

The Complete Biosynthetic Gene Cluster of the 28-Membered Polyketide Macrolactones, Halstoctacosanolides, from *Streptomyces halstedii* HC34

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Abstract Halstoctacoanolides A and B are 28membered polyketide macrolactones and were isolated from *Streptomyces halstedii* HC34. The biosynthetic gene cluster (*hls* cluster) of halstoctacosanolides was completely identified from the genome library of *Streptomyces halstedii* HC34. DNA sequence analysis of *ca*. 100 kb region revealed that there were seven type I polyketide synthases (PKSs) and two cytochrome P450 monooxygenases in this cluster. Involvement of the gene cluster in the halstoctacosanolide biosynthesis was demonstrated by the gene disruption of P450 monooxygenase genes. The mutants produced a new deoxygenated halstoctacosanolide derivative, halstoctacosanolide C, which confirmed that the *hls* gene cluster was essential for the biosynthesis of halstoctacosanolides.

Keywords halstoctacosanolides, biosynthetic gene cluster, polyketide synthase, P450 monooxygenase, gene disruption

Introduction

Polyketide macrolides are one of the largest bioactive natural product families. They have various complex structures and a huge variety of bioactivities have been reported for them. Three examples are the antibiotic erythromycin, immunosuppressant rapamycin and the antitumor agent epothilone, and there are many other polyketide macrolides that are clinically important [1]. Polyketide chains are generally biosynthesized in a similar manner by the multi-modular enzymes, type I polyketide synthases (PKSs) [1]. Each module is responsible for one elongation of an extender unit and modification of the β carbon by coordinated domains. In generally, the polyketide structures well reflect the domain structure of its own biosynthetic PKSs. Because these domain structures are easily assigned from the gene information, it is now possible to predict the polyketide structure biosynthesized by PKSs when once the DNA sequences of the genes encoding PKSs are determined. Based on this context, the predictions of the polyketide productivity and the searches of new polyketide compounds from organisms having the PKS genes, especially from the major secondary metabolite producer actinomycetes, have been accomplished $[2 \sim 6]$. Molecular genetic studies of the actinomycetes, thus, present promising opportunities for the discovery of a new polyketide compound potentially useful for drug development.



Fig. 1 Structures of halstoctacosanolides.

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Halstocacosanides A and B are polyketides which have a 28-membered macrolactone structure and were discovered in the genome of Streptomyces halstedii HC34 using the strategy outlined in the previous paragraph. Subsequent isolation and evaluation of these compounds demonstrated that they possess moderate antimicrobial activity against several microorganisms [3]. However, the complete gene cluster had not been cloned. To confirm the complete biosynthetic gene cluster and in an effort to generate halstoctacosanolide analogues through genetic engineering, ca. 100 kb segment of DNA containing the putative halstoctacosanolide (hls) biosynthetic gene cluster from Streptomyces halstedii HC34 was cloned and sequenced. In this paper, we report the cloning and characterization of the complete gene cluster for halstoctacoanolide biosynthesis. Also described are isolation and structure determination of a new halstoctacosanolide derivative produced by gene disruption of cytochrome P450 monooxygenases in the hls cluster.

Results and Discussion

Cloning and Sequencing of Complete Halstoctacosanolide Biosynthetic Gene Cluster

Previously, three cosmids (7-4F, 3-8A and 10-10H) including total ca. 45 kb DNA sequence had been cloned for the halstoctacosanolide biosynthetic gene and the DNA sequence contain three open reading flames (ORFs) encoding PKS [3]. To identify the complete gene cluster, genomic walking using a S. halstedii HC34 genome library was curried out by standard hybridization method. Based on the known DNA sequences, DIG labeled probes were prepared for the hybridization. Using the sequence of most downstream region as a probe, the next overlapped cosmid was cloned. By repeating this procedure for several times, three cosmids (18-9Q, 22-5B and 22-7D) were newly identified, and ca. 60 kb of contiguous DNA was sequenced. There are nine ORFs in the whole hls cluster, which encode seven PKS genes and two cytochrome P450 monooxygenases as shown in Figure 2. The DNA sequence has been deposited in the DNA Data Base of Japan (DDBJ) under the accession number AB241068.

 Table 1
 Summary of the hls genes and comparison with database

Gene	Size (aa)	Proposed function	Closest homologue (gene and origin)		Identity/similarity	Accession No.
hlsA	4,194	PKS (module L, 1 and 2)	oleAl	Streptomyces antibioticus	48/60%	AAF82408
hlsB	7,111	PKS (module 3~6)	ORF13	Streptomyces aizunensis	52/65%	AAX98188
hlsC	5,220	PKS (module 7~9)	ORF13	Streptomyces aizunensis	52/64%	AAX98188
hlsD	5,322	PKS (module 10~12)	ORF9	Streptomyces aizunensis	56/68%	AAX98184
hlsE	3,809	PKS (module 13, 14)	fscE	Streptomyces sp. FR-008	50/61%	AAQ82567
hlsF	5,232	PKS (module 15~17)	ORF14	Streptomyces aizunensis	53/65%	AAX98189
hlsG	2,099	PKS (module 18)	conD	Streptomyces neyagawaensis	53/64%	AAZ94389
hlsH	404	Cytochrome P450 monooxygenase	cyp881	Streptomyces peucetius	42/58%	CAE53712
hlsl	414	Cytochrome P450 monooxygenase	nocL	Nocardia sp.	44/58%	AAT09797



Fig. 2 Organization of the hls cluster in S. halstedii HC34.

Each arrow represents ORF, open arrow; PKS, closed arrow; cytochrome P450 monooxygenase. The cosmid clones are denoted as overlapping lines and the cosmids cloned in the present study are shown in dashed line. E, *Eco*RI restriction site.



Fig. 3 Modular structure of the halstoctacosanolide PKSs and intermediates in polyketide chain biosynthesis.

Each circle represents an enzymatic domain in the PKS multifunctional proteins. MT, malonyl transferase; MMT, methylmalonyl transferase; ACP, acyl carrier protein; KS, ketoacyl-ACP synthase; KSQ, inactive KS; KR, ketoacyl-ACP reductase; DH, hydroxylthioester dehydratase; ER, enoyl reductase. Inactive KR domains are shown in dark gray at module 11 and 14.

PKS Genes

There are seven PKS genes, *hlsA* to *hlsG*, containing eighty-eight catalytic domains organized into one loading and eighteen extender modules in a ca. 100 kb region of the hls gene cluster. The number of modules is same as the number of the extender units, which is required for the construction of halstoctacoanolides. These genes are arranged straight forwardly head to tail, and there is no gene encoding non-PKS as seen in the rifamycin biosynthetic gene cluster [7]. When the chain elongation reactions sequentially proceed from upstream to downstream, the PKS gene structures well reflect the structure of polyketide chain of halstoctacosanolides except for a ketonic moiety at C-17 and an acetal function at C-11 as shown in Figure 2. These functional groups are presumably unreduced by the KR modules and remain in the carbonyl functions during the elongation steps by PKSs. However, since all modules contain KR domain, certain contradiction appeared between the gene structure and the chemical structure. Some inactive KR domains have been reported to lack the active site motif, GXGXXGXXXA for NADP-binding or the catalytic triad, Lys, Ser and Tyr in the active site [8]. However, in the case of hls KR, all the important amino acid residues appeared to be conserved in all KR. Although the exact reason is not clear at the moment, a similar case was reported in avermectin PKSs, module 10 [9].

Halstoctacoanolides A and B have one trisubstituted Z olefin at C-8 position. Usually, most of the double bond geometry found in polyketide chains is *E*-configuration. It has been suggested that the stereochemistry of β -hydroxyl

group derived from KR domain might control the double bond geometry in DH domain [8]. An Asp residue of KR domain was proposed to be an important residue for determining the stereospecificity. However, in our case, the Asp residue is found in all KR domains by multiple alignments. It is known that there are a few exceptions to this hypothesis [10], and in the *hls* gene cluster this is also not the case.

Two Genes Encoding Cytochrome P450

Halstoctacosanolide A has two additional oxygen functional groups (C-4 and C-32) rather than those derived from the usual PKSs chain elongation pathway, which are considered to be introduced after the polyketide chain elongation. Accordingly, it had been expected that there are several genes encoding the oxidation enzymes. In fact, two genes, hlsH and hlsI, were identified to encode cytochrome P450 monooxygenases in the downstream region of the PKS genes. In the rapamycin biosynthesis, the methylene group at C-9 of rapamycin polyketide chain was reported to be oxidized to the carbonyl group by a single cytochrome P450 enzyme, RapJ [11]. Therefore, it seemed likely that a single enzyme, either HlsH or HlsI, catalyzes the oxidation of methylene group at C-4 to carbonyl group, and another may be responsible for the hydroxylation at C-32. However, since the amino acid sequences of HlsH and HlsI are quite similar (identity 42%) and belong to the same CYP family CYP107 found in secondary metabolism [12, 13], it was not easily predictable which enzyme is responsible to either of oxidations. Therefore, to determine the function of each gene, the gene disruption experiments were performed.



Fig. 4 Targeted disruption of the *hlsH* and *hlsI* genes.

A: Genome appearances of wild type, *hlsH* and *hlsI* mutants and the expected *Bam*HI fragment of each genome DNA. B: Analysis of chromosomal DNA by Southern hybridization with *ca.* 500 bp *Sal*I fragment probe. Genome DNA fragments digested by *Bam*HI from lane 1; wild type, lane 2; *hlsH* mutant, and lane 3; *hlsI* mutant.

Furthermore, the gene disruption experiments for these cytochrome P450 monooxygenases, *hlsH* and *hlsI*, could be expected to generate a new halstoctacosanolide analogue.

Disruptions of the Genes Encoding Cytochrome P450

The gene disruption experiments were carried out by gene insertional inactivation according to the previously reported method for the disruption of the vin genes in the same strain [14]. The apramycin resistant gene cassette was thus inserted into the AatII site that existed in hlsH and BamHI sites found in hlsI. Each fragment was subcloned into E. coli - Streptomyces shuttle vector pWHM3. The resulting plasmids were separately transformed into protoplasts of S. halstedii HC34 and the clones showing proper phenotype were selected. The gene disruptions of the resulting mutants, which showed apramycin resistance, were confirmed using Southern hybridization against BamHI fragments of S. halstedii genomic DNA, and the expected sizes of BamHI fragments (wild type; ca. 3.3 kb, hlsH mutant; ca. 4.6 kb, hlsI mutant; ca. 7.4 kb) appeared as shown in Figure 4.

The fermentation broths of the wild type and two mutants were separately extracted with ethyl acetate, and the TLC analysis of the resulting extracts was performed as shown in Figure 5. The *hlsH* mutant was found to lose the productivity of halstoctacosanolide A and to produce only halstoctacosanolide B. In the *hlsI* mutant, neither halstoctacosanolide A or B was produced at all. It should be noted that both mutants appeared to produce a new less polar compound. Thus, the isolation study of this compound was pursued.



Fig. 5 TLC analysis of halstoctacosanolides and the fermentation broths of wild type, *hlsH* and *hlsI* mutants.

Lane 1~3: sample of halstoctacosanolides A, B, and C, respectively; lane 4~6: EtOAc extracts from the fermentation broths of wild type, *hlsH* and *hlsI* mutants, respectively. TLC was developed three times with ethyl acetate. Arrow indicates the position of halstoctacosanolide C.

Isolation and Structure Determination of a New Halstoctacosanolide Analogue

In the TLC analysis, the *hlsI* mutant seemed to produce a relatively large amount of the new compound. Thus, isolation study was carried out from the fermentation broth of the *hlsI* mutant according to the previous method for halstoctacosanolides [3]. Forty-two mg of the new compound, named halstoctacosanolide C, was successfully isolated from 1.5 liters culture. The physico-chemical properties of halstoctacosanolide C are summarized in Table 2. The molecular formula was established as $C_{48}H_{78}O_{10}$ on the basis of HRFAB-MS, which corresponds to a deoxygenated derivative of halstoctacosanolide B. In UV spectrum, the maximum absorption wavelength and the molar absorption coefficient were also quite similar to those of halstoctacosanolide B. However, the structure determination of halstoctacosanolide C was not straightforward because halstoctacosanolide C was obtained as an inseparable mixture of two components. The same phenomenon was observed in the case of halstoctacosanolide B, which suggested that halstoctacosanolide C also exists in an equilibrium of the hemiacetal and seco-ketone forms. Therefore, methyl

Table 2Physico-chemical properties of halstoctacosanolideC

Halstoctacosanolide C					
Appearance		White powder			
MP		63~65°C			
$[\alpha]_{\rm D}^{27}$		-6.5 (<i>c</i> 1.36, CHCl ₃)			
Molecular formula		C ₄₈ H ₇₈ O ₁₀			
HRFAB-MS	Calcd:	837.5493 [M+Na] ⁺			
	Found:	837.5521			
UV λ_{\max} ($arepsilon$) (in MeOH)		226 (48,000)			
IR v (neat) cm ⁻¹		3410 (br), 2960, 2930, 1700			

 Table 3
 NMR data of halstoctacosanolide C methyl acetal, halstoctacosanolide A, and halstoctacosanolide B methyl acetal in CDCl₃



 $X = H_2$, R = 0 H, R_1 =Me; Halstoctacosanolide C methyl actal $X = H_2$, R = H, R_1 =Me; Halstoctacosanolide C methyl actal

Position -	Halstocta	acosanolide C methyl acetal	Halstoctacosanolide A	Halstoctacosanolide B methyl acetal	
FOSILION	$\delta_{ ext{C}}$	$\delta_{ m H}$ (multiplicity, J in Hz)	$\delta_{ ext{C}}$	$\delta_{ ext{C}}$	
1	167.98 (s)		165.79 (s)	167.74 (s)	
2	129.54 (s)		145.50 (s)	129.38 (s)	
3	137.12 (d)	6.70 (ddd, 1.2, 6.4,7.9)	126.70 (d)	136.93 (d)	
4	35.44 (t)	2.54/2.56 (m)	198.87 (s)	34.80 (t)	
5	75.28 (d)	4.29 (t, 6.1)	82.38 (d)	74.81 (d)	
6	138.75 (s)		133.71 (s)	138.49 (s)	
7	125.29 (d)	5.94 (brs)	129.40 (d)	125.23 (d)	
8	133.06 (s)		134.92 (s)	133.25 (s)	
9	123.28 (d)	5.32 (dd, 6.2, 7.3)	122.56 (d)	122.66 (d)	
10	34.06 (t)	2.04/2.25 (m)	39.91 (t)	33.58 (t)	
11	101.30 (s)		98.92 (s)	101.21 (s)	
12	36.37 (d)	1.61 (m)	35.71 (d)	35.93 (d)	
13	27.36 (t)	1.40/1.55 (m)	27.42 (t)	27.16 (t)	
14	31.91 (t)	1.26/1.60 (m)	32.34 (t)	31.74 (t)	
15	67.75 (d)	4.03 (ddt, 9.5, 11.8, 2.6)	67.51 (d)	67.69 (d)	
16	47.96 (t)	2.23 (m)/2.72 (dd, 9.9, 14.1)	48.15 (t)	47.80 (t)	
17	212.55 (s)		215.38 (s)	213.19 (s)	
18	47.74 (d)	2.68 (sextet, 6.8)	48.05 (d)	47.80 (d)	
19	35.04 (t)	2.05/2.52 (m)	34.75 (t)	34.98 (t)	
20	129.67 (d)	5.55 (dt, 14.2, 7.2)	130.68 (d)	129.68 (d)	

	Halstocta	acosanolide C methyl acetal	Halstoctacosanolide A	Halstoctacosanolide B methyl acetal	
Position —	$\delta_{ ext{C}}$	$\delta_{ m H}$ (multiplicity, J in Hz)	$\delta_{ m C}$	$\delta_{ m C}$	
21	132.40 (d)	5.99 (m)	131.47 (d)	132.55 (d)	
22	129.96 (d)	5.95 (m)	129.36 (d)	130.10 (d)	
23	135.74 (d)	5.43 (dd, 7.8, 14.2)	136.22 (d)	135.63 (d)	
24	42.90 (d)	2.06 (m)	41.14 (d)	43.60 (d)	
25	71.47 (d)	3.20 (ddd, 1.6, 6.4, 9.9)	68.72 (d)	72.31 (d)	
26	34.99 (t)	1.52/1.65 (m)	31.98 (t)	33.74 (t)	
27	73.93 (d)	5.11 (ddd, 1.4, 3.8, 10.9)	75.73 (d)	73.94 (d)	
28	34.03 (d)	2.05 (m)	31.68 (d)	33.00 (d)	
29	44.11 (t)	2.04/2.25 (m)	44.93 (t)	44.66 (t)	
30	135.66 (s)		136.15 (s)	137.69 (s)	
31	122.92 (d)	5.29 (t, 7.5)	128.13 (d)	126.99 (d)	
32	36.35 (t)	2.19/2.26 (m)	72.25 (d)	72.31 (d)	
33	69.38 (d)	3.90 (m)	71.44 (d)	71.61 (d)	
34	41.32 (t)	1.44/1.83 (m)	38.78 (t)	38.13 (t)	
35	73.56 (d)	4.17 (dt, 9.9, 2.4)	73.77 (d)	73.29 (d)	
36	41.32 (d)	1.43 (m)	40.63 (d)	41.19 (d)	
37	78.25 (d)	3.78 (ddd, 1.8, 5.5, 8.1)	79.08 (d)	77.83 (d)	
38	28.07 (t)	1.46/1.53 (m)	28.08 (t)	27.88 (t)	
39	10.40 (q)	0.92 (t, 7.6)	10.44 (q)	10.48 (q)	
2-CH ₃	12.72 (q)	1.84 (d, 1.2)	14.95 (q)	12.75 (q)	
6-CH₃	14.66 (q)	1.56 (d, 1.1)	14.74 (q)	14.60 (q)	
8-CH ₃	24.11 (q)	1.75 (s)	24.31 (q)	24.22 (q)	
12-CH ₃	16.12 (q)	0.79 (d, 6.2)	16.13 (q)	16.26 (q)	
18-CH ₃	15.08 (q)	1.05 (d, 7.0)	16.46 (q)	14.62 (q)	
24-CH ₃	15.14 (q)	1.02 (d, 6.8)	11.20 (q)	16.15 (q)	
28-CH ₃	14.90 (q)	0.87 (d, 6.5)	14.23 (q)	14.62 (q)	
30-CH ₃	15.99 (q)	1.66 (s)	16.28 (q)	16.57 (q)	
36-CH ₃	4.94 (q)	0.91 (d, 7.1)	4.23 (q)	5.00 (q)	
11-OCH ₃	47.51 (q)	3.06 (s)		47.42 (q)	

Table 3 (Continued)

acetal derivatization was performed as in the case of halstoctacosanolide B. Thus, halstoctacosanolide C was treated with methanol under acidic condition and the methyl acetal derivative of halstoctacosanolide C was smoothly obtained. Since NMR spectra of methyl acetal derivative of halstoctacosanolide C at room temperature caused line broadening, all measurements were carried out at 50°C. ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra of methyl acetal derivative of halstoctacosanolide C were quite similar to those of methyl acetal derivative of halstoctacosanolide C were quite similar to those of methyl acetal derivative of one oxymethine and appearance of one methylene (Table 3). Further analysis including ¹H-¹H COSY, HMQC and HMBC experiments established that halstoctacosanolide C is the C-32 deoxygenated derivative of halstoctacosanolide B.

These results clearly revealed the halstoctacosanolide

biosynthetic pathway as follows. Firstly, seven PKSs (HlsA to G) generate halstoctacosanolide C from nine malonyl CoAs and ten methylmalonyl CoAs, and then the methylene group at C-32 is hydroxylated by HlsI to produce halstoctacosanolide B. Finally, halstoctacosanolide A is produced through oxidation of methylene group at C-4 of halstoctacosanolide B into carbonyl by HlsH as shown in Figure 6. By the TLC experiments, the *hlsH* mutant appeared to produce halstoctacosanolide C. This may be due to a downstream polar effect caused by the gene disruption of *hlsH*, and the transcriptional disorder of the *hlsI* gene may be occurred.

In the present study, we successfully cloned and sequenced the complete gene cluster for halstoctacosanolide biosynthesis, and revealed that seven ORFs encoded type I



Fig. 6 Biosynthetic pathway of halstoctacosanolides in *S. halstedii* HC34.

PKS and two ORFs encoded P450 monooxygenase in this *hls* cluster. Involvement of the *hls* gene cluster in halstoctacosanolide biosynthesis was confirmed by the gene disruption of *hlsH* and *I*. Furthermore, we successfully generated a new halstoctacosanolide analogue through gene manipulations.

Experimental

General

Optical rotation was measured with a JASCO DIP-360 spectrometer. Mass spectra were obtained on a JEOL JMS-700 in the positive FAB mode using 3-nitrobenzyl alcohol as a matrix. UV and IR spectra were recorded on a Shimadzu UV-160A spectrophotometer and Horiba FT-710 spectrometer, respectively. NMR spectra were obtained by a

JEOL LA-400 and/or a Bruker DRX-500 spectrometers. Chemical shifts are reported in δ value relative to internal tetramethylsilane (δ 0.00). Silica gel column chromatography was carried out with a Kieselgel 60 (70~230 or 230~400 mesh, Merck) and preparative thin-layer silica gel chromatography was performed on PLC plates (silica gel 60 F254, Merck).

Bacterial Strains, Plasmids, and Culture Conditions

Halstoctacosanolide producer S. halstedii HC34 was used as the source of DNA of the genome library and disruption experiments. For halstoctacosanolide production, wild type and mutants were cultivated in vicenistatin production medium [3] (3% starch, 1.5% soya flake, 0.2% yeast extract, 0.5% corn steep liquor, 0.3% NaCl, 0.05% MgSO₄·7H₂O, 0.0005% CoCl₂·6H₂O and 0.3% CaCO₃, at pH 7.1) for 3 days at 28°C with shaking. S. lividans TK24 [15] and E. coli - Streptomyces shuttle vector pWHM3 [16] were used to prepare plasmids for gene disruption and S. lividans was cultivated in SK No. 2 medium (2% starch, 0.5% glucose, 0.5% yeast extract, 0.3% peptone, 0.3% beef extract, 0.02% KH₂PO₄ and 0.06% MgSO₄ \cdot 7H₂O) at 28°C. Transformants were selected in R5 agar plate [15] with appropriate antibiotic. E. coli DH5a (TaKaRa) and plasmid pUC119 (TaKaRa), pBluescript II SK(+) (Stratagene) and LITMUS28 (New England Biolabs) was used for routine subcloning of DNA fragments. E. coli was grown at 37°C in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth or on LB agar supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics for selection.

DNA Manipulations and Southern Hybridization

Isolation of *S. halstedii* genomic DNA and construction of its genome library were described previously [17]. Purification of plasmids from *E. coli* was carried out by GFX micro Plasmid Prep Kit (Amersham Biosciences). General DNA manipulations in *E. coli* were performed according to standard protocols [18]. To proceed gene walking, Southern hybridization was carried out using a probe derived from the digested DNA fragment existing most downstream of the isolated cosmid. Labeling of DNA with dioxigenin-dUDP and detection of the hybridized DNA were carried out using DIG DNA Labeling Kit and Detection Kit (Roche Diagnostics).

Sequencing and Sequence Analysis

DNA sequencing was performed on double-stranded DNA templates by dideoxynucleotide chain-termination method with a Model 4000-1 (Li-COR) and ThermoSequencase Cycle Sequencing Kit, and a part of these was ordered to Hitachi High-Technologies. DNA sequences were analyzed with the Align-IR (LI-COR) and the DNASIS program

(Hitachi Software Engineering). Protein sequence homology searches of databases were carried out using the BLAST and the FASTA programs.

Gene Disruption

To disrupt the *hlsH* gene, the plasmid, named pWHM-dH, was prepared as follows. Firstly the BamHI-BglII fragment (ca. 4.5 kb) around the hlsH gene was subcloned into the BamHI site of pBluescript II SK(+), and then the apramycin resistant cassette, aac3(VI) [19], was inserted into the *Aat*II site of the *hlsH* gene of the resulting plasmid. Finally the HindIII-XbaI fragment (ca. 6 kb) containing the resulting disrupted hlsH gene was subcloned into HindIII-*Xba*I site of pWHM3. In the case of disruption of the *hlsI* gene, the plasmid, named pWHM-dI, was prepared as follows. The SphI fragment (ca. 5 kb) involving the hlsI gene was subcloned into SphI site of PUC119, whose BamHI site had been removed, and then the apramycin resistant cassette was inserted into the BamHI site of the hlsI gene of the resulting plasmid. Finally the SphI fragment (ca. 6 kb) containing the resulting disrupted hlsI gene was subcloned into SphI site of pWHM3. The resulting pWHM-dH and -dI were separately introduced into protoplasts of S. lividans TK24, and the plasmids were isolated from S. lividans TK24. The plasmids were separately purified by a standard CsCl-ethidium bromide gradient centrifugation method [15]. Each pure plasmid was introduced into protoplasts of S. halstedii. For homologous recombination, the appropriate transformants were sporulated on R5 agar plates for 20 days. After singlation, the colonies showing the proper phenotype, thiostrepton-sensitive and apramycin-resistant, were selected.

Isolation and Purification of Halstoctacosanolide C

The fermentation broth (1.5 liters) of the *hlsI* mutant was centrifuged to obtain a mycelium cake and supernatant. The mycelium cake was extracted with acetone (500 ml). The extract was filtered through a pad of Celite and evaporated to give an aqueous suspension. The suspension, after being adjusted to pH 10, was extracted three times with ethyl acetate. The combined organic layer was washed with brine, dried over MgSO₄, and concentrated *in vacuo*. The supernatant was also extracted three times with ethyl acetate. The combined organic layer was washed with brine, dried over MgSO₄, and concentrated *in vacuo*. The supernatant was also extracted three times with ethyl acetate. The combined organic layer was washed with brine, dried over MgSO₄, and concentrated *in vacuo*. Then, the crude residues thus obtained were combined and subjected to a flash silica gel column chromatography, which was eluted with 80% ethyl acetate in hexane to afford halstoctacosanolide C (42 mg).

Preparation of Halstoctacosanolide C Methyl Acetal

A solution of halstoctacosanolide C (13.2 mg, 0.016 mmol) in methanol (3.0 ml) was treated with pyridinium *p*toluenesulfonate (3 mg) for 3 hours at room temperature. The reaction mixture was diluted with Tris-HCl buffer (1 M, pH 8) and the resulting mixture was evaporated to remove methanol, whereupon the rest was extracted three times with ethyl acetate. The combined extract was washed with brine, dried over MgSO₄, filtered, and concentrated *in vacuo*. The residue was purified by preparative TLC (5% methanol in CHCl₃) to afford methyl acetal derivative of halstoctacosanolide C (11.3 mg, 0.013 mmol, 83%) as white powder. mp 75~77°C; $[\alpha]_{D}^{28} = -19.7$ (*c* 1.05, CHCl₃); IR (neat): 3410 (br), 2960, 2930, 1700 cm⁻¹; HRFAB-MS (*m/z*); Calcd for C₄₉H₈₀O₁₀Na: 851.5649 [M+Na]⁺, Found: 851.5630.

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