

Regulatory genes and their roles for improvement of antibiotic biosynthesis in *Streptomyces*

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Abstract The numerous secondary metabolites in *Streptomyces* spp. are crucial for various applications. For example, cephamycin C is used as an antibiotic, and avermectin is used as an insecticide. Specifically, antibiotic yield is closely related to many factors, such as the external environment, nutrition (including nitrogen and carbon sources), biosynthetic efficiency and the regulatory mechanisms in producing strains. There are various types of regulatory genes that work in different ways, such as pleiotropic (or global) regulatory genes, cluster-situated regulators, which are also called pathway-specific regulatory genes, and many other regulators. The study of regulatory genes that influence antibiotic biosynthesis in *Streptomyces* spp. not only provides a theoretical basis for antibiotic biosynthesis in *Streptomyces* but also helps to increase the yield of antibiotics via molecular manipulation of these regulatory genes. Currently, more and more emphasis is being placed on the regulatory genes of antibiotic biosynthetic gene clusters in *Streptomyces* spp., and many studies on these genes have been performed to improve the yield of antibiotics in *Streptomyces*. This paper lists many antibiotic biosynthesis regulatory genes in *Streptomyces* spp. and focuses on frequently investigated

regulatory genes that are involved in pathway-specific regulation and pleiotropic regulation and their applications in genetic engineering.

Keywords Antibiotic biosynthetic gene cluster · Regulatory gene · Regulatory mechanism · *Streptomyces* · Secondary metabolites

Introduction

Secondary metabolites of *Streptomyces*, including antibiotics, immunomodulators, enzyme inhibitors and other bioactive substances, often have significant medicinal value. However, wild strains usually produce low levels of antibiotics. There is a large and complicated regulatory network in many *Streptomyces* strains, and the biosynthesis of one antibiotic in one strain may be controlled by more than one regulatory mechanism. For example, the production of actinorhodin (ACT) in *Streptomyces coelicolor* is regulated by both the cluster-situated regulator (CSR) *actIII-ORF4* (Fernández-Moreno et al. 1991) and the pleiotropic regulatory gene *cprB* (Onaka et al. 1998). Further, there is also more than one regulatory gene that affects the biosynthesis of a single antibiotic. For example, *dnrI*, *dnrO* and *dnrN* (Kitani et al. 2008; Parajuli et al. 2005) all regulate the production of daunorubicin (DNR) in *Streptomyces peuceitius*.

To better and more comprehensively understand the mechanisms of antibiotic biosynthesis regulation, in this paper, we classify the antibiotic biosynthetic regulators in various *Streptomyces* strains that are associated with antibiotic production into three types. This work will provide a theoretical basis for the molecular perturbation of regulatory genes and will help with manipulating the

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antibiotic biosynthetic pathways and accordingly improving antibiotic production.

Regulatory genes involved in pathway-specific regulation

The CSRs, located within the antibiotic biosynthetic clusters, can modulate the antibiotic biosynthetic genes of the clusters in which they are included (Martín and Liras 2010; Rodríguez et al. 2013). The CSRs can only affect the biosynthetic pathway of a single, specific antibiotic and act as a master switch for biosynthesis of that individual antibiotic; this regulation is called pathway-specific regulation (Bibb 1996; Novakova et al. 2011). Some CSRs encode proteins that belong to a family known as the *Streptomyces* antibiotic regulatory proteins (SARPs). SARPs contain two characteristic structural domains: an OmpR DNA-binding domain and a bacterial transcription activation domain (BTAD) (Tanaka et al. 2007). The SARPs include the positive regulators ActII-ORF4 (Fernández-Moreno et al. 1991) and RedD (Wilson et al. 2001) in *S. coelicolor* and DnrI (Parajuli et al. 2005) in *S. peuceetius*. In addition, some CSRs encode proteins belonging to another family, called the LuxR family, which is often found in Gram-negative bacteria (Lei et al. 2007). LuxR-type regulators contain a nucleotide triphosphate (NTP) binding motif at the N-terminus and a helix-turn-helix (HTH) motif at the C-terminus; examples include the positive regulators PimR (Antón et al. 2004) in *Streptomyces natalensis* and PikD (Xue et al. 1998) in *Streptomyces venezuelae*. There are many additional families of regulatory proteins, including the LysR and TetR families. The CSRs are shown in Table 1. Huang et al. (2005) reported that some CSRs can also control the expression of pleiotropic genes, and some pleiotropic regulators can affect the expression of CSRs. In this paper, we will not describe the cross-regulation between various types of regulators.

tylR, tylP, tylQ, tylS and tylT

Eli Lilly and Company obtained the tylosin biosynthetic gene cluster from *Streptomyces fradiae*. Five regulators of this cluster are all CSRs. Sequence analysis identified TylP as a γ -butyrolactone (GBL) signal receptor (Bate et al. 1999; Wilson et al. 2001), and there were several indications that TylP is an effector-binding regulator and a regulator of tylosin biosynthesis (Bignell et al. 2007). The protein TylQ was reported to be a transcriptional repressor that blocked tylosin biosynthesis by controlling the expression of *tylR* (Stratigopoulos and Cundliffe 2002). Studies revealed that *tylT* and *tylS* encode proteins belonging to the SARPs family (Bate et al. 1999). Bate

et al. (2006) identified a new regulatory gene, *tylU*, in the tylosin biosynthetic gene cluster. Targeted disruption of *tylU* decreased tylosin yield by approximately 80%, demonstrating that *tylU* is a positive regulatory gene for tylosin biosynthesis. TylR, a CSR, was able to regulate the core polyketide genes, but it primarily affected tylosin biosynthesis (Bate et al. 1999). The tylosin biosynthetic gene cluster is shown in Fig. 1.

dnrI, dnrO and dnrN

A previous report (Parajuli and Moon 2002) has demonstrated that the DNR producer *S. peuceetius* possesses two DNA segments, *dnrR1* and *dnrR2*. Sequence analysis of *dnrR1* and the subsequent inactivation of *dnrI*, which is contained within *dnrR1*, suggested the involvement of *dnrI* in the transcription of the biosynthetic genes of DNR. The disruption of *dnrI* resulted in the absence of DNR production (Madduri and Hutchinson 1995), and the overexpression of *dnrI* under the control of the strong *ermE** promoter increased the production of DNR (Malla et al. 2010). These results indicated that *dnrI* positively regulates DNR biosynthesis. *dnrN* encodes a response regulator (RR) of UhpA-LuxR superfamily of regulatory proteins and has a motif that is highly similar to the HTH DNA-binding motif. An earlier study showed that reintroduction of *dnrN* into a *dnrI:aphII* mutant failed to restore DNR production. This suggested that DnrN activates the transcription of *dnrI* in the regulatory cascade; *dnrI*, in turn, positively triggers the transcription of DNR biosynthetic genes (Otten et al. 1995). *dnrO*, which is a negative regulatory gene, encodes a DNA-binding protein. DnrO has been shown to regulate antibiotic yield in *S. peuceetius* by positively controlling *dnrN* (Otten et al. 2000; Parajuli and Moon 2002).

rapH, rapG and rapY

DNA sequence analysis of *rapH* and *rapG* in *Streptomyces hygroscopicus* revealed that RapH and RapG share significant similarity with two positive transcriptional families, the LAL and AraC families, respectively (Kuščer et al. 2007). RapH contained a DNA-binding motif and an ATP-binding site, while RapG contained a HTH DNA-binding motif (Yoo et al. 2015). In one study, antibiotic production was increased by 50% only if copies of both *rapH* and *rapG* under the control of their native promoter regions were introduced. Further, the complementation of *rapH* and *rapG* deletion mutants under the control of their native promoters led to a restoration of rapamycin production to parental levels (Yoo et al. 2015). The overexpression of both genes led to an abundant rapamycin synthesis, while the deletion of *rapG* and *rapH* caused a total shutdown of antibiotic production, suggesting that *rapG* and *rapH* play

Table 1 Regulatory genes involved in pathway-specific regulation

Regulatory gene(s)	Gene(s) from	Product(s) of regulation	Function	Notes	References
<i>aciII-ORF4</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT	+	Encodes a SARP	Fernández-Moreno et al. (1991)
<i>myrR</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	Methylenomycin	–	A gene adjacent to <i>myrR</i> provides positive regulation	Arias et al. (1999)
<i>cdaR</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	Mmy and CDA	+	Encodes a SARP	Bibb (2005)
<i>redD</i> and <i>redX</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	RED	+	Encode SARPs, and the transcription of <i>redX</i> regulates the transcription of <i>redD</i>	Romero-Rodríguez et al. (2015), Takano et al. (1992) and Wilson et al. (2001)
<i>gdmRI</i> and <i>gdmRII</i>	<i>S. hygroscopicus</i> 179977	Geldanamycin	+	Regulate the transcription of <i>pks</i> , <i>gdmF</i> and <i>gdnA</i> , which are involved in biosynthesis of geldanamycin	(He et al. 2008)
<i>tylR</i> , <i>tylS</i> , <i>tylP</i> , <i>tylQ</i> , <i>tylT</i> and <i>tylU</i>	<i>S. fradiae</i>	Tylosin	<i>tylR</i> , <i>tylS</i> , <i>tylT</i> and <i>tylU</i> : + <i>tylQ</i> : –	<i>tylT</i> and <i>tylS</i> encode SARPs, and <i>TylP</i> is similar to γ -butyrolactone receptor proteins	Bate et al. (1999, 2006) and Stratigopoulos and Cundliffe (2002)
<i>aveR</i> , <i>aveR1</i> , <i>aveR2</i> and <i>aveT</i>	<i>S. avermitilis</i>	Avermectin	+	<i>aveR</i> contains a HTH motif; AveT belongs to the TetR family and activates transcription of <i>aveR</i>	Ikeda et al. (2003)
<i>alpT</i> , <i>alpU</i> , <i>alpV</i> , <i>alpW</i> and <i>alpZ</i>	<i>S. ambofaciens</i>	Alpomycin	<i>alpT</i> , <i>alpU</i> , and <i>alpV</i> : +; <i>alpW</i> : –	<i>alpT</i> , <i>alpU</i> and <i>alpV</i> encode SARPs, <i>alpW</i> encodes a transcriptional repressor protein, and <i>alpZ</i> encodes a γ -butyrolactone receptor protein	Aigle et al. (2005)
<i>ccaR</i>	<i>S. clavuligerus</i>	Cephamicin C and clavulanic acid	+	Encodes a SARP	Pérez-Llarena et al. (1997)
<i>pimR</i>	<i>S. natalensis</i>	Pimaricin	+	Encodes a LuxR family protein, does not regulate its own transcription	Antón et al. (2004)
<i>pikD</i>	<i>S. venezuelae</i>	Pikromycin	+	Encodes a LuxR family protein	Xue et al. (1998)
<i>monH</i> , <i>monRI</i> and <i>monRII</i>	<i>S. cinnamomensis</i>	Monensin	+	MonH is similar to <i>PikD</i> , and <i>monRI</i> encodes a SARP	Oliynyk et al. (2003)
<i>spbR</i>	<i>S. pristinaespiralis</i>	Pristinamycin	+	<i>SpbR</i> is a γ -butyrolactone receptor	Mast et al. (2015)
<i>papR1-R5</i>	<i>S. pristinaespiralis</i>	Pritinamycin	<i>papR1</i> , <i>papR2</i> and <i>papR4</i> : +; <i>papR3</i> and <i>papR5</i> : –	<i>PapR1</i> , <i>PapR2</i> , and <i>PapR4</i> are SARPs, and <i>PapR3</i> and <i>PapR5</i> belong to the TetR family	Mast et al. (2015)
<i>jadR*</i> and <i>jadR3</i>	<i>S. venezuelae</i>	Jadomycin B	–	<i>JadR*</i> is a TetR-like protein, and <i>JadR3</i> represses <i>jadR2</i> and <i>jadR3</i> but activates <i>jadR1</i>	Yang et al. (2001), Zhang et al. (2013) and Zou et al. (2014)
<i>nysRI-RIII</i>	<i>S. noursei</i> ATCC	Nystatin	+	Deletion of <i>nysRI</i> abolishes the transcription of <i>nysRII-III</i>	Sekurova et al. (2004)
<i>amph RI- RIII</i>	<i>S. nodosus</i>	Amphotericin	+	All contain a HTH motif in C-terminal	Carmody et al. (2004)
<i>fscRI-RIII</i>	<i>S. pp.</i> FR008	Candicidin	+	Encodes a LuxR family protein	Chen et al. (2003)
<i>dnrI</i> , <i>dnrO</i> and <i>dnrN</i>	<i>S. peuceitius</i>	Daunorubicin	<i>dnrI</i> : +; <i>dnrO</i> : –; <i>dnrN</i> : +	<i>DnrN</i> is a RR belonging to the Uhp-LuxR superfamily and activates the transcription of <i>dnrI</i> , and <i>DnrO</i> positively controls <i>dnrN</i>	Otten et al. (2000) and Parajuli and Moon (2002)
<i>strR</i>	<i>S. griseus</i>	Streptomycin	+	Regulates streptomycin by activating the expression of <i>strA</i> and <i>strB</i>	Distler et al. (1987)
<i>rapH</i> , <i>rapG</i> and <i>rapY</i>	<i>S. hygroscopicus</i>	Rapamycin	<i>rapH</i> , <i>rapG</i> : + <i>rapY</i> : –	<i>RapG</i> and <i>RapY</i> each contain a HTH motif, and <i>RapH</i> contains a DNA-binding motif and an ATP-binding site	Yoo et al. (2015)
<i>srrX</i> , <i>srrY</i> , <i>srrZ</i> and <i>srrB</i>	<i>S. rochei</i>	Lankamycin and lancadycin	<i>srrX</i> and <i>srrY</i> : + for both <i>srrZ</i> : + for lankamycin <i>srrB</i> : – for both	<i>srrY</i> and <i>srrZ</i> encode SARPs, and <i>srrY</i> positively regulates <i>srrZ</i>	Arakawa et al. (2007) and Suzuki et al. (2010)

Table 1 continued

Regulatory gene(s)	Gene(s) from	Product(s) of regulation	Function	Notes	References
<i>scbR</i> and <i>scbR2</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT, RED, CDA and yCPK	ACT, CDA and RED: + yCPK: –	ScbR is a γ -butyrolactone receptor protein, and ScbR2 is an antibiotic receptor protein	Li et al. (2015a)
<i>polR</i> and <i>polY</i>	<i>S. cacaoi</i>	Polyoxin	+	Both encode SARPs, and the transcription of <i>polR</i> is positively regulated by <i>polY</i>	Hwang et al. (2003)
<i>aur1PR3</i> and <i>aur1PR4</i>	<i>S. aureofaciens</i>	Auricin	+	Both encode SARPs, <i>aur1PR3</i> is controlled by Aur1R, and Aur1P directly regulates the expression of <i>aur1PR4</i>	Rehakova et al. (2013)
<i>barA</i> , <i>barB</i> and <i>varR</i> ,	<i>S. virginiae</i>	Virginiamycin	–	BarA, BarB and VarR are TetR-like regulators, and the transcription of <i>barB</i> is tightly repressed by BarA	Matsuno et al. (2003), Nakano et al. (2000) and Namwat et al. (2001)
<i>vmsS</i> , <i>vmsT</i> and <i>vmsR</i>	<i>S. virginiae</i>	Virginiamycin M and virginiamycin S	<i>vmsS</i> and <i>vmsR</i> : + for virginiamycin M and virginiamycin S; <i>vmsT</i> : – for virginiamycin M	VmsS and VmsR are SARPs, and VmsT is a RR of a TCS	Pulsawat et al. (2009)
<i>aur1R</i>	<i>S. aureofaciens</i>	Auricin	–	<i>aur1R</i> encodes a homolog of the TetR family, and Aur1R represses the expression of <i>aur1P</i>	Novakova et al. (2010)
<i>fdmR1</i>	<i>S. griseus</i>	Fredericamycin	+	Encodes a homologue of SARPs	Chen et al. (2008)
<i>thnI</i>	<i>S. cattleya</i>	Thienamycin	+	ThnI resembles LysR-type transcriptional activators and contains a HTH motif	Rodríguez et al. (2008)
<i>thnU</i>	<i>S. cattleya</i>	Cephamicin C	+	Encodes a SARP	Rodríguez et al. (2008)
<i>asuR1</i> , <i>asuR2</i> , <i>asuR4</i> and <i>asuR6</i>	<i>S. nodosus</i>	Asukamycin	+	AsuR1 and AsuR6 belong to the LuxR family, AsuR2 belongs to the TetR family, and asuR5 encodes a SARP	Xie et al. (2012)
<i>farR3</i> and <i>farR4</i>	<i>S. lavendulae</i> FRI-5	Indigoidine	<i>farR3</i> : + <i>farR4</i> : –	Both encode SARPs, FarR3 positively controls the biosynthesis of indigoidine, and FarR4 negatively controls the expression of <i>farX</i> , <i>farA</i> , <i>farR1</i> and <i>farR2</i>	Kitani et al. (2008) and Kurniawan et al. (2014)
<i>papR6</i>	<i>S. pristinaespiralis</i>	Pritinamycin II	+	PapR6 is an orphan RR	Dun et al. (2015) and Mast et al. (2015)
<i>redZ</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	RED	+	Encodes a NarL-type RR, and the transcription of <i>redD</i> depends on <i>redZ</i> and the translation of <i>redZ</i> depends on <i>bldA</i>	Guthrie et al. (1998) and Wang et al. (2009)
<i>ssaA</i>	<i>Streptomyces</i> sp. strain SS	Sansanmycin	+	SsaA has a N-terminal fork head-associated (FHA) domain and a C-terminal LuxR-type HTH motif	Li et al. (2013)
<i>vImI</i>	<i>S. viridifaciens</i>	Valanimycin	+	<i>vImI</i> encodes a SARP and can complement a <i>redD</i> mutation;	Garg and Parry (2010)
<i>nanR1</i> , <i>nanR2</i> and <i>nanR4</i>	<i>S. nanchangensis</i>	Nanchangmycin	<i>nanR1</i> , <i>nanR2</i> : + <i>nanR4</i> : –	<i>nanR1</i> and <i>nanR2</i> encode SARPs, and <i>nanR4</i> is an AraC-family transcriptional regulator and represses the transcription of <i>nanR1</i> and <i>nanR2</i>	Yu et al. (2012)

+ Represents positive regulation, – represents negative regulation

active roles in antibiotic biosynthesis. Furthermore, these genes cannot exert regulatory effects on the rapamycin biosynthetic gene cluster independent of each other. Yoo et al. (2015) found that the overexpression of *rapY* caused a drastic reduction in antibiotic production, while deletion of

rapY increased antibiotic production by approximately fivefold. RapY, which contains an HTH motif near its N-terminus, plays a negative role in rapamycin production. The antibiotic regulatory genes in the biosynthetic gene cluster of rapamycin are shown in Fig. 2.

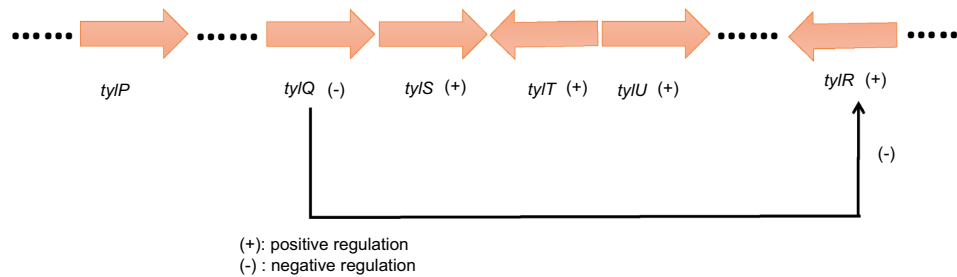
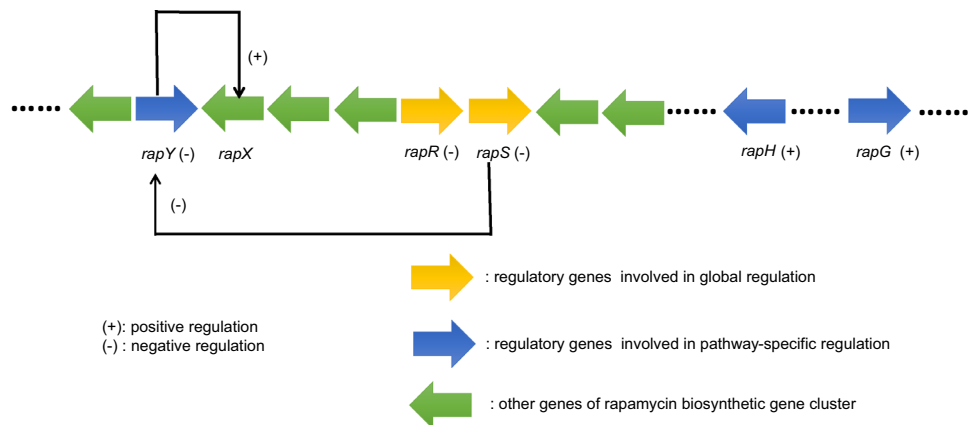


Fig. 1 Tylosin biosynthetic gene cluster of *S. fradiae*. Five regulatory genes are shown: TylP is a GBL signal receptor. TylQ is a transcriptional repressor and blocks tylosin biosynthesis by

controlling the expression of *tylR*. *tylT* and *tylS* encode cluster-situated regulatory proteins of the SARPs family. *tylU* is a positive regulatory gene of tylosin biosynthesis. TylR is also a CSR

Fig. 2 The location of regulatory genes in rapamycin biosynthetic gene cluster of *S. hygrosopicus*. RapY inhibits the transcription of *rapX* which is an ABC-transporter gene. Together, *rapS* and *rapR* negatively regulate most of the rapamycin biosynthetic genes. RapS also represses the expression of *rapY*. RapH and RapG positively regulate rapamycin biosynthesis



polY and *polR*

Li et al. (2009) found that the deletion of *polR* completely blocked polyoxin (POL) biosynthesis, which was complemented by introducing a copy of *polR* into the mutant. Similarly, the yield of POL was found to increase with the presence of an additional copy of *polR* in the mutant. PolR is necessary for the transcription of many structural genes in the POL biosynthetic gene cluster. Another CSR, *polY* in *S. cacaoi*, positively controls the production of this antibiotic. Both *polR* and *polY* encode proteins belonging to the SARPs family, and the expression of *polR* depends on the activity of PolY (Kitani et al. 2001).

aur1R, *aur1P*, *aur1PR3* and *aur1PR4*

Some studies (Novakova et al. 2010, 2011; Rehakova et al. 2013) described four genes regulating auricin production in *Streptomyces aureofaciens*. *aur1R* encodes a homologue similar to the members of the TetR family. Antibiotic production was much higher in the disrupted strain than in the parental strain, which suggested a negative regulatory effect of *aur1R* on auricin production (Novakova et al. 2010). Aur1R can specifically negatively control the expression of *aur1P*, and this repression is released by

auricin or its intermediates. In another experiment (Rehakova et al. 2013), *aur1P* was deleted from the chromosome, and no auricin was produced in the mutant, which suggested that *aur1P* is critical for the biosynthesis of auricin and exerts a positive effect on the expression of the biosynthetic genes of auricin. Aur1P belongs to the OmpR subfamily, which is similar to the RRs of two-component systems (TCSs). *aur1PR3* and *aur1PR4* encode proteins that are highly similar to those belonging to SARP family. The disruption of *aur1PR3*, an activator of auricin, resulted in a dramatic decrease in antibiotic production compared to the wild-type parent. Additionally, the expression of *aur1PR3* was controlled by Aur1R (Novakova et al. 2011). Aur1P directly regulated the expression of *aur1PR4* because its promoter was dependent on Aur1P (Rehakova et al. 2013).

thnI and *thnU*

There are two regulators, *thnI* and *thnU*, located in the thienamycin gene cluster of *Streptomyces cattleya*. ThnI is similar to the members of LysR family, and they all have a highly conserved HTH DNA-binding domain. A deletion mutant constructed by gene replacement failed to produce thienamycin, thereby revealing the importance of *thnI* in

thienamycin synthesis. Gene expression analysis of the thienamycin gene cluster demonstrated that ThnI is a positive regulator and that it can control the expression of several genes involved in the assembly and export of thienamycin (Rodríguez et al. 2008). *thnU* encodes a positive regulator that belongs to the SARPs family. HPLC–MS analysis of a *thnU* mutant constructed using the same method that was used for *thnI* indicated that inactivation of *thnU* resulted in a loss of the production of Cephameycin C, whereas thienamycin synthesis was not affected. These results revealed the positive role of ThnI in thienamycin biosynthesis and the relevance of ThnU in cephamycin C biosynthesis (Rodríguez et al. 2008).

Regulatory genes involved in pleiotropic regulation

Many regulatory genes, which are mostly located outside of biosynthetic gene clusters, have pleiotropic (or global) effects on the production of multiple secondary metabolites or on both secondary metabolites and morphological development. In *Streptomyces*, the most abundant pleiotropic regulators belong to the TCSs, which are the predominant signal transduction systems in bacteria (Stock et al. 2000; Hakenbeck and Stock 1996). Other pleiotropic regulators can regulate antibiotic production in association with many small molecules called γ -butyrolactones (GBLs). This paper divides pleiotropic regulators into two subtypes. One type includes TCSs, orphan response regulation [e.g., *farR1* (Kitani et al. 2008)], orphan histidine kinase regulation [e.g., *ohkA* (Lu and Jiang 2013)] and other special TCSs [e.g., *abrC1/C2/C3* (Yepes et al. 2011)]. This subtype of pleiotropic regulatory genes is shown in Table 2a. The other includes the pleiotropic regulators closely associated with GBLs. To date, approximately 13 GBLs have been discovered, including A-factor from *S. griseus* (Ohnishi et al. 1999), IM-2 from *S. lavendulae* (Sato et al. 1989), SCB1, SCB2 and SCB3 (Hsiao et al. 2009; Takano et al. 2005), VBs from *S. virginiae* (Yamada et al. 1987) and factor 1 from *S. viridochromogenes* (Sato et al. 1989). Moreover, a few pleiotropic regulators contain a TPR structural domain [such as *nsdA* (Yu et al. 2006)], a protein repeat sequence consisting of 34 amino acids, which encodes an HTH secondary structural fragment. This type of pleiotropic genes is shown in Table 2b.

For TCSs, there are two types of kinase super-families in *Streptomyces* that regulate secondary metabolites. One is the histidine kinase family. This family consists of two proteins, a phosphate donor—HK (histidine kinase) and a phosphate receptor—RR. Most of the HKs that belong to membrane-spanning proteins have three functional structural domains: a sensing domain, a transmitter domain and an ATPase domain. RRs contain two domains: a receiver domain and an effector domain. A HK activates itself by

first phosphorylating its conserved histidine residues and then transferring the phosphate groups to the conserved asparagine acid residues of the RR. The phosphorylated RR then regulates the expression of other genes (Lu and Jiang 2013). This signal transduction process is shown in Fig. 3. Genes belonging to this family include *afsQ1/afsQ2* (Ishizuka et al. 1992), *cutR/cutS* (Tanaka et al. 2007) and *ecrA1/ecrA2* (Huang et al. 2001). The other type is the serine/threonine and tyrosine kinase family, whose members transmit signals to regulate secondary metabolism via a series of cascade reactions, such as phosphorylation or dephosphorylation of proteins triggered by external environmental changes. AfsR/AfsS (Tanaka et al. 2007) belongs to the serine/threonine and tyrosine kinase family. The genomic sequence analysis of *S. coelicolor* which is a model strain was performed in 2002. Bioinformatic analysis revealed that *S. coelicolor* contains many TCSs, encompassing 84 HKs and 80 RRs. Of these, 67 HKs have been matched with 67 RRs and are adjacent to genes encoding RRs, while the remaining TCSs are orphan HKs and orphan RRs (Hutchings et al. 2004).

nsdA and *nsdB*

The pleiotropic negative regulatory gene *nsdA* can be found in many *Streptomyces* spp. The *nsdA* genes from various *Streptomyces* spp. share 77–100% similarity with each other, and *nsdA* homologous genes are also present in many *Streptomyces* strains (Yu et al. 2006). NsdA, which contains a TPR structural domain, plays a negative role in sporulation, morphological differentiation and antibiotic synthesis. The overproduction of actinorhodin (ACT), calcium-dependent antibiotic (CDA) and methylenomycin was detected in a *nsdA* mutant, and the deletion of the *nsdA* in *Streptomyces lividans* also resulted in the expression of silent ACT biosynthetic genes. These results indicated that NsdA may silence the ACT biosynthetic gene cluster by repressing the expression of CSRs (Yu et al. 2006). There is also a TPR-like structural domain in the *nsdB* gene product whose disruption gives rise to ACT production, but NsdB does not affect morphological differentiation. The deletion of *nsdB*, which is a negative regulator of CDA, resulted in an increase in CDA production. *nsdB* has been shown to control antibiotic biosynthesis along with *nsdA* but has no influence on the expression of *nsdA* at the RNA level (Yu et al. 2006).

afsR2 and *afsB*

The protein encoded by *afsR2* is 63 amino acids long (Lee et al. 2000), and AfsR2 is a positive regulator of ACT and undecylprodigiosin (RED). Lee et al. (2000) cloned a regulatory gene from *S. avermitilis* that was homologous to

Table 2 Regulatory genes involved in pleiotropic regulation

Regulatory gene(s)	Gene(s) from	Product(s) of regulation	Function	Notes	References
a)					
<i>afsQ1/afsQ2</i>	<i>S. lividans</i>	ACT	+		Ishizuka et al. (1992)
<i>afsK/afsR</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i> and <i>S. griseus</i>	ACT	+	AfsR is the transcriptional activator of <i>afsS</i> , which can activate <i>actII-ORF4</i>	Atsushi et al. (1994)
<i>afsR-p/afsS</i>	<i>S. peucetius</i>	Adriamycin	+		Parajuli et al. (2005)
<i>cutR/cutS</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i> and <i>S. lividans</i>	ACT	–		Chang et al. (1996)
<i>ecrA1/ecrA2</i> and <i>ecrE2/ecrE1</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	RED	+	Coordinates with the expression of <i>redD</i>	Huang et al. (2001)
<i>orfX/orf41</i>	<i>S. avermitilis</i>	Avermectin	+	<i>orfX</i> exerts regulation by itself or by the collaboration of <i>orf41</i> with <i>orfX</i>	Hwang et al. (2003)
<i>phoR/phoP</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i> and <i>S. lividans</i>	ACT and RED	–	PhoP belongs to the Ormp family	Sola-Landa et al. (2003)
<i>valP/valQ</i>	<i>S. hygrosopicus</i> 5008	Validamycin			Bai et al. (2006)
<i>absA1/absA2</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	CDA, yCPK and albaflavenone	–		Sheeler et al. (2005)
<i>rapR/rapS</i>	<i>S. hygrosopicus</i>	Rapamycin	–	RapS represses the expression of <i>rapY</i>	Yoo et al. (2015)
<i>rapA1/rapA2</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT and yCPK	+	The regulation of RapA1/A2 depends on ActII-ORF4 and KasO	Lu et al. (2007)
<i>draK/R</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT, yCPK and RED	ACT: + RED and yCPK: –	DraR binds to the promoter regions of <i>actII-ORF4</i> and <i>cpkO</i>	Rodríguez et al. (2013)
<i>abrA1/A2</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT, CDA and RED	–		Yepes et al. (2011)
<i>SCO0203/0204</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT	–		Wang et al. (2009b)
<i>ohkA</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT, CDA and RED	–	No identified RR matches OhkA	Lu et al. (2011)
<i>aurIP</i>	<i>S. aureofaciens</i>	Auricin	+	<i>aurIP</i> encodes a protein similar to the RRs	Novakova et al. (2005)
<i>farR1</i>	<i>S. lavendulae</i> FRI-5	Nucleoside antibiotics and indigoidine		FarR1 is an orphan RR	Kitani et al. (2008)
<i>glnR</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	RED and ACT	+	GlnR belongs to the OmpR family and indirectly regulates the production of antibiotics in response to changes in nitrogen availability	Pullan et al. (2011)
<i>SCO3818</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT	–	<i>SCO0203</i> can phosphorylate <i>SCO0204</i> and <i>SCO3818</i> , and there is a functional correlation between <i>SCO0203</i> and <i>SCO3818</i>	Wang et al. (2009b)
<i>jadR1/jadR2</i>	<i>S. venezuelae</i>	Jadomycin B	<i>jadR1</i> : + <i>jadR2</i> : –	The <i>jadR1</i> and <i>jadR2</i> genes represent a novel TCS linking antibiotic synthesis to stress; <i>jadR1</i> encodes a RR; <i>jadR2</i> encodes a TetR-like protein, and <i>JadR2</i> is a pseudo γ -butyrolactone receptor	Yang et al. (2001)
<i>abrC1/C2/C3</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT, CDA and RED	+	AbrC1 and AbrC2 are HKs, and AbrC3 is a RR	Yepes et al. (2011)

Table 2 continued

Regulatory gene(s)	Gene(s) from	Product(s) of regulation	Function	Notes	References
b)					
<i>nsdA</i> and <i>nsdB</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT and CDA	–	Each encodes a protein containing a TPR structure	Yu et al. (2006)
<i>trcA</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	All secondary metabolites	–		Liu and Yang (2006)
<i>afsR2</i>	<i>S. lividans</i> and <i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT and RED	+		Lee et al. (2000)
<i>afsB</i>	<i>S. lividans</i> and <i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT, methylenomycin, CDA and RED	+		Horinouchi et al. (1989)
<i>barX</i>	<i>S. virginiae</i>	Virginiamycin		BarX is an AfsA-like protein	Bate et al. (1999) and Pulsawat et al. (2007)
<i>farA</i>	<i>S. lavendulae</i>	Nucleoside antibiotics	–	IM-2 binds to the FarA receptor to regulate the signal transduction of secondary metabolism	Kitani et al. (2001)
<i>arpA</i>	<i>S. griseus</i>	Streptomycin	–	ArpA is an A-factor receptor protein	Hong et al. (2007) and Kato et al. (2004)
<i>adpA</i>	<i>S. griseus</i>	Streptomycin	+	Encodes an Arac/XylS family protein and has two HTH motifs at the C-terminal	Higo et al. (2012), Ohnishi et al. (1999, 2005) and Zhu et al. (2005)
<i>bldD</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT, indigoidine, CDA and methylenomycin	+	BldD has a C-terminal domain of unknown function and an N-terminal domain that mediates DNA binding and dimerization	Den Hengst et al. (2010)
<i>bldA</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT	+	BldA regulates the production of antibiotics by controlling the activator ActII-ORF4	Fernández-Moreno et al. (1991)
<i>crp</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT, RED and CDA	+	Crp is a member of the cAMP receptor protein/fumarate-nitrate-reductase family of regulators	Gao et al. (2012)
<i>wblA</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT, RED and CDA	–	WblA is a protein of the WhiB family	Kang et al. (2007)
<i>atrA</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT	+	AtrA is a TetR-like protein, AtrA positively controls the transcription of <i>actII-ORF4</i>	Li et al. (2015b)
<i>rrdA</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	RED and ACT	RED: – ACT: +	RrdA belongs to the TetR family, and RrdA negatively regulates RED by controlling the abundance of RedD mRNA	Ou et al. (2009)
<i>avaR3</i>	<i>S. avermitilis</i>	Avermectin and filipin	Avermectin: +; filipin: –	AvaR3 is a γ -butyrolactone autoregulator receptor homologue	Miyamoto et al. (2011)
<i>cprA</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT and RED	+	Encodes an AprA analogue	Onaka et al. (1998)
<i>cprB</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT	–	CprB shows high sequence similarity to CprA	Onaka et al. (1998)

+ Represents positive regulation, – represents negative regulation

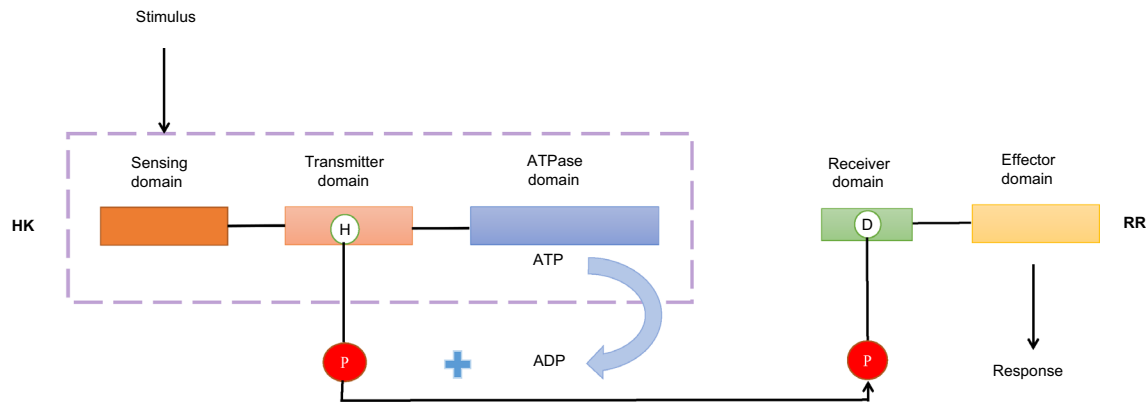


Fig. 3 The process of signal transduction in TCSs

afsR2 from *S. lividans* and *S. coelicolor*. The integration of multiple copies of *afsR2* into the wild-type strain resulted in approximately twofold overproduction of avermectin. ACT and RED can be regulated by pleiotropic regulatory genes in addition to synthetic gene clusters. *afsB* encodes a DNA-binding protein and is a pleiotropic regulator that is essential for ACT biosynthesis. An increase in copies of *afsB* significantly improved the production of ACT and RED. The introduction of *afsB* into *S. lividans* triggered the transcription of ACT biosynthetic genes that were otherwise silent (Horinouchi et al. 1989). *afsB* provides positive regulation by stimulating its target genes and can trigger RED biosynthesis in *S. lividans*.

cprA and *cprB*

In *S. coelicolor*, the gene products of *cprA* and *cprB* are highly similar to each other. Onaka et al. (1998) found that the deletion of *cprA* led to a sharp reduction of ACT and RED. The introduction of *cprA* into the parental strain resulted in increased antibiotic production. Those results demonstrated that *cprA* positively regulated the biosynthesis of ACT and RED (Onaka et al. 1998). The disruption of *cprB* led to a precocious overproduction of ACT, but no change was detected in the production of RED. These results revealed that *cprB* only negatively regulated the biosynthesis of ACT (Onaka et al. 1998). Another study showed that *cprA* and *cprB* activated antibiotic biosynthesis in *S. coelicolor* via the GBL quorum-sensing pathway (Bhukya et al. 2014).

adpA and *arpA*

adpA, which is a pleiotropic regulator, encodes a 405-amino-acid protein containing a HTH DNA-binding motif in its central region. AdpA showed high sequence similarity to the transcriptional regulators of the AraC/XylS family (Gallegos et al. 1997). To determine the

function of *adpA* in *S. griseus*, a disruption strain was generated using in-frame deletion. No streptomycin was detected in the disrupted strain, but streptomycin production was recovered when *adpA* was introduced, showing that *adpA* exerted a positive effect on streptomycin biosynthesis (Higo et al. 2012; Ohnishi et al. 1999). ArpA contains a region resembling the HTH motif that is present in many transcriptional families. ArpA is an A-factor receptor protein that negatively controls the production of streptomycin in *S. griseus*. ArpA behaved as a repressor-type regulator for streptomycin production (Onaka et al. 1995). *adpA*, *arpA* and A-factor form a widespread regulatory cascade in *Streptomyces*, termed the A-factor-*adpA*-*arpA* regulatory cascade. There is a model for the A-factor regulatory cascade that leads to streptomycin biosynthesis (Ohnishi et al. 1999): A-factor gradually accumulates, and when the concentration of A-factor reaches a certain point, it binds ArpA and causes ArpA to dissociate from the promoter, thus leading to the transcription and translation of *adpA*. AdpA then activates the transcription of *strR*. Therefore, the induction of StrR positively regulates the transcription of most of the streptomycin biosynthetic genes (Retzlaff and Distler 1995).

afsQ1/afsQ2 and *cutR/cutS*

afsQ1/afsQ2 is representative of the TCSs, with *afsQ1* encoding an aspartic acid RR and AfsQ2 belonging to the sensing kinases. AfsQ2, located in the membrane, is autophosphorylated at His-294 upon sensing an environmental signal, and the signal is then transferred to the Asp-52 residue of the AfsQ1 protein in the cytoplasm (Ishizuka et al. 1992). *afsQ1/afsQ2* plays a pleiotropic role in the secondary metabolism of antibiotics. *cutR/cutS* is the second TCS found in *Streptomyces* that represses secondary metabolism, and *cutR/cutS* also negatively regulates antibiotic production. The time taken to produce ACT is 20 h shorter in the *cutR/cutS* mutant than in the parental

strain. The inactivation of *cutR/cutS* triggers an increase in ACT production, and the introduction of *cutR* reverses this change (Chang et al. 1996).

afsR-p/afsS

Parajuli et al. (2005) isolated the *afsR-p* gene from *S. peucetius* ATCC 27952, and it had greater than 50% sequence similarity to *afsR* from *S. coelicolor*. The overproduction of doxorubicin, γ -actinorhodin, clavulanic acid and streptomycin (slight), respectively, was detected in strains of *S. peucetius*, *S. lividans*, *S. clavuligerus* and *S. griseus* strains that carried the *afsR-p* gene (Parajuli et al. 2005). This demonstrated that AfsR-p may activate various CSRs in antibiotic biosynthetic gene clusters in different ways, leading to the speculation that phosphorylated AfsR-p binds to the promoter region of *afsS* and that the latter then triggers other regulators to induce the production of certain secondary metabolites (Parajuli et al. 2005).

orfX/orf41 and *phoR/phoP*

Disruption of the *orfX* gene resulted in a significant but incomplete loss of the production of avermectin in *S. avermitilis* (Hwang et al. 2003). The increase in avermectin may result from the role of *orfX* itself or from the collaboration of *orf41* with *orfX*. Recently, a new TCS, *phoR-phoP*, was found in *S. lividans* and *S. coelicolor*, and PhoP was indeed a member of the OmpR family. The PhoR-PhoP system may activate the formation of ACT and RED via a specific repressor protein with phosphate-controlled promoters, acting via a cascade mechanism (Sola-Landa et al. 2003).

valP/valQ and *rapR/rapS*

valP and *valQ*, which can regulate validamycin in *S. hygrosopicus* 5008, may encode a TCS regulatory protein consisting of a HK and a Sigma B PP2C-like phosphatase (Bai et al. 2006). RapR and RapS in *Streptomyces rapamycinicus* ATCC 29253 share high sequence identities with the RRs and HKs, respectively, of TCSs. Gene expression analysis demonstrated that most of the rapamycin biosynthetic genes were negatively controlled by *rapS* (probably in collaboration with *rapR*) and *rapY* (a CSR for the biosynthesis of rapamycin) (Yoo et al. 2015). In addition, RapS represses the expression of *rapY* gene and RapR/S is a repressor of rapamycin biosynthesis.

rapA1/A2, *abrA1/A2* and *abrC1/C2/C3*

The *rapA1* in *S. coelicolor* encodes a protein that belongs to the OmpR family, while the sequence of RapA2 shows

characteristics that are typical of HKs (Lu et al. 2007). Lu et al. (2007) found that RapA1/A2 is an activator of ACT and a yellow cryptic polyketide (yCPK). The effect exerted by *rapA1/A2* on the biosynthesis of these antibiotics may also depend on two CSRs, *actIII-ORF4* and *kasO*. The disruption of *rapA1/A2* and subsequent experiments with the disrupted strain indicated that *rapA1/A2* was a positive TCS regulator of ACT [which is encoded by a type II polyketide synthase (PKS)] and yCPK [which is encoded by a type I PKS in *S. coelicolor* (Lu et al. 2007)]. *abrA1/A2* is also a TCS regulator that negatively regulates ACT, RED and CDA in *S. coelicolor*. However, *abrC1/C2/C3* is composed of two HKs and one RR that positively regulate the abovementioned antibiotics. AbrC1 and AbrC2 are HKs, while AbrC3 is a RR (Yepes et al. 2011).

ohkA

OhkA was reported to be an orphan HK in *S. coelicolor* that repressed the biosynthesis of five known secondary metabolites: ACT, RED, CDA, yCPK and albaflavenone (Lu and Jiang 2013). The deletion of *ohkA* in *S. coelicolor* caused a drastic increase in the biosynthesis of antibiotics, especially of ACT and CDA (Räty et al. 2002). OhkA negatively regulates secondary metabolites by repressing CSRs in *S. coelicolor*.

Other regulatory genes

In addition to CSRs and pleiotropic regulators, there are many other regulatory genes that deserve attention. These include *barZ* in *Streptomyces virginiae*, which regulates virginiamycin (Pulsawat et al. 2007); *ppk* from *S. lividans* (Ghorbel et al. 2006); *hyg1* and *hyg3* (Palaniappan et al. 2006) from *S. hygrosopicus* NRRL 2388; and some regulatory genes whose functions remain unknown, such as *claR*, which is related to cephamycin C and clavulanic acid. Regulatory genes of this type are shown in Table 3.

Discussion

The regulation of secondary metabolite biosynthetic gene clusters in *Streptomyces* spp. is currently receiving substantial attention. Many transcription units are apparently regulated by several metabolite regulatory genes via transcriptional activation or repression, and biosynthetic gene clusters often collaborate with transcriptional regulators. Furthermore, it is reported that many *Streptomyces* strains can produce antibiotics. Analyses of the genomic sequences of many *Streptomyces* spp., such as *S. coelicolor* and *S. avermitilis*, have also been completed. These analyses provide a basis for post-genomic projects involving

Table 3 Other regulatory genes

Regulatory gene(s)	Gene(s) from	Product(s) of regulation	Function	Notes	References
<i>hyg1</i> and <i>hyg3</i>	<i>S. hygroscopicus</i>	Hygromycin A		Hyg1 and Hyg3 show sequence similarities to AfsR and StrR, respectively	Palaniappan et al. (2006)
<i>ppk</i>	<i>S. lincolnensis</i>	ACT	–	Positively controlled by <i>phoR/phoP</i>	Ghorbel et al. (2006)
<i>barZ</i>	<i>S. virginiae</i>	Virginiamycin			Bate et al. (1999) and Pulsawat et al. (2007)
<i>farR2</i>	<i>S. lavendulae</i> FRI-5	Nucleoside antibiotics and indigoidine		FarR2 is a GBL receptor	Kitani et al. (2008)
<i>claR</i>	<i>S. clavuligerus</i>	Cephamicin C and clavulanic acid	Cephamicin C: – Clavulanic acid: +	ClaR contains two HTH motifs and is homologous with the LysR family	Pérez-Redondo et al. (1998)
<i>stgR</i>	<i>S. coelicolor</i>	ACT and RED	–	StgR belongs to the LysR family of transcriptional regulators and regulates antibiotics by indirectly repressing <i>redD</i> and <i>actII-ORF4</i>	Mao et al. (2013)
<i>lndYR</i>	<i>S. globisporus</i>	Landomycin	+	Encodes a GntR-like regulator of the YtrA subfamily	Ostash et al. (2011)

+ Represents positive regulation, – represents negative regulation

Streptomyces and will effectively promote studies of the structure, function and expression regulation of biosynthetic genes. In addition, many regulatory genes can also be expressed in other strains and can influence antibiotic production by heterologous expression combined with other methods. For example, the integration of *aveR*, *orfX*, or *afsR* in the chromosomes of *S. hygroscopicus* promoted rapamycin production by approximately 3.8-fold, 1.2-fold or slightly, respectively (Huang et al. 2011). Currently, we can effectively influence antibiotic production by manipulating regulatory genes involved in pathway-specific regulation or pleiotropic regulation in *Streptomyces*. For example, as introduced in this paper, the *aveR* mutants in *S. avermitilis* lost the ability to synthesize avermectin, whereas the overexpression of this gene increased the yield (Ikeda et al. 2003). The overproduction of ACT, CDA and methylenomycin was detected in the *nsdA* mutant of *S. coelicolor* (Yu et al. 2006). Hence, studying the regulatory mechanisms of secondary metabolite biosynthesis, inactivating the transcriptional repressors and overexpressing the transcriptional activators in natural producing strains may allow the optimization of antibiotic production. Further, it will provide a crucial theoretical basis for improving antibiotic production and using regulators to activate silent gene clusters, thereby leading to the discovery of new drugs.

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Compliance with ethical standards

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Conflict of interest All of the authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

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