminarily characterized as an FAD-containing oxidoreductase (Socic and Gaberc-Porekar 1992). Furthermore the D-lysergyl peptide synthetases (LPS1 and 2) catalyze the attachment of D-lysergic acid to three amino acids of the peptide portion of ergot peptide alkaloids by a non-ribosomal mechanism (Riederer et al. 1996; Walzel et al. 1997).

Alkaloid biosynthesis in axenic culture is strictly regulated in most strains: tryptophan acts as precursor and inducer, while phosphate, glucose and ammonium repress synthesis (Socic and Gaberc-Porekar 1992). As a potential target for these regulatory circuits, the DMATS is of special interest. Recently a gene for DMATS (dmaW) was cloned from strain ATCC 26245 via reverse genetics (Tsai et al. 1995); we identified the same gene (using the same strain) by a differential cDNA screening approach and could show that it is induced in alkaloid-producing cultures, i.e. it is transcriptionally regulated (Arntz and Tudzynski 1997). The strain used in these first molecular studies, ATCC 26245, has turned out to be a C. fusiformis isolate rather than a C. purpurea strain (Pazoutova and Tudzynski 1998); it produces no peptide alkaloids, only clavines. Therefore we decided to clone and characterize the corresponding gene from a "genuine" C. purpurea isolate, P1, a (mutant) strain that produces peptide alkaloids in axenic culture. Since there are now several examples for the clustering of genes involved in secondary metabolite pathways in fungi (Keller and Hohn 1997), we initiated a chromosome walking approach starting from the DMATS gene. The results presented here provide strong evidence for clustering of ergot alkaloid genes in C. purpurea.

Materials and methods

Strains and culture conditions

C. purpurea strain P1 $[= 1029N5, a$ derivative of strain 1029 (Keller 1983), which produces peptide alkaloids in axenic culture], was grown in the dark at 24° C on a rotary shaker (200 rpm), either for 5 days in BII medium (Esser and Tudzynski 1978) for DNA preparation, or for the induction of alkaloid biosynthesis (and RNA isolation) by a three-step culture method according to M. Lohmeyer (personal communication): mycelia were cultivated for 4 days in pre-culture medium (PCM, 100 g/l glucose, 0.5 g/l KH₂PO₄, 10 g/l citric acid, 1.0 g/l Ca(NO₃)₂, 0.5 g/l MgSO₄ \times 7H₂O, 0.12 g/l KCl, 0.006 g/l ZnSO₄ \times 7H₂O, 0.007 g/l FeSO₄ \times $7H₂O$, 0.75 g/l nicotinic acid amide, pH 5.2), then transferred for 3 days to fresh medium, and then to the main culture medium (as PCM, but cotaining 300 g/l sucrose instead of glucose, 15 g/l citric acid, and KH_2PO_4 as indicated). Every 24 h the total alkaloid content of the culture medium was determined according to Lohmeyer et al. (1990).

Techniques of protein analysis

LPS1 was purified from C. purpurea strain D1 as described by Riederer et al. (1996) with slight modifications: protein precipitate (35 -55% ammonium sulfate, w/v) was size fractionated on an Ultragel AcA34 column and further FPLC purified on an anion exchange matrix (Resource Q, Pharmacia). LPS1 was eluted with buffer B containing 160 mM NaCl and finally purified by preparative 5% SDS-PAGE. Coomassie stained LPS1 was in-gel digested with trypsin as described (Stone and Williams 1993). Tryptic peptides were separated by HPLC on a μ RPC-C2/C18-PC 3.2/3 column (Pharmacia) with an acetonitrile/H2O gradient. Peptides were further purified on a Sephasil-C18-SC-2.1/10 column (Pharmacia). Sequence analysis of peptides was performed by automated Edman-degradation on an Applied Biosysthem (Procise) sequencer.

Molecular techniques

Agarose gel electrophoresis, preparation of E. coli DNA and bacteriophage lambda DNA, and standard cloning procedures were performed according to Sambrook et al. (1989). Preparation of fungal DNA and RNA was done as described by Cenis (1992) and Chambers and Russo (1986); Southern and Northern analysis was performed according to Ausubel et al. (1987) and Church and Gilbert (1984), respectively.

DNA sequencing was performed on a Licor 4000 (MWG, Ebersberg) automated sequencer, using the cycle sequencing protocol of the manufacturer, with either pUC19 or pBluescript based primers or $-$ for longer clones $-$ with insert-based primers. For evaluation of the nucleotide and derived amino-acid sequence HUSAR (EMBL, Heidelberg) was used.

A genomic library of strain P1 in EMBL3 was established according to Sambrook et al. (1989): Sau3A digested genomic DNA of strain P1 was size-fractionated using two successive sucrose gradients; fragments of 14-15 kb were ligated to BamHI-digested EMBL3 arms (Stratagene), and packaged in vitro (Packagene extract, Promega). Library screening was performed by plaque filter hybridization according to Sambrook et al. (1989). Positive plaques were replated and purified as single plaques. DNA was extracted and characterized by restriction analysis and Southern hybridization.

RT-PCR was performed as described by Tenberge et al. (1996), using the primer pairs indicated in the text. Primer sequences were the following: for *cpd1*: P1 (5'-TACATTGGCAATTATGAC-3'), P2 (5'-CCTGTAGGCGTCGAAAG-3'); for cpps1: P3 (5'-CA-ACACCCTGATCACGGTC-3') and P4 (5'-GTTTGCCGAGT ACCTTGCTG-3'); for *cpox1*: P5 (5'-GGAAACCGAGGCAC-GAACC-3') and P6 (5'-GCGTGTCTTGGTAGTGATACC-3'); and for cpox2: P7 (5'-GCATTGCTGCC GACGTCTTC-3') and P8 (5'-GCACGATGACTGCTTCAATC-3').

Accession numbers

The sequences reported in this paper have been assigned the following Genbank accession numbers: cpd1, AJ 011963; cpps1 AJ 011964; cpox1, AJ 011965; cpox2, AJ 011966.

Results

Cloning and characterization of a DMATS gene from C. purpurea

To study DMATS expression during alkaloid biosynthesis by C. purpurea in axenic culture, we decided to clone a DMATS gene from a production strain. We chose the strain P1, a derivative of C. purpurea 1029, which shows improved productivity for peptide alkaloids (mainly ergotamin) in axenic culture. We established a genomic library from strain P1 in lambda EMBL3 (see Materials and methods) and probed it with the cDNA clone of $dmaw$. From among the 40,000 plaques screened, we obtained 11 positive phages after two rounds of screening. Positive phages were characterized by restriction analysis, subcloning and sequencing. Two different copies of putative DMATS genes were obtained: four of the positive lambda clones contained a version of the gene which was inactivated by a frameshift caused by an insertion of 7 bp (Arntz 1998; C. Arntz, T. Correia and P. Tudzynski, unpublished); the other seven clones, which derive from a different genomic region, carried an active version (as judged from primary sequence data) of the putative DMATS gene, which was named *cpd1*. The gene contains an ORF of 1344 bp, which codes for a polypeptide of 448 amino acids. The coding region is interrupted by two introns of

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MMT.KAPATAVYDTLSLLFDFPNQEQRLWWHSIAPMFAAMLDTAGHNVHDQYR 52
dmawMSTAKDPGNGVYEILSLIFDFPSNEQRLWWHSTAPMFAAMLDNAGYNIHDQYR 53
cpd153 HLGIFKKHIIPFLGVYPAQGKHTWPSVLTRYGIPFELSLNCLDSVVRYTF 102
       111111111111111111...; L. T. T.: | I.: | I.: | : | : | IIIIII | IIIIIIII | I
    54 HLGIFKKHIIPFLGVYPTKDKERWLSILTRCGLPLELSLNCTDSVVRYTY 103
   103 EPTTEHTGTGDDSYNAFAILECIOKLVRIOPGIDMEWFSYFRNELVLNAT
                                             152104EPINEVTGTEKDTFNTLAIMTSVQKLAQIQAGIDLEWFSYFKDELTLDES 153
   153 ESARLGRNDSVNQQPIRTQNKLALDLKGDRFALKVYLYPHLKSIATGVSS 202
       154 ESATLOSNELVKEO.IKTONKLALDLKESOFALKVYFYPHLKSIATGKST 202
      HDLIFNSVRKLSQKHTSIQPSFNVLCDYVASRNDPDSNAAEAEAGVPASA 252
   203
      : 11.1203
                                   .HSAEVD...QHGA 245
   253 LRARLLSCDLVDPSKSRIKIYLLEQTVSLTAMEDLWTLGGRRTDSSTLNG 302
      246LDMMRELWHLLQIPSGFMKYPESDLKLGEVPDEQLPSMVHYALHPDQPMP 352
   303
       296 LDMLRELWSLLKVPTGHLEYPKGYLELGEIPNEQLPSMANYTLHHNDPMP 345
                                       \downarrow353 EPQVYFTVFGMSDAGITNALATFFSRHGWYEMAKKYRVFLEGSFPNHDFE 402
       346 EPQVYFTVFGMNDAEISNALTIFFQRHGFDDMAKNYRVFLQDSYPYHDFE 395
                                 J.
    403 SLNYLHTYVSFSYRKNKPYLSVYLHSFETGQWPAFSDDPTAFNAFKRCDL 452
       396 SLNYLHAYISFSYRRNKPYLSVYLHTFETGRWPVFADSPISFDAYRRCEL 445
   453 SLT* 455
   446 STK* 448
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Fig. 2 Alignment of the amino acid sequences derived from cpd1 of C. purpurea P1 and dmaW from C. fusiformis (Tsai et al. 1995). The major variable region and a putative prenyltransferase domain are indicated in bold face

65 and 54 bp. The presence of the introns (and transcription of the gene) was confirmed by the sequencing of an RT-PCR product using primers P1 and P2 and mRNA from an alkaloid-producing culture of C. purpurea P1 as a template (data not shown). The derived gene product (CPD1) shows significant homology $(68\%$ identity) to the $dmaW$ gene from ATCC 26245 (Fig. 2). However, this value is lower than would be expected for two closely related strains, this supporting the classification of ATCC 26245 as another species (C. fusiformis, see above). The two introns in *cpd1* are in the same positions as those in $dmaW$; the derived gene product is smaller (seven amino acids shorter than DMAW), due to

deletions of amino acids at position 167 and in the region of residues $232-252$ (see Fig. 2). In addition, the putative "crippled" prenyl transferase domain identified by Tsai et al. (1995) at residues $113-117$ (DDSYN) differs significantly from that in the CPD1 sequence. The promoter region is completely different from the published portion of $dmaW$ and also from that of the inactive copy in strain P1 (data not shown). It contains putative binding sites for (homologues of) several regulatory proteins of Aspergillus nidulans: for AREA, the major positive regulatory element of nitrogen metabolism (Caddick et al. 1986), for CREA, involved in catabolite repression (Felenbok and Kelly 1996), for PACC (pH control, Tilburn et al. 1995) and $-$ especially interesting $-$ for NUC1, a positively acting regulatory protein which mediates gene activation under starvation for phosphate in Neurospora crassa (Peleg and Metzenberg 1994). In addition, there are putative binding sites for homologues of the A. nidulans developmental regulatory proteins ABAA and STUAP (Andrianapoulos and Timberlake 1994; Dutton et al. 1997).

Chromosome walking in the region downstream of *cpd1* identifies *cpps1*

Since evidence is accumulating that fungal genes involved in secondary metabolism are often arranged in clusters (Keller and Hohn 1997), we sequenced parts of the genomic region (contained in three overlapping lambda clones) around cpd1 (see Fig. 3). Downstream of the gene we found an ORF with no similarity to any published sequence (data not shown), and immediately adjacent to it a large ORF showing significant similarity to bacterial and fungal peptide synthetases, e.g. to the HC-toxin synthetase of Cochliobolus carbonum (Scott-Craig et al. 1992).The complete gene (named cpps1), which encompasses more than 9 kb, encodes a protein of

Fig. 3 Schematic map of the genomic region including *cpd1*. The orientation of the genes is indicated by arrowheads, the three modules of cpps1 are indicated by different shading, positions of introns by open boxes. The arrangement of the three overlapping lambda clones which form the basis for this map are shown by the lines *below* the map

3233 amino acids containing three repeats of the conserved domains described by Marahiel et al. (1997) as characteristic for bacterial and fungal peptide synthetases (Figs. 3, 4). Obviously cpps1 encodes a trimodular peptidesynthetase, comparable to the alkaloid biosynthetic enzyme LPS1 described by Riederer et al. (1996). To prove this, purified LPS1 was digested with trypsin and several of the resulting peptides were purified and subjected to microsequencing. As shown in Fig. 4, the sequence of a 17-residue peptide shows a nearly perfect match to a sequence in the second module of CPPS1. Analysis of additional (shorter) peptides gave similar results (not shown).

Within the terminal part of the second module a frameshift was observed which is flanked by typical fungal intron consensus sequences. This was surprising, since $-$ with only one exception (Bailey at al. 1996) $-$ all fungal peptide synthetase genes characterized until now do not contain introns. We therefore performed RT-PCR to confirm the presence of an intron in this module. Using primer P4 (see Materials and methods) for reverse transcription of mRNA isolated from an alkaloid-producing culture and primers P3 and P4 for PCR, we

Fig. 4 Alignment of the three amino acid-activating modules of CPPS1 with the second module of the HC-toxin-synthetase of Cochliobolus carbonum (Hts; Scott-Craig et al. 1992) and a partial peptide sequence derived from LPS1 (in bold face). Residues conserved within the three modules of CPPS1 are printed in bold face, residues that are identical in all sequences are marked by asterisks. The locations of the conserved domains described by Marahiel et al. (1997) are indicated by overlining (A1-A10, T)

obtained a single PCR product of 753 bp, 99 bp smaller than the corresponding control PCR product from genomic DNA (see Fig. 5a). Sequence analysis showed that the mRNA-derived PCR product lacks exactly the DNA region flanked by the intron consensus sequences (Fig. 5b). Thus the presence of an intron in the second module of *cpps1* is confirmed; no evidence for any additional intron in *cpps1* was found.

Taking the intron into account, the derived gene product of cpps1 has a calculated molecular weight of 356 kDa and a pI of 6.04. A computer-based evaluation of the upstream non-coding sequences of cpps1 revealed several putative binding sites for regulatory proteins, e.g. CREA, AREA, PACC and STUAP (data not shown).

Chromosome walking reveals two putative oxidoreductase genes upstream of cpd1

Sequence analysis of the region upstream of *cpd1* (see Fig. 3) revealed two ORFs which show similarity to data bank entries of unknown function [ORFA: YesF of Saccharomyces cerevisiae (A69580); ORFB: hypothetical protein Rv3701c of Mycobacterium tuberculosis (AL 022121)]. A larger ORF, containing one intron, was detected upstream of ORFB. The derived gene product of 493 amino acids shows significant similarity to several FAD-containing oxidoreductases, e.g. to the 6-hydroxy-D-nicotine oxidase of Arthrobacter oxidans (Brandsch et al. 1993) and to the putative berberine bridge enzyme of Arabidopsis thaliana (an enzyme involved in alkaloid

Fig. 5A, B Evidence for the presence of an intron in cpps1. A RT-PCR experiment using total RNA from an alkaloid-producing culture of strain P1 (R) or genomic DNA from P1 (C) as template, primer P4 for reverse transcription and primers P3 and P4 for PCR. M, Molecular weight marker (1 kb ladder, GIBCO-BRL) B Alignment of part of the genomic *cpps1* sequence (a) with the corresponding part of the RT-PCR product obtained with primers P3 and P4 (b) and the derived amino acid sequence (c). The position of primer P3 is indicated by the arrow, primer P4 binds further downstream (see Materials and methods)

metabolism; Dittrich and Kutchan 1991). The putative oxidase gene was named cpox1. Figure 6 shows a comparison of CPOX1 and these two sequences in the region of the site of covalent binding of FAD. This polypeptide could very well correspond to the chanoclavine cyclase

Fig. 6 Alignment of parts of the amino acid sequences derived from cpox1 (a) with two oxidoreductases containing covalently bound FAD, the berberine bridge enzyme of Arabidopsis thaliana (AC004238; b) and the 6-hydroxy-D-nicotine oxidase of Arthobacter oxidans (Brandsch et al. 1987; c). The histidine residue to which the FAD is covalently linked in the bacterial enzyme is *boxed*; residues common in the CPOX1 sequence and at least one of the two other sequences are printed in bold face; asterisks indicate residues conserved in all three sequences

which catalyses the ring D cyclization, yielding agroclavine; this enzyme is probably an FAD-containing oxidoreductase (Floss 1976; Socic and Gaberc-Porecar 1992). Further upstream, a second putative oxidoreductase gene, termed *cpox2*, was detected (see Fig. 3). Its derived product (261 amino acids) shows similarity to several bacterial enzymes of the short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR) family, e.g. a dehydrogenase from the rapamycin gene cluster of Streptomyces hygroscopicus (Schwecke et al. 1995). The common promoter-region of *cpox1* and *cpox2*, like that of *cpd1*, contains several putative binding sites for regulatory proteins. RT-PCR experiments confirmed that both genes, cpox1 and cpox2, are expressed in ergot alkaloidproducing mycelia, and that they both contain one intron (*cpox1*: 52 bp; *cpox2*: 63 bp) (data not shown).

Discussion

Characterization of cpd1, a putative DMATS gene

We have cloned and characterized a putative DMATS gene, cpd1, from the C. purpurea strain P1, using a $cDNA$ clone of $dmaW$, the DMATS gene from *Claviceps* spec. ATCC 26248 as a probe. The gene is nearly identical to the corresponding gene from the field isolate T5 (Arntz 1998; C. Arntz, T. Correia and P. Tudzynski, unpublished). However, the *cpd1* gene product has only limited homology $(67\%$ identity) to DMAW, confirming that ATCC 26245 is indeed not closely related to C. purpurea P1; it is most probably a C. fusiformis isolate (Pazoutova and Tudzynski 1998). Nevertheless, the degree of amino acid sequence identity is highly significant (as are the conserved positions of introns), strongly supporting the idea that *cpd1* codes for a DMATS. Both the estimated molecular weight (51.7 kDa) and the pI (5.82) correspond well to the enzymatic data published, for example, by Gebler and Poulter (1992). Interestingly, apart from a short deletion in the C. *purpurea* sequence (at positions 245–250 of the $dmaW$ sequence), there is a further modification of the already reduced general prenyltransferase domain DDXXD (see Fig. 2), which is hardly recognizable in Cpd1 (XDXXN). The function of $dmaW$ has been proved by expression in yeast (Tsai et al. 1995). Targeted gene inactivation can be achieved in C. purpurea (e.g. Garre et al. 1998), so disruption of cpd1

will provide an excellent means of confirming its function there, because the second DMATS gene detected in strain P1 will not interfere with the disruption, since sequence analysis and RT-PCR have revealed this copy to be inactive (C. Arntz, T. Correia and P. Tudzynski, unpublished).

The *cpd1* promoter contains several putative binding sites for homologs of the major regulatory proteins CREA (catabolite repression), and AREA/NIT2 (N metabolism), although only a few of them fulfill the criteria for spatial arrangement [e.g. for AREA/NIT2 there have to be short-distance pairwise arrangements (Chiang and Marzluf 1994)]. With respect to the physiology of alkaloid formation the putative binding site for a NUC1 homologue is especially interesting. NUC1 is a positive regulatory element of phosphate metabolism in Neurospora crassa, activating several genes under conditions of starvation for phosphate (Peleg and Metzenberg 1994). A comparable system could be operative in C. purpurea, triggering the induction of the alkaloid pathway under low-phosphate conditions. It had been postulated that the induction of alkaloid biosynthesis by lowering the phosphate level operates at the post-translational level (Krupinski et al. 1976); preliminary Northern experiments (Arntz 1998) and the presence of a putative NUC1 binding site indeed suggest that the DMATS gene is induced under conditions of low phosphate, concomitantly with the production of alkaloids.

The presence of putative binding sites for homologs of the A. nidulans regulatory proteins AbaA and StuaP is interesting, since these proteins are involved in the regulation of development in A. nidulans (sexual and asexual reproduction). Though these computer-derived data have to be interpreted very cautiously, it is tempting to speculate that the presence of these binding sites is connected with the strict developmental specificity of induction of this alkaloid pathway in natural isolates of C. purpurea: production occurs only in ripening sclerotia in planta. The ability of mutants such as P1 to produce alkaloids in axenic culture could be due to an absence of this developmental control, caused either by inactivation/modification of the regulatory gene (this alternative is supported by the fact that productive strains usually have abnormal morphology, no or significantly reduced asexual and sexual propagation and loss of pathogencity) or by modifications of the promoter(s) of genes coding for the key enzyme(s) of the pathway.

Evidence for an ergot alkaloid gene cluster

A chromosome walking approach led to the isolation of three overlapping lambda-clones and revealed, on both sides of $cpd1$, genes, which – with a very high probability ± also code for enzymes of the alkaloid biosynthetic pathway. Cpps1 encodes a trimodular peptide synthetase and comparison of its derived amino acid sequence with internal peptide sequences of lysergyl peptide synthetase 1 (LPS1) from C. purpurea leave no doubt that

CPPS1 is LPS1. LPS1 activates the three amino acids of the peptide portion of the ergopeptines (Riederer et al. 1996). Moreover, in close proximity on the upstream side of *cpd1* there are two further genes with possible (but not yet proven) functions in the alkaloid biosynthesis pathway ($cpox1$ and $cpox2$). These findings add further weight to observations that the organization of genes encoding biosynthetic pathways for secondary metabolites in cluster is the rule rather than the exception in fungi (see review by Keller and Hohn 1997). Well characterized examples are the aflatoxin cluster in As pergillus parasiticus (Trail et al. 1995), the penicillin cluster in Penicillium chrysogenum (Smith et al. 1990), the trichothecene cluster in Fusarium sporotrichoides (Hohn et al. 1993) and the recently characterized gibberellin cluster in Gibberella fujikuroi (Tudzynski and Hölter 1998). In all these cases the available evidence also suggests that these genes are coordinately regulated; this is not yet clear in the case of the putative C . *purpurea* alkaloid biosynthesis gene cluster. Data published by Riederer et al. (1996) on the C. purpurea LPS peptide synthetase indicate that LPS1 is constitutively synthesized, whereas its promoter structure indicates that *cpps1* is transcriptionally regulated. This discrepancy must be studied in more detail in the future, especially with respect to the turnover rate of the enzyme.

cpps1 has several interesting features; one is the presence of an intron in the second module $-$ the first example of an intron in a gene for a multimodular peptide synthetase. In the case of a PCR-amplified partial sequence of a peptide-synthetase gene from the entomopathogen Metarhizium anisopliae an intron-like sequence has also been found (Bailey et al. 1996). However, the function of this gene in a specific peptide synthesis system is still unknown. The previously anticipated lack of introns in these giant fungal genes and their similarity to bacterial genes had even led to the idea of horizontal gene transfer (Marahiel et al. 1997). We found no evidence for any further introns, and we believe that the lack of any additional frame shift or fungal intron consensus sequences, as well as the colinearity of the derived amino acid sequence between the three modules and in comparison to the HTS strongly indicate that cpps1 has only a single intron. Furthermore, the apparent dissection of the LPS system into two distinct peptide synthetases (i.e. LPS1 and LPS2) is a novel finding because all fungal peptide synthetases described so far consist of one single polypeptide chain (Zocher and Keller 1997). It is also interesting to note that the second module of CPPS1 shows some similarity to one of the putative peptide synthetase gene fragments previously cloned by a PCR-based approach (Cp 605; Panaccione 1996).

Upstream of cpd1 there are two further genes (cpox1 and cpox2) with possible functions in the ergot alkaloid pathway. The *cpox1* gene could code for an FAD-dependent oxidoreductase. As outlined above, such an enzyme, the chanoclavin oxidase or cyclase, is involved in the formation of agroclavine, i.e. in the formation of the fourth ring of the ergoline backbone (Floss 1976). The product of *cpox2*, probably a short chain dehydrogenase, could also be involved in one of the less well characterized oxidation steps (see Fig. 1).

The RT-PCR experiments confirm that all four genes are expressed in mycelia which produce ergot alkaloids; this is a prerequisite, but not final proof for their involvement in alkaloid biosynthesis. A detailed Northern analysis will reveal if (and to what extent) they are coregulated during ergot alkaloid biosynthesis.

Taken together, these data strongly suggest that at least some of the genes coding for enzymes of the alkaloid pathway in C. purpurea are clustered. Targeted inactivation of *cpps1*, *cpox1* and *cpox2* by a gene disruption approach (combined with a detailed biochemical characterization of the mutants) will clarify their roles in alkaloid biosynthesis; these analyses will also be extended to the ORFs immediately surrounding cpd1. Since the pathway requires probably more than 10 enzymes, including a one-module "peptide synthetase" (LPS2, lysergic acid-activating enzyme) and at least one P450 monooxygenase (Socic and Gaberc-Porekar 1992; Riederer et al. 1996), the chromosome walking approach has to be extended on both sides of the region characterized here. The data presented here form a good basis for a detailed molecular analysis of the ergot alkaloid pathway (especially of the regulatory circuits involved), which is not only highly interesting for basic research, but also has considerable practical implications, considering the growing therapeutic importance of ergot peptide alkaloids, e.g. with respect to degenerative diseases of the CNS.

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