

TOWARDS MOLECULAR BIOLOGICAL CHARACTERISATION OF THE GENES FOR STEROL AND
BILE ACID METABOLISM IN NOCARDIOFORM BACTERIA

KATRINA JO DOWNING

A DISSERTATION TO THE FACULTY OF SCIENCE, UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND,
JOHANNESBURG IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF SCIENCE IN BIOTECHNOLOGY

JOHANNESBURG 1989

ABSTRACT

The steroids are a diversified class of oxygenated tetracyclic isoprenoid derivatives characterized by a cyclopentanoperhydrophenanthrene ring system. Two important groups of steroids are the sterols, of which cholesterol is the most important, and bile acids, which are converted from cholesterol.

Commercial biotechnology operations dealing with steroids, centre around the use of microorganisms for transformations of steroid substrates into useful intermediates and final products. One group of bacteria capable of the before mentioned are the nocardiform bacteria. Cloning the genes of these organisms for the interconversion of steroids and bile acids to pharmacologically important intermediates by complementation of the appropriate mutation was the main interest of this work. Mutagenesis using U.V.; NTG and EMS as mutagens, and the modified penicillin selection technique, resulted in several mutants, notably KD 1, which had lost its ability to utilize several carbon sources. The identification and determination of the suitability of these carbon sources was performed. Conditions of transformation of this mutant were optimized.

The availability of a suitable vector led to the partial construction of a library of nocardioform chromosomal DNA in *E.coli* to clone the gene/genes of interest.

DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation is my own, unaided work.

It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Science in Biotechnology
in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

It has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other
University.

Katrina Jo Downing

K Downing

28th day of February, 1989

TO MY FAMILY AND RODERICK WESTWOOD

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the following people, without whom this dissertation would not have been possible:

I am indebted to Dr Eric Dabbs, Department of Genetics, University of the Witwatersrand, for his assistance, guidance and supervision of this project.

Professor N. van Schaik, Department of Genetics, University of the Witwatersrand, for allowing the experimental work done in this project to be carried out in the department and for permitting the results obtained to be included in this project.

My family, Roderick Westwood and Sue Blackburn for their valuable assistance, constant support and encouragement.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION	1
2.1 MATERIALS	15
2.1.1 ORGANISMS	15
2.1.1.1 NOCARDIOFORM BACTERIA	15
2.1.1.2 <u>Escherichia coli</u>	15
2.1.1.3 PLASMIDS	16
2.1.1.4 VECTORS	16
2.1.1.5 PHAGES	17
2.1.2 MEDIA.	18
2.1.2.1 A - N STOCK.	18
2.1.2.2 MINIMAL MEDIA A (MM) (Hopwood, <u>et al</u> 1985)	19
2.1.2.3 TY	20
2.1.2.4 TY AND AGAR (TYA).	20
2.1.2.5 T2 (Dabbs personal communication).	20
2.1.2.6 TYG	21
2.1.2.7 TYMC	21
2.1.2.8 TYM	21
2.1.2.9 TYC	22
2.1.2.10 LURIA BROTH (LB)	22
2.1.2.11 LURIA AGAR (LA)	22
2.1.2.12 REGENERATION MEDIA	23
2.1.3 ADDITIONAL GROWTH REQUIREMENTS FOR NOCARDIOFORM BACTERIA	23
2.1.3.1 GLUTAMATE	23

2.1.3.2 VITAMIN B1	24
2.1.4 BUFFERS	24
2.1.4.1 BUFFERS FOR MUTAGENESIS	24
2.1.4.2 TRIS EDTA BUFFER (TE) (Maniatis <u>et al</u> 1982)	25
2.1.4.3 TRIS EDTA BUFFER PLUS 10% SDS	25
2.1.4.4 TRIS HCl WITH 10% SUCROSE	25
2.1.4.5 DETERGENT SOLUTION FOR DNA PREPARATION	25
2.1.4.6 ELECTROPHORESIS BUFFER TRIS BORATE (TBA)	26
2.1.4.7 RUNNING BUFFER FOR ELECTROPHORESIS	26
2.1.4.8 GEL LOADING BUFFER (Maniatis <u>et al</u> 1982)	27
2.1.4.9 BUFFERS FOR <u>E.coli</u> PLASMID SCREEN (Maniatis <u>et al</u>)	27
2.1.4.10 TRIS CaCl ₂	28
2.1.4.11 LIGATION BUFFER	28
2.1.4.12 PROTOPLAST (P) BUFFER	29
2.1.4.13 TES (N-tris(hydroxymethyl)methyl-2amino ethanesulfonic)	29
2.1.5 ANTIBIOTICS	30
2.1.5.1 STREPTOMYCIN BOEHRINGER M.W. 1457.4	30
2.1.5.2 RIFAMPICIN BOEHRINGER	30
2.1.5.3 AMPICILLIN SODIUM SALT SIGMA	30
2.1.6 AGAROSE GELS	31
2.1.7 TOP AGAR	31
2.1.8 CARBON SOURCES	32
2.1.9 MUTAGENS	32
2.1.9.1 N-METHYL-N-NITRO-N-NITROSOGUANIDINE (NTG)	32
2.1.9.2 METHANESULFONIC ACID ETHYL ESTER (EMS) SIGMA	33
2.1.9.3 ACRIDINE ORANGE	33
2.1.9.4 ETHIDIUM BROMIDE	33

2.1.9.5	ULTRAVIOLET LIGHT	33
2.1.10	ARSENICAL SOLUTIONS	34
2.2	METHODS	35
2.2.1	CHOICE OF ORGANISMS	35
2.2.2	PREPARATION OF HIGH LEVEL RESISTANT STREPTOMYCIN MUTANTS	35
2.2.3	PREPARATION OF HIGH LEVEL RESISTANT RIFAMPICIN MUTANTS	36
2.2.4	CARBON SOURCES	36
2.2.4.1	METHODS USED TO SOLUBILIZE CHOLESTEROL	36
2.2.4.2	PREPARATION OF SODIUM BENZOATE AND HYDROXYBENZOATE	38
2.2.4.3	SODIUM TAUROCHOLATE	38
2.2.5	LIQUID CULTURES	38
2.2.6	PREPARATION OF MINIMAL MEDIA PLATES	39
2.2.7	ISOLATION OF PHAGE TO BE USED FOR TYPING	39
2.2.8	MUTAGENESIS	42
2.2.8.1	MUTAGENESIS USING NTG AND EMS AS MUTAGENS	42
2.2.8.2	ULTRAVIOLET LIGHT MUTAGENESIS	44
2.2.8.3	MUTAGENESIS USING ACRIDINE ORANGE AS A MUTAGEN	44
2.2.8.4	MUTAGENESIS USING ETHIDIUM BROMIDE AS A MUTAGEN	45
2.2.8.5	THE ENRICHMENT PROCEDURE FOR OBTAINING MUTANTS	45
2.2.9	EXTRACTION OF DNA	47
2.2.9.1	BULK <i>E.coli</i> PLASMID PREPARATION (Clewell and Helinski, 1969)	47
2.2.9.2	BULK NOCARDIOFORM CHROMOSOMAL DNA PREPARTION	49
2.2.9.3	CALCULATING THE DNA CONCENTRATION	50
2.2.9.4	PLASMID DNA ISOLATION OF <i>E.coli</i> (Maniatis <i>et.al</i> 1982)	51
2.2.9.5	NOCARDIOFORM PLASMID DNA ISOLATION	52

2.2.9.6	POURING AGAROSE GELS	53
2.2.9.7	LOADING GELS	53
2.2.9.8	ELECTROPHORESIS	54
2.2.9.9	DIGESTING DNA	54
2.2.9.10	PARTIAL DIGESTION OF O1 CHROMOSOMAL DNA WITH SAU 3A	55
2.2.9.11	PARTIAL DIGESTION OF O1 CHROMOSOMAL DNA WITH Bgl II	56
2.2.9.12	DIGESTION OF THE SHUTTLE VECTOR WITH Bgl II	57
2.2.10	LIGATION OF O1 CHROMOSOMAL DNA AND SHUTTLE VECTOR DNA	57
2.2.10.1	PREPARATION OF O1 CHROMOSOMAL DNA FOR LIGATION	57
2.2.10.2	PREPARATION OF THE SHUTTLE VECTOR DNA FOR LIGATION	58
2.2.10.3	LIGATIONS	59
2.2.11	CALCIUM CHLORIDE TRANSFORMATION (MANIATIS <u>et al</u> 1982)	61
2.2.12	POLYETHYLENGLYCOL TRANSFORMATION	62
2.2.12.1	OPTIMIZATION OF THE PEG TRANSFORMATION	63
3.0	RESULTS	64
3.1	CHOICE OF ORGANISMS	64
3.2	PREPARATION OF HIGH LEVEL RESISTANT STREPTOMYCIN AND RIFAMPICIN MUTANTS	66
3.3	CARBON SOURCES	66
3.3.1	AGAR AS A CARBON SOURCE	67
3.3.2	CITRATE AS A CARBON SOURCE	68
3.3.3	OPTIMAL CONCENTRATIONS OF TWEEN 80, ETHANOL AND DMSO TO BE USED AS SOLVENTS	70
3.3.4	UTILIZATION OF SOLVENTS AS SOLE CARBON SOURCES	71
3.3.5	SOLUBILIZING CHOLESTEROL WITH TWEEN 80	73
3.3.6	SOLUBILIZING CHOLESTEROL IN HOT ETHANOL	75

3.3.7 SOLUBILIZING CHOLESTEROL IN DMSO	75
3.3.8 SONICATION OF CHOLESTEROL	76
3.3.9 β -SITOSTEROL AND STIGMASTEROL AS ALTERNATIVE STEROLS	76
3.3.10 SODIUM TAUROCHOLATE AS AN ALTERNATIVE STEROID	78
3.3.11 ALTERNATIVE CARBON SOURCES, SODIUM BENZOATE AND HYDROXYBENZOATE	78
3.4 ISOLATION OF PHAGE TO BE USED FOR TYPING	81
3.5 MUTAGENESIS	84
3.5.1 OPTIMUM CONDITIONS FOR NTG MUTAGENESIS	84
3.6 MUTAGENS	85
3.6.1 N-METHYL-N'-NITRO-N-NITROSOGUANIDINE (NTG)	87
3.6.2 ETHYL METHANE SULPHONATE (EMS)	90
3.6.3 ULTRAVIOLET LIGHT (U.V.)	91
3.6.4 ACRIDINE ORANGE AND ETHIDIUM BROMIDE	92
3.7 THE ENRICHMENT PROCEDURE	92
3.8 MUTANTS OBTAINED	94
3.8.1 AUXOTROPHS	95
3.8.2 MUTANTS OBTAINED FROM THE ENRICHMENT PROCEDURE	97
3.8.3 MUTANTS RESULTING FROM MUTAGENESIS, EXCLUDING THE ENRICHMENT PROCEDURE	98
3.9 CONSTRUCTION OF AN <i>E. coli</i> LIBRARY CONTAINING ϕ 1 DNA	105
3.10 THE SHUTTLE VECTOR pDA27	107
3.11 ϕ 1 CHROMOSOMAL DNA	111
3.11.1 PARTIAL DIGESTION OF ϕ 1 CHROMOSOMAL DNA WITH Sau 3A	112
3.11.2 PARTIAL DIGESTION OF ϕ 1 CHROMOSOMAL DNA WITH Bgl II	114

3.12	CALCIUM CHLORIDE TRANSFORMATION	117
3.12.1	OPTIMIZATION OF TRANSFORMATION	117
3.12.2	DURATION OF 01 CHROMOSOMAL AND SHUTTLE VECTOR DNA IN LIGATION BUFFER	118
3.12.3	OPTIMUM AMOUNTS OF 01 CHROMOSOMAL DNA PER LIGATION	119
3.12.4	DETERMINATION OF HETEROGENEITY OF INSERTS OF 01 CHROMOSOMAL DNA IN THE <u>E.coli</u> LIBRARY	119
3.13	NOCARDIOFORM TRANSFORMATION	124
3.13.1	RESTRICTION MINUS MUTANTS	124
3.14	EXTRACTION OF pDA30 FROM KD 1 BACKGROUND	125
3.15	OPTIMIZING CONDITIONS FOR NOCARDIOFORM TRANSF- ORMATIONS.	128
3.15.1	ARSENIC CONCENTRATIONS FOR SELECTION OF TRANSFORMANTS	128
3.15.2	GROWTH PHASE.	129
3.15.3	LENGTH OF INCUBATION BEFORE ARSENIC CHALLENGE.	132
3.15.4	LENGTH OF LYSOZYME INCUBATION.	132
3.15.5	CONCENTRATION OF POLYETHYLENE GLYCOL (PEG).	133
3.15.6	THE AMOUNT OF CELLS.	133
3.15.7	THE CONCENTRATION OF DNA.	133
3.16	SUMMARY OF RESULTS.	136
4.0	DISCUSSION	138
4.1	PHAGE TYPING	138
4.1.1	NUTRITION AND GROWTH OF NOCARDIOFORM BACTERIA	139
4.2	CARBON SOURCES	141
4.2.1	AGAR	142
4.2.2	CITRATE	142

4.2.3	TWEEN	143
4.2.4	ETHANOL	144
4.2.5	DMSO	145
4.2.6	SONICATION OF STEROLS	145
4.2.7	SODIUM BENZOATE AND HYDROXYBENZOATE	146
4.3	PRODUCTION OF MUTANTS	146
4.4	ACTION OF MUTAGENS	147
4.5	MICROBIAL TRANSFORMATION OF STEROLS AND BILE ACIDS	148
4.6	OPTIMIZATION OF POLYETHYLENEGLYCOL TRANSFORMATION	150
4.7	CONSTRUCTION OF THE <u>E.coli</u> LIBRARY	151
5.0	CONCLUSION	152
	REFERENCES	153

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure 1. The steroid ring system. Smith 1984	1
Figure 2. Structures of some sterols	3
Figure 3. Graphical representation of the altered response of mutants KD 1 and 7 to sodium taurocholate	102
Figure 4. Graphical representation of the optimum concentration of sodium taurocholate for mutants KD 1 and 7	104
Figure 5. Diagram of the shuttle vector, orientation A constructed by A.Daffey.	108
Figure 6. Plasmid screen of transformants resulting from ligation of nocardioform DNA and the shuttle vector	110
Figure 7. A 0.4% agarose gel illustrating the digestion of 01 chromosomal DNA	113
Figure 8. A 0.4% agarose gel illustrating digestion of 01 chromo- somal DNA	116
Figure 9. Plasmid screen of 6	120
Figure 10. Plasmid screen of 6 Bgl II digested transformants showing heterogeneity in the size of the inserts. (0.4% agarose gel)	122
Figure 11. Plasmid screen of 6 additional Bgl II transformants showing heterogeneity in the size of inserts. (0.4% agarose gel).	123
Figure 12. Plasmid screen of 3 of the 9 nocardioform transformants of pDA30 in KD 1. Lane 1 is a control with no plasmid.	127

Figure 13. Graphical representation of the growth phase of KD 1 vs
time and the number of transformants vs time. . . . 131

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1 : Preparation of ligation mixtures of 01 chromosomal DNA and pDA 27 DNA.

TABLE 2 : Determination of growth and growth requirements of *Rhodococcus* species on minimal media.

TABLE 3 : Investigation of the utilization of citrate as sole carbon source by 14887-1 in liquid minimal media.

TABLE 4 : Optimal concentrations of the solvents Tween 80, Ethanol and DMSO for 14887 and 4277.

TABLE 5 : Utilization of Tween 80, ethanol and DMSO by 14887-1 in liquid minimal media at 26°C.

TABLE 6 : Combinations of cholesterol and Tween 80.

TABLE 7 : Utilization of sterols by 14887-1 in liquid minimal media.

TABLE 8 : Utilization of sodium benzoate and hydroxybenzoate as carbon sources for 14887-1.

TABLE 9 : Comparison of the utilization of the carbon sources tested by 14887-1 liquid cultures and plates.

TABLE 10 : Lysis of organisms by phages isolated from soil.

TABLE 11 : Determining the divalent ion requirement of the five phages specific for 14887-1.

TABLE 12 : Optimum conditions for NTG mutagenesis.

TABLE 13 : Comparison of the different mutagens based on the number of auxotrophs produced.

TABLE 14 : Optimum time of exposure of 14887-1 to NTG.

TABLE 15 : Comparison between NTG mutagenesis of an exponentially growing culture and a stationary phase culture of 14887-1.

TABLE 16 : Effect of varying concentration of EMS and exposure time on exponentially growing cultures of 14887-1.

TABLE 17 : Comparison of NTG mutagenesis + enrichment with NTG mutagenesis alone.

TABLE 18 : Requirements of 15 of the 38 auxotrophs.

TABLE 19 : Mutants of 14887-1 with reduced ability to utilize sterols, sodium taurocholate and other carbon sources.

TABLE 20 : Utilization of sodium taurocholate by nocardioform bacteria.

TABLE 21 : Recognition sequences of Bam H1, Bcl I and Bgl II and Sau 3A.

TABLE 22 : Duration of DNA in ligation buffer with and without ligase at 14°C.

TABLE 23 : Nocardioform transformation of KD1.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The steroids belong to a class of lipid compounds called terpenoids (and other names such as terpenes, polyisoprenoids or isopentenoids). They are a diversified class believed to be derived from isoprene, C_5H_8 , and are characterized by the cyclopentanoperhydrophenanthrene ring system of Figure 1.

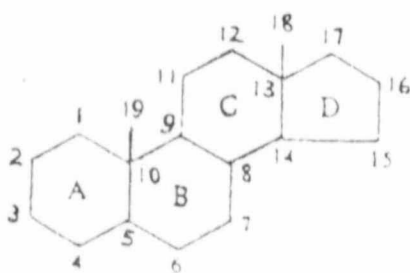


Figure 1. The steroid ring system. Smith 1984

The sterols, a subgroup of steroids, are a class of crystalline alcohols containing between 27 and 30 carbon atoms. They all possess a 3β -hydroxy group and an endocyclic double bond, usually in the 5,6 position, together

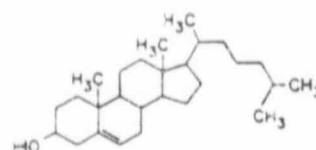
with a side chain which exhibits various degrees of branching and unsaturation. (Templeton 1969).

The sterols are widely distributed in nature and are present in practically all living organisms including bacteria. Cholesterol is the most important and widespread of the sterols. It is the precursor of the bile acids and the sex and adrenocortical hormones. The most abundant plant sterol is stigmasterol, first isolated from the Calabar bean but more plentifully available from soybean oil. Sitosterol is also a sterol. (Templeton 1969). Other sterols include campesterol and ergosterol.

See Figure 2 for structures of some sterols.

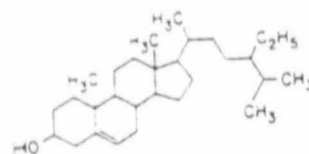
Cholesterol

$C_{27}H_{46}O$
 $M = 386.67 \text{ g/mol}$
[CARN 57-88-5]



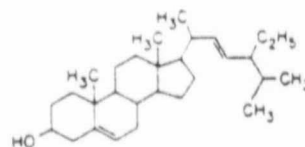
β -Sitosterol

$C_{28}H_{48}O$
 $M = 414.72 \text{ g/mol}$
[CARN 83-46-5]



Stigmasterol

$C_{28}H_{48}O$
 $M = 412.70 \text{ g/mol}$
[CARN 83-48-7]



Sodium Taurocholate

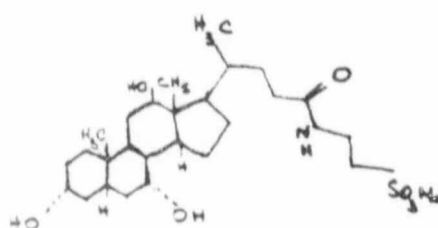


Figure 2. Structures of some sterols

Bile acids are C-24 to C-28 carboxylic acids with a steroid nucleus containing hydroxylic substituents and part or all of the side chain of 5β -cholestane. (Whiting 1986). Bile acids contain hydroxyl groups, which are substituted at position C-3, C-7, C-12 of the steroid nucleus. The three major bile acids are cholic acid, chenodeoxycholic acid and deoxycholic acid. Usually bile acids are enzymatically conjugated with either of the amino acids glycine or taurine in human bile. There are thus six major bile acids in man, namely the glycine and taurine conjugates of cholic acid, chenodeoxycholic acid and deoxycholic acid. The bile acid sodium taurocholate was used in the work for this thesis.

Steroids are vital in many ways to life of eukaryotic organisms. The sterols are precursors of other steroids and are essential for membrane stability and cell growth. The bile salts are essential for lipid digestion and absorption. Additionally there are two classes of hormones that are steroidal in nature, namely the sex hormones and the adrenocortical hormones. It is the pharmacological interest in these hormones which prevails in current applications of biotechnology to the steroids. (Smith 1984).

The sex hormones fall into three chemically and physiologically distinct classes. The estrogens and progestogens regulate various functions of the female reproductive system and the androgens are male hormones.

The adrenocortical hormones are produced by the cortex of the adrenal gland. They are vital in the metabolism of water, proteins and carbohydrates. There are seven corticoid hormones of which cortisone has important medicinal applications.

Microbial transformation of specific steroid substrates is the centre of commercial biotechnology operations dealing with steroids and has resulted in major contributions to technology, medicine and science. There are currently two major biotechnological applications dealing with the steroids. These applications involve the use of microorganisms for processing raw materials into useful intermediates for general steroid production and that of specific transformations of steroid intermediates to finished products. (Smith 1984).

The first successful application of biotechnology to the preparation of useful steroids had to do with the synthesis of the adrenocortical hormones and their more powerful and therapeutically selective synthetic analogs. (Charney and Herzog 1967). Cortisone has a powerful antiinflammatory activity which was discovered in 1949. Synthesis of cortisone did not include microorganisms initially. However, Murray, Peterson, Perlman and Fried laid the basis for the application of microbiology to the synthesis of antiinflammatory steroids. (Charney and Herzog 1967).

The world market for finished steroids appears to be increasing both in amount of production and in monetary value. Sales of antiinflammatory steroids in the USA of \$120 million in 1959 increased to \$215 million by 1968. Markets for other steroids including male and female sex hormones, anabolic agents, anesthetics, antialdosterone agents, anticancer agents and antiandrogenic agents also continue to grow. (Smith 1984). Three general processes are used to produce finished steroid products.

1. Direct isolation from natural sources such as the recovery of conjugated estrogens from horse urine and of cardiotonic steroids from the plants *Digitalis*.

2. Partial synthesis from steroid raw materials of animal and plant origins. The partial synthesis of steroid hormones and their analogs is the most important process with respect to microbial biotechnology.

3. Total synthesis from non steroidal materials.

All three of these processes are commercially operated but it is only the second two that use microbial transformations. (Kieslich 1980, Smith 1984)

There is a diversity of enzymic reactions accomplished by microorganisms on steroids.

The most important category of microbiological transformations is oxidation. There are four oxidation reactions of commercial importance, hydroxylation, alcohol oxidation, 1 - dehydrogenation and carbon - carbon bond scission.

Microbial hydroxylations at almost every possible position in the steroid nucleus are known including 10 β - hydroxylation of 19 - norsteroids and 14 β - hydroxylation of synthetic 14 β - steroids. (Smith 1984). There are three microbial hydroxylations of commercial importance, 11 α - , 11 β - and 16 α - hydroxylations.

Microbial scissions of carbon - carbon bonds are very important, as cleavage of sterol side chains to useful C₁₉ intermediates and of progesterone side chain to testololactone derivatives are commercial processes.

Microbial reductions of ketones are also of commercial interest whereas other reactions such as isomerizations and conjugations are of little commercial importance.

Cholesterol and deoxycholic acid from slaughter house animals were used originally as starting material for microbial transformations. For reasons of cost additional raw materials are used. These include Solasodine and Tomatidine derived from *Solanum* species, Smilagenin from *Agave* species and Hecogenin from sisal plants. The phytosterols diosgenin from Mexican and other *Dioscorea* plants and stigmasterol from soybeans give useful C_{21} intermediates from the finished C_{18} - C_{19} - and C_{21} - steroids are manufactured today.

Cholesterol, from wool grease and soybean sitosterol are used for microbial degradations of the sterol side chains yielding useful C_{19} steroid intermediates. Microbial degradations of sitosterol and of cholesterol yield C_{19} steroids used for production of other C_{19} steroid sex hormones and anabolic agents. (Kieslich 1980, Smith 1984).

It has been known since 1913, that numerous microorganisms can utilize sterols such as cholesterol and β -sitosterol as sole source of carbon. However, they have a serious drawback as they do not only degrade the side chain, by the mechanism of β oxidation, but also cleave the steroid skeleton by 9 α hydroxylation, which is undesirable and of no commercial value. (Kieslich 1980). In 1965, Sih and workers elucidated the degradation method and described a method for avoiding the undesirable reactions described above. A suitable cholesterol-like substrate such as 19-hydroxy-cholesterol was used as a substrate and the side chain was degraded to a 17 ketosteroid to yield estrone. (Charney and Herzog 1967, Kieslich 1980).

Three different methods have been developed to selectively cleave the side chain of sterols by microorganisms. These processes are based on the

Inhibition of the key enzymes C-1(2)-dehydrogenase and 9 α hydroxylase involved in steroid ring degradation.

The methods employed to inhibit one or more of these enzymes are the following:

1. Structural modification of the substrate as described by Sih and workers (cited in Charney and Herzog 1967) preventing enzymic attack on the ring system. Some sterols with chemically modified structures are 19-hydroxysterols, 19 - norsterols and 4,hydroxycholestenone.

2. The use of chemical enzyme inhibitors.

Numerous processes for the selective side chain cleavage of sterols employing enzyme inhibitors have been developed. Chemicals used as enzyme inhibitors included lipophilic chelating agents such as $\alpha\alpha'$ Dipyridyl (Nakamatsu *et al* 1980), autoxidizable redox dyes, inorganic SH reagents and metal ions.

3. Mutation of the microorganisms

Microorganisms have been produced by mutagenesis that are capable of selectively degrading the sterol side chain. These mutants are biochemically blocked from degrading the nucleus and can be used to efficiently produce steroids from sterols without the necessity of modifying the substrate or of adding chemical inhibitors. These mutants have been found to have potential industrial use, efficiently converting sterols to products some of which are useful as intermediates in the manufacture of medically important steroids. Several researchers have reported the degradation of sterols by mutants to industrially important intermediates. Wovcha *et al* 1978, Hill *et al* 1982, Nakamatsu *et al* 1983, and Ferreira *et al* 1984 are just a few of the researchers using this process of selective side chain degradation.

The sterols play a vital role in oral contraceptives of which two are generally available namely the combined pill and the gestagen pill. These products consist of an estrogen and/or a gestagen which is a synthetic substance having biological effects resembling progesterone. Two forms of gestagens are available: those derived from testosterone by replacing the methyl group of the carbon 19 atom with a hydrogen atom (19-nortestosterone) and those derived from 17 - acetoxy progesterone. The 19-nortestosterones in use today are norethisterone, lynestrenol, ethynodiol diacetate and d-norgestrel. Only one 17-acetoxyprogesterone is currently available for contraception and this is medroxy-progesterone acetate. (Llewellyn - Jones 1978)

Cholesterol decomposing microorganisms are distributed in a wide range of genera of actinomycetes, other bacteria, molds and yeasts. Some of the genera include *Pseudomonas*, *Corynebacteria*, *Arthrobacter*, *Streptomyces*, *Mycobacterium*, *Nocardia* and *Rhodococcus*. A number of cholesterol decomposing strains belong to the genera *Mycobacterium*, *Nocardia* and *Rhodococcus* known as the nocardioform bacteria whereas in the other genera, the decomposing strains appear incidentally. (Arima *et al* 1969).

In previous years the taxonomy of the nocardioform bacteria was extremely poor. In the seventh edition of Bergey's manual, the nocardioform bacteria were classified in the genera *Nocardia* and *Actinomycetes* belonging to the family Actinomycetaceae. The genus *Nocardia* was poorly defined and contained bacteria that had little in common. In the late seventies efforts were directed towards establishing a better classification of the actinomycetes. They have been classified into 10 families and 30 genera, based primarily on morphological, chemical and spore characteristics.

Author Downing Katrina Jo

Name of thesis Towards Molecular Biological Characterisation Of The Genes For Sterol And Bile Acid Metabolism In Nocardioform Bacteria. 1989

PUBLISHER:

University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

©2013

LEGAL NOTICES:

Copyright Notice: All materials on the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg Library website are protected by South African copyright law and may not be distributed, transmitted, displayed, or otherwise published in any format, without the prior written permission of the copyright owner.

Disclaimer and Terms of Use: Provided that you maintain all copyright and other notices contained therein, you may download material (one machine readable copy and one print copy per page) for your personal and/or educational non-commercial use only.

The University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, is not responsible for any errors or omissions and excludes any and all liability for any errors in or omissions from the information on the Library website.