

Identification and elimination of metabolic bottlenecks in the quinone modification pathway for enhanced coenzyme Q₁₀ production in *Rhodobacter sphaeroides*

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ABSTRACT

In this report, UbiE and UbiH in the quinone modification pathway (QMP) were identified in addition to UbiG as bottleneck enzymes in the CoQ₁₀ biosynthesis by *Rhodobacter sphaeroides*. The CoQ₁₀ content was enhanced after co-overexpression of UbiE and UbiG, however, accompanied by the accumulation of the intermediate 10P-MMBQ. UbiH was then co-overexpressed to pull the metabolic flux towards downstream, resulting in an elevated CoQ₁₀ productivity and decreased biomass. On the other hand, the expression levels of UbiE and UbiG were tuned to eliminate the intermediate accumulation, however at the sacrifice of productivity. To alleviate the detrimental effect on either productivity or cell growth, we tried to fuse UbiG with UbiE and localize them onto the membrane to elevate intermediate conversion. By fusing UbiE and UbiG to pufX, CoQ₁₀ was accumulated to 108.51 ± 2.76 mg/L with a biomass of 12.2 ± 0.9 g/L. At last, we combined the optimized QMP and the previously engineered 2-methyl-D-erythritol-4-phosphate pathway (MEP) to further boost CoQ₁₀ biosynthesis, resulting in a strain with 138 ± 2.64 mg/L CoQ₁₀ production.

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1. Introduction

Coenzyme Q₁₀ (2,3-dimethoxy, 5-methyl, 6-decylisoprene parabenzoquinone) is a high-added-value natural compound. Aside from its function as an electron transporter in the electron transport chain of aerobic respiration, it acts as an antioxidant by scavenging the free radicals, which are harmful to the membrane phospholipids and proteins (Cluis et al., 2007). In addition, CoQ₁₀ is well-known for its benefits in heart and vascular health, as well as in treating diabetes, Parkinson's disease, Alzheimer's disease and mitochondrial diseases (Beal, 2004; Cluis et al., 2007; Dhanasekaran and Ren, 2005). Hence, CoQ₁₀ is in growing demand in the pharmaceutical, food and cosmetic additive industries.

Currently, CoQ₁₀ is mainly produced by fermentation of the natural CoQ₁₀ producers due to the advantages of the bio-produced CoQ₁₀ compared to that of chemical source. Hence, a high-yield producer is essential for the commercial purpose in the fermentation process. In the past decades, enormous efforts have been made to construct high-titer-CoQ₁₀ producers by metabolic

engineering of the workhorse bacterium *Escherichia coli* (Cheng et al., 2010; Choi et al., 2009; Cluis et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2006; Koo et al., 2010; Park et al., 2005; Zahiri et al., 2006). However, most were encountered with problems such as low fermentation titers, and emergence of byproducts like CoQ₈ and CoQ₉ (Cluis et al., 2011; Okada et al., 1998; Park et al., 2005). As an alternative route, taking natural CoQ₁₀ producers as the starting host for metabolic engineering could overcome these obstacles (Zhang et al., 2007). And among the CoQ₁₀ natural producers, *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* is a promising microbe for fermentative production of CoQ₁₀ (Choi et al., 2005). CoQ₁₀ is synthesized through the 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) pathway, the shikimate pathway and the quinone modification pathway (QMP) (Fig. 1). In our previous studies, we explored the metabolic regulation of *R. sphaeroides* and successfully improved the CoQ₁₀ production through engineering of the MEP pathway (Lu et al., 2013, 2014). In this study, we focused our efforts on systematic engineering of QMP in *R. sphaeroides* for breeding higher-titer CoQ₁₀ producing strain. Since the removal of the bottleneck nodes in the pathway is an efficient strategy for production improvement, as an essential preparative step, the bottleneck enzymes in the pathway should be identified before initiating metabolic engineering. To the best of our knowledge, information about

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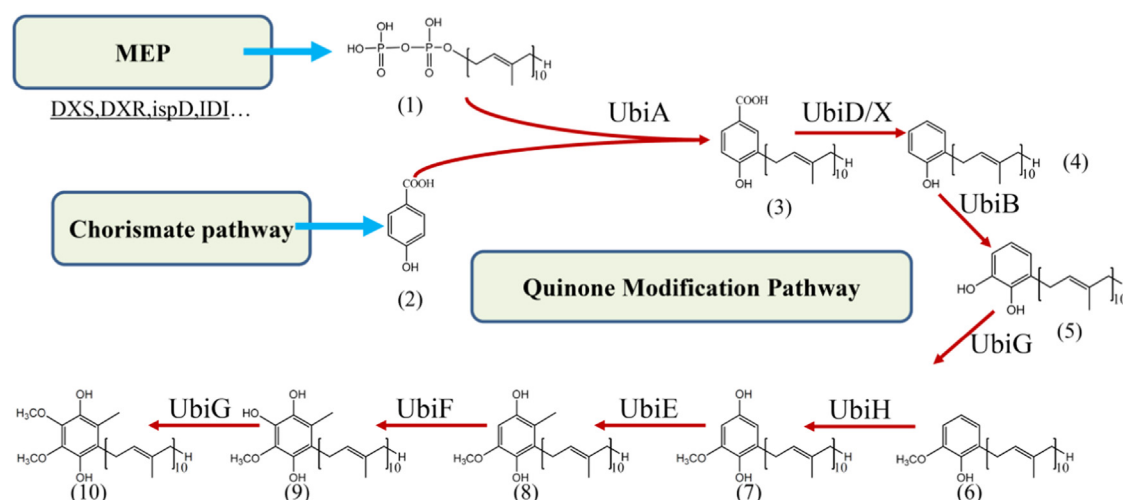


Fig. 1. The *R. sphaeroides* quinone modification pathway in coenzyme Q_{10} biosynthesis. MEP: 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate pathway; (1) decaprenyl diphosphate; (2) para-hydroxybenzoic acid; (3) 3-decaprenyl-4-hydroxybenzoate; (4) 2-decaprenylphenol; (5) 2-decaprenyl-6-hydroxyphenol; (6) 2-decaprenyl-6-methoxyphenol; (7) 2-decaprenyl-3-methyl-5-hydroxy-6-methoxy-1,4-benzoquinol; (8) 2-decaprenyl-3-methyl-6-methoxy-1,4-benzoquinol; (9) 2-decaprenyl-3-methyl-5-hydroxy-6-methoxy-1,4-benzoquinol; (10) coenzyme Q_{10} .

the enzymes in the pathway aside from the gene sequences in this host is limited (Lu et al., 2013) and remains to be further explored.

During metabolic engineering towards enhanced pathway flux, the newly emerged bottleneck nodes resulting from overexpression of upstream enzymes often lead to accumulation of intermediates, which can cause waste of carbon source and/or toxicity to the host (Anthony et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2014; Martin et al., 2003). Two strategies have been proposed to circumvent this problem: enhancing the metabolic flux downstream of the bottleneck node to improve the intermediate conversion, or attenuating the metabolic flux upstream of the bottleneck node to balance the intermediate supply. In terms of the first strategy, the common workflow is to first identify the rate-limiting enzymes and then elevate their expression levels accordingly (Cluis et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011). As for the second strategy, many methods have been developed, such as tuning the strength of promoters, ribosomal binding site sequences (RBS), or terminators (Ajikumar et al., 2010; Zelbuch et al., 2013), and constructing gene clusters in the form of monocistron or polycistron (Pitera et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2011). However, we need to be careful with both strategies. The first has the risk of excessive expanding the pathway flux, leading to exhaust of the carbon source which results in reduced cell growth, while the second is prone to optimize cell growth but often with a compromise in the pathway flux. An alternative strategy proposed recently is fused expression of the rate-limiting enzymes (Conrado et al., 2012; Dueber et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2011). Fusing multi-enzymes to form a chimeric multifunctional enzyme can construct a substrate channel and prevent the intermediates from diffusing into the cytoplasm, thus increasing the utility of the intermediate.

In the present study, we first screened for the candidates of rate-limiting enzymes in the quinone modification pathway by overexpression of individual Ubi enzymes at different levels. Based on these results, we engineered the pathway by co-expression of the bottleneck enzymes to improve the CoQ_{10} production. Subsequently, the three above-mentioned strategies were investigated to eliminate the metabolic bottleneck by balancing the metabolic flux or improving the catalytic efficiency in the pathway for further production enhancement. At last, the unimpeded QMP was combined with the previously engineered MEP employing the self-regulation strategy (Lu et al., 2014) to further boost CoQ_{10} synthesis in *R. sphaeroides*.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Bacterial strains and culture media

E. coli JM109 was used for plasmid construction and propagation. *E. coli* S17-1 was used for di-parental conjugation. *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) was used as the template for cloning the *UbiF* gene. *R. sphaeroides* 2.4.1 was used for CoQ_{10} production and its genome was used as the template for cloning of other *Ubi* genes. *E. coli* strains were cultivated at 37 °C in Luria–Bertani medium (LB, tryptone 10 g/L, yeast extract 5 g/L, NaCl 10 g/L) supplemented with 50 µg/mL of kanamycin or 100 µg/mL of ampicillin when necessary. For genome preparation and routine cultivation, *R. sphaeroides* was cultivated in medium A, which contains 2 g/L NaCl, 3 g/L glucose, 8 g/L yeast extract, 1.3 g/L KH_2PO_4 , 0.125 g/L $MgSO_4$, 1 mg/L thiamine hydrochloride, 15 µg/L biotin, 1 mg/L nicotinic acid and 15 g/L agar, supplemented with 25 µg/mL kanamycin and 2.5 µg/mL nalidixic acid when necessary. For shake-flask cultivation, *R. sphaeroides* was cultivated in a rich medium B, which contains 40 g/L glucose, 4 g/L corn steep liquor, 3 g/L sodium glutamate, 2.8 g/L NaCl, 3 g/L $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, 3 g/L KH_2PO_4 , 6.3 g/L $MgSO_4$, 2 g/L $CaCO_3$, 1 mg/L thiamine hydrochloride, 15 µg/L biotin, 1 mg/L nicotinic acid, and 25 µg/mL kanamycin and 2.5 µg/mL nalidixic acid.

2.2. Construction of plasmids and recombinants

General DNA manipulation was conducted according to standard protocols. T4 ligase was purchased from Thermo Inc. (ThermoScientific, USA). PrimerStar DNA polymerase with high GC buffer used in polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and restriction endonucleases were purchased from Takara (Takara, China). Primer sequences are listed in Table S1. Plasmids were constructed as described in the Supplementary materials and the structures of the plasmids are shown in Fig. 2. All the plasmids used are kanamycin resistant.

2.3. Di-parental conjugation

Conjugation mating was carried out as described in a previous report (Lu et al., 2014). The donor was *E. coli* S-17 transformed with the target plasmid and the receptor was *R. sphaeroides* 2.4.1. The two strains were mixed at a donor/receptor ratio of 1:10 for conjugation and the positive colonies were screened on LB agar

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