

Strategies for the statins production in microbial cell factory:present and future

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Abstract

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Strategies for the statins production in microbial cell factory:present and future

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Abstract

Statins as a lipid-lowering drug can selectively inhibit 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase and decrease cholesterol synthesis effectively. With the improvement of nutritional conditions, the demand for statins is increasing in global market. Due to the rapid development of modern biotechnologies, the biosynthesis of stains by microbial cell factory appears great advantages. It has the advantages of simple operation and easy separation of products. This review summarized the strategies on statins production via microbial cell factory, including both traditional fermentation culture and modern synthetic biology manufacture. Firstly, the complex fermentation parameters and process control technology on submerged fermentation (SmF) and solid-state fermentation (SSF) were introduced in detail. Especially, the possibility of recoverable agricultural wastes/(Biomass) as fermentation substrate on solid-state fermentation to produce statins was emphasized. Besides, metabolic engineering strategies to construct robust engineering strains

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KEYWORDS : Statins; strategies; microorganism; fermentation; engineering strains

Introduction

Hypercholesterolemia is one of the leading causes of death from cardiovascular disease in humans. Only one-third of the total body cholesterol is diet derived, two-thirds is synthesized directly from intracellular precursors 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) (Alberts, Chen et al. 1980, Breedlove and Hedrick 1999). Statins drugs can selectively inhibit HMG-CoA reductase thus reducing lipids synthesis significantly as well as giving play to multiple biological effects such as inhibiting atherosclerosis, thrombosis and alleviating rejection reaction, treating osteoporosis, anti-tumor, etc. (Figure 1) (Cummings and Bauer 2000, A. Massy and Guijarro 2001, Barrios-González and Miranda 2010, Osmak 2012). Statins block an early step, the conversion of HMG-CoA to mevalonate, which reducing cholesterol synthesis precursors, thus directly affecting the synthesis of cholesterol (such as the reduce of LDL and the increase of HDL) (A. Massy and Guijarro 2001, Adhyaru and Jacobson 2018). And the reduction of farnesyl pyrophosphate (farnesyl-PP) and geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate (geranylgeranyl-PP) interferes with protein isoprene (the binding of lipid isoprene to proteins), thereby affecting the normal function of small glutamyl transpeptidases (GTPases) (such as Ras, Rho, Rac and Rab) in the osteoclasts, which may lead to osteoporosis, senile dementia and so on (Rikitake and Liao 2005, Binnington, Nguyen et al. 2015, Petek, Villa-Lopez et al. 2018, Healy, Berus et al. 2020). From January 1, 2002, to December 31, 2018, an average of 21.35 million statins were purchased annually, with an average total annual cost of \$24.5 billion in the US (Lin, Baumann et al. 2021).

Statins can be produced through microbial synthesis and chemical synthesis. There are totally four statins which can be produced by microorganism cells, lovastatin (Alberts, Chen et al. 1980), compactin (Endo, Kuroda et al. 1976), pravastatin, simvastatin. Meanwhile, lovastatin and simvastatin are first-generation statins. Lovastatin from *Aspergillus* and compactin from *Penicillium* are two pure natural statins till now. Simvastatin can be synthesized by the precursor monacolin J, a hydrolysate of lovastatin. Pravastatin can be obtained by stereoselective hydroxylation in the fermentation of microorganism using compactin as precursor. Fluvastatin, atorvastatin, rosuvastatin and pitavastatin are fully synthetic statins (Jahnke 2007). Pravastatin and fluvastatin belong to the second-generation of statins. Atorvastatin, rosuvastatin and pitavastatin are the third-generation statins. Their chemical structures are quite different from natural statins (Table 1) and couldn't be produced by microbiology technology so far (Zhou, Curtis et al. 2019). Although there are many types of statins on the market, the first generation of statins produced by microbial cells still maintain a good trend in the world market. Although there is a strong commercial demand for statins, their production is usually at low levels in native producers from rare natural sources. The small quantities and poor purities limit the scale-up of statins production through chemical synthesis (Tartaggia, Fogal et al. 2016). Today, statins are mainly produced through microbial submerged fermentation (SmF) and solid-state fermentation (SSF) (Pawlak and Bizukojc 2013, Gonciarz, Kowalska et al. 2016). However, fermentation using native *A. terreus* usually poses some problems such as a long culture period, difficult manipulation, and multiple byproducts. Synthetic biology has many advantages compared to chemical synthesis, such as carbon neutral, sustainable, low cost, etc. With the development of synthetic biology, reconstruction of biosynthetic pathways in chassis organisms has been proved to be a possible solution to these problems (Ro, Paradise et al. 2006, Galanie, Thodey et al. 2015). Therefore, a growing number of researchers are looking into using microbial cell factories to yield statins (Ro, Paradise et al. 2006).

Here, we reviewed the strategies of microbial cell fermentation to produce statins in recent 20 years, mainly include submerged fermentation (SmF) and solid-state fermentation (SSF). As a vital strategy to improve statins synthesis at the cellular level, we have also reviewed findings that provide guidance on strains construction by metabolic engineering strategies and evolution. We also illustrated the great potential and challenges of producing statins through microbial cell factories.

Microbial cell fermentation to produce statins

Now, statins are produced mainly through microbial cell fermentation, mainly divided into submerged fermentation (SmF) and solid-state fermentation (SSF). According to the reports, three most aspects including medium, dissolved oxygen and other effects, respectively, affecting the submerged fermentation (SmF). The medium and other effects are two most aspects that affecting solid-state fermentation (SSF) (Figure 2).

2.1 Statins produced in SmF

Submerged fermentation (SmF) technology has the advantages of short cycle, low cost and high yield, and the purification of products is easier. Medium components especially carbon, nitrogen sources and inorganic salt are most influential aspects for statins production. The dissolved oxygen in the medium also has a great influence on the synthesis of statins. There are also many other effects such as Antibiotics, surfactants, the age of selected spores and fed-batch fermentation, affecting the production of statins. Submerged fermentation for statins biosynthesis was summarized in Table 2.

2.1.1 Medium

Carbon sources and nitrogen sources

Carbon and nitrogen sources are essential for microbial growth. It has a great influence on the synthesis of lovastatin. *A. terreus* is the native strain that produces lovastatin. Therefore, most people focus on optimizing carbon and nitrogen sources using *A. terreus* ATCC 20542. Ansari et al.(Ansari, Jalili et al. 2018) showed that 64 g/L syrup carbohydrates, 15 g/L yeast extract can lead to the lovastatin titer of 105.6 mg/L using *A. terreus* ATCC 20542. Batch cultures were performed in a 2.5-L working volume bioreactor and led to the lovastatin titer of 241.1 mg/L during 12 days *A. terreus* ATCC 20542. Rollini et al.(Rollini and Manzoni 2006) showed soybean peptone generally allowed the best lovastatin yields to be achieved (250–280 mg/L) by *A. terreus* ATCC 20542, particularly in the presence of soybean and peanut flours. Vegetable oil as sole carbon source and supplemental carbon source has effects on the fermentation of lovastatin by *A. terreus*. Sripalakit et al.(Sripalakit and Saraphanchotiwiththaya 2020) showed that all selected vegetable oils increased yields by at least two-fold. Especially, when 1% w/v coconut oil was added, the highest yield was 87.18 g/L using *A. terreus* ATCC 20542, approximately 11-fold compared to the oil-free control group. Hajjaj et al.(Hajjaj, Niederberger et al. 2001) found that a threefold-higher specific productivity was found with the defined medium on glucose and glutamate, compared to growth on complex medium with glucose, peptonized milk, and yeast extract using *A. terreus* Thom ATCC 74135. Oliveira et al.(Oliveira, Paulo et al. 2021) showed that 60 g/L soluble starch, 15 g/L soybean flour led to producing 100.86 mg/L lovastatin using *A. terreus* URM 5579. Kaur et al.(Kaur, Kaur et al. 2010) optimized the culture-medium parameters of *A. terreus* GD₁₃. They found it can lead to the maximal lovastatin titer of 1342 mg/L when the initial C:N ratio in the culture medium was 37:1, which was 7-fold compared to the titer obtained under unoptimized conditions. Submerged fermentation of agricultural waste for fermentation substrate to produce statins can not only protect the environment, but also recycle resources. Srinivasan et al. (Srinivasan, Thangavelu et al. 2022) used *A. terreus* KPR 12 to ferment the sago processing wastewater, getting 429.98 mg/L lovastatin. Medium optimization for other strains has also been reported. Atli et al. (Atli, Yamaç et al. 2013) found 30 g/L glucose, 10 g/L yeast extract can lead to 114.82 mg/L lovastatin using *P. ostreatus* OBCC 1031.

Carbon sources, nitrogen sources also have a great influence on the synthesis of compactin. Chakravarti et al.(Chakravarti and Sahai 2002) optimized the medium for compactin production by *P. citrinum* NCIM 768, lead to the maximum titer increased to 490 mg/L. Ahmad et al.(Ahmad, Panda et al. 2010) showed that glycerol, peptone, yeast extract improved the titer of compactin to 589.3 mg/L using *P.citrinum* MTCC 1256. Syed et al.(Syed and Rajasimman 2015) optimized medium on the production of compactin by *A. terreus*, lead to the titer of compactin increased to 701 mg/L. Jekkel et al.(Kónya, Jekkel et al. 1998) showed that 7.0% glucose, 1.0% yeast extract led to the titer of compactin to 390-410 mg/mL using *P. citrinum* MTCC 1256.

Inorganic salts

Inorganic salts are not only nutrients for microbial growth, but also can participate in the building blocks of microbial cells and enzymes. Therefore, inorganic salts have a certain effect on the biosynthesis of lovastatin. Rahim et al.(Abd Rahim, Lim et al. 2019) showed that the yield of lovastatin increased by 282% to 25.52 mg/L when the medium have KH_2PO_4 , $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, NaCl and $\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ using *A. terreus* ATCC 20542. Jia et al.(Jia, Zhang et al. 2009) showed that Fe^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , Zn^{2+} , Mg^{2+} and Mn^{2+} can promote lovastatin synthesis and cell growth. In the presence of 2mM and 5mM Zn^{2+} , the highest titer was 49.2 ± 1.4 mg gDCW⁻¹, a 14.4-fold increased using *A. terreus* ATCC 20542. Sayyad et al.(Sayyad, Panda et al. 2007) optimized *M. purpureus* MTCC 369 to produce lovastatin. In the medium containing 3.86 g/L NH_4Cl , 1.73 g/L KH_2PO_4 , 0.86 g/L $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 0.19 g/L $\text{MnSO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$, the maximum titer of lovastatin increased to 351 mg/L.

2.1.2 Dissolved Oxygen (DO)

The dissolved oxygen in Submerged fermentation medium has great influence on the synthesis of statins. Gonciarz et al.(Gonciarz and Bizukojc 2014) added 10 μm of talc particles in the medium to decreases fungal pellet size to increase the oxygen saturation of the broth, which lead to lovastatin titer increased by 3.5-fold to exceed then 120 mg/L. The optimal continuous feed batch increased to 250 mg/L(Gonciarz, Kowalska et al. 2016). Lai group(Lai, Tsai et al. 2005) found that the 5-L fermenter increased lovastatin titer by 38% when the dissolved oxygen (DO) was controlled at 20%. When the medium temperature was reduced from 28 to 23 , the titer of lovastatin was further increased by 25%, reaching 572 mg/L. Ansari et. al(Ansari, Jalili et al. 2019) showed that the highest titer of lovastatin (443 mg/L) were obtained at air bubbles diameter of 0.18 cm. The main reason is that the diameter of the bubble directly affects the concentration of dissolved oxygen.

In fact, reactive oxygen species (ROS) produced during fermentation have an effect on lovastatin biosynthesis. The addition of N-Acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC), which reduces reactive oxygen species, can reduce lovastatin production. On the contrary, the addition of H_2O_2 , which promotes reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, leads to lovastatin biosynthesis(Miranda, Gómez-Quiroz et al. 2014).

Redox potential of fermenters can also affect lovastatin synthesis(Pawlak and Bizukojc 2013). In the process with the highest redox potential levels maximum lovastatin concentration was equal to 83.8 mg/L, while at the lowest redox level it did not reach 67 mg/L.

2.1.3 Other effects

Antibiotics

Jia et al.(Jia, Zhang et al. 2010) added different polyketide antibiotics to the medium by *A. terreus* ATCC 20542, which led to improve lovastatin titer by 20-25%, such as tylosin, erythromycin, tetracycline, daunorubicin. Especially, lovastatin titer reached 952.7 ± 24.3 mg/L at the initial stage of lovastatin synthesis with the addition of 50 mg/L tylosin, increased by 42% and 22.2%, respectively.

Surfactants

Chakravarti et al.(Chakravarti and Sahai 2002) cultured the mutant strain of *P. citrinum* NCIM 768 in chemically-defined medium, producing 145 mg/L compactin. The titer of compactin was increased to 175 mg/L by adding surfactant tween 80 into the medium. Choi group(Choi, Cho et al. 2004) showed that compactin titer was 1200 mg/L after 10 days of fermentation with 1.5 g/L triton X-100, increased by 2-fold.

Age of selected spores

The age of selected spores not only has a great influence on the growth state, but also affects the expression level of cells. Porcel et al.(Porcel, López et al. 2006) found a higher titer for lovastatin production by using older spores. The titer of lovastatin increased by 52% to 186.5 ± 20.1 mg/L when the age of inoculated spores increased from 9 days to 16 days.

Fed-batch

Pecyna et al.(Pecyna and Bizukojc 2011) showed that the application of glycerol feed, when lactose is the initial substrate, leads to the appreciable lovastatin concentration in the broth (122.4 mg/L), nevertheless the abundant (+)-geodin level is at the same time obtained (255.5 mg/L). The cultures with glycerol as the initial substrate and fed with lactose produce less lovastatin and (+)-geodin. The application 3of the various combined glycerol and/or lactose feeds allows for improving lovastatin production up to 161.8 mg/L. Porcel et al.(Porcel, López et al. 2008) showed that semi-continuous operation enhanced productivity of lovastatin by 315% compared with a conventional batch operation.

2.2 Statins produced in SSF

Solid-state fermentation (SSF) has the advantages of simple operation, low energy consumption, easy control of fermentation process, relatively low requirement for sterility, and not easy to occur large area pollution. The main media of solid-state fermentation (SSF) are agricultural raw materials, including corn, rice, sorghum, barley and so on. Biomass is a kind of renewable and clean energy. The rational, efficient development and utilization of biomass is also a hot spot for Solid-state fermentation (SSF) to produce statins. In fact, the carrier used in the fermentation process and the surface wind speed can also affect the fermentation of microorganisms to produce statins. Solid-state fermentation for statins biosynthesis was summarized in Table 3.

2.2.1 Medium

Different medium has great influence on lovastatin production by microbial solid-state fermentation. Valera et al.(Valera, Gomes et al. 2005) found that wheat bran was to be the most suitable substrate to yield 16.65 mg/g lovastatin in aerated stirred beds after 6 days of fermentation by *A. flavipes* BICC 5174. Ath et al. (Ath, Yamaç et al. 2015) showed that a maximum lovastatin titer of 139.47 mg/g was achieved by the fermentation of 5 g of barley, 1–2 mm particle diam, at 28 °C. Subhagar et al.(Subhagar, Aravindan et al. 2009) showed barley, long grain rice and sago starch were the suitable substrates producing. The maximum titer of lovastatin are 193.7 mg/g, 190.2 mg/g and 180.9 mg/g,respectively. Suraiya et al.(Suraiya, Kim et al. 2018) showed that glucose had the greatest influence on the production of lovastatin. Under the optimal fermentation parameters, the average titer of lovastatin reached 13.98 mg/gds using *M. purpureus* KCCM 60168. Pansuriya et al.(Pansuriya and Singhal 2010) also did this work. The titer of lovastatin was to 3.723 mg/g by *A. terreus* UV 1718 using solid-state fermentation when optimizing the fermentation parameters.

Different medium also has great influence on compactin production by microbial solid-state fermentation. Shaligram et al.(Shaligram, Singh et al. 2008) showed that the optimal production of compactin was 0.771 mg/gds with the addition of various supplements (glycerin, etc.) by *P. brevicompactum* WA 2315. The titer of compactin was increased to 0.815 mg/gds when the pH of the supplement solution was 7.5. Shaligram et al.(Shaligram, Singh et al. 2008) optimized the synthesis of compactin by *P. brevicompactum* WA 2315. The final titer of compactin was increased from 0.45 mg/gds to 1.25 mg/gds by adding glycerol during fermentation. Syed et al.(Syed, Rajendran et al. 2014) showed that the combinations of the substrates with 1.5 g of green peas, 1.5 g of millet and 1.5 g of ragi gave maximum production of 389.34 mg/gds compactin by *A. terreus* MTCC 279.

Biomass is a kind of renewable and clean energy. The rational, efficient development and utilization of agricultural waste as the substrate of solid-state fermentation (SSF) to produce statins can not only save production cost effectively, but also realize the effective utilization of resources. Iewkittayakorn et al.(Iewkittayakorn, Kuechoo et al. 2020) showed that the titer of lovastatin reached the highest at 0.99 mg/g after 14 days of fermentation with soybean sludge as substrate by adding addition palm oil. Javed et al.(Javed, Bukhari et al. 2016) studied the production of compactin by solid-state fermentation of with bagasse as substrate by *A. terreus* GCBL-03. Bagasse was pretreated by potassium hydroxide readily become available to microorganism, leading to 30.63+1.24 mg/100mL.

2.2.2 Other effects

Artificial inert support

Banos et al.(Banos, Tomasini et al. 2009) used high-density polyurethane foam (PUF) as an inert support to produce lovastatin by SSF. Results showed that the titer of lovastatin in PUF solid-state fermentation is two-fold higher than that of the known solid-state fermentation system of bagasse. And the titer of lovastatin on PUF is more than 15-fold higher than that of submerged fermentation.

Superficial air velocity

Kumar et al.(Kumar, Srivastava et al. 2014) studied the effect of superficial air velocity on lovastatin production from *A. terreus* PL 10 using wheat bran and wheat straw in a 1200-L packed bed reactor. Results showed a maximum lovastatin production of 1.86 mg/g when the reactor was operated using 0.19 vvm airflow rate (23.37 cm/min superficial air velocity).

Co-culture

In fact, co-culture technique has also been introduced to improve the yield of lovastatin. Panda et al.(Panda, Javed et al. 2010) co-cultured *M. purpureus* MTCC 369 and *M. ruber* MTCC 1880, which lead to maximum lovastatin production of 2.83 mg/g.

Improving statins production by engineering strains

Traditional fermentation culture production of statins usually poses some problems such as a long culture period, difficult manipulation, and multiple byproducts. With the rapid development of synthetic biology, the construction of engineering strains for the production of statins may be a major strategy for present and future statin production. At the same time, the improvement of metabolic engineering strategies should be rational pathway design and modification. All strains are modified to meet production requirements. We summarized the metabolic engineering strategies from the perspectives of heterologous expression of genes, modification of regulatory proteins, inhibiting by-product synthesis, respectively. In contrast to metabolic engineering strategies, evolution of strains is another alternative to improve the production. Engineering strains strategies for statins biosynthesis was summarized in Table 4.

3.1 Heterologous expression of genes

Heterologous expression of genes is a common strategy in synthetic biology. Heterologous expression of genes strategies to improve statins production are described in the box at the upper left (Figure 3 A-C). *S. cerevisiae* is very suitable for heterologous expression of genes. Bond et al.(Bond and Tang 2019) introduced six heterosynthetic genes into *S. cerevisiae* BY4741 and adding the acyl-donor dimethylbutyryl-S-methyl mercaptopropionate (DMB-SMMP) into the culture medium. Regulating the copy number of *lovA* and introducing the gene *npgA* and in situ chemical lysis of cell wall, lead to 55 mg/L simvastatin. Liu et al.(Liu, Tu et al. 2018) introduced lovastatin synthesis gene into *P. pastoris* GS115. Using dihydromonacolin L as a metabolic node, the synthetic pathway is divided into upstream and downstream modules. Finally, the optimal co-culture strategy was selected by bioreactor fermentation, lead to 250.8 mg/L lovastatin (Figure 3(A)).

Currently, industrial production of simvastatin acid (SVA) is a multistep process starting from the natural product lovastatin. Monacolin J can be obtained by alkaline hydrolysis of lovastatin. Chemical method for transformation of monacolin J to simvastatin was generally divided into three steps, including hydroxyl group protection, reesterification, and deprotection. The processes from lovastatin to simvastatin are complicated, laborious, and environmentally unfriendly(Askin, Verhoeven et al. 1991, Xie, Watanabe et al. 2006, Huang, Liang et al. 2017). Monacolin J biosynthetic gene cluster were integrated into the genome of *A. niger* CBS513.88(Zeng, Zheng et al. 2022) which processes strong promoters and suitable integration sites, lead to 92.90 mg/L monacolin J. Optimizing culture conditions and adding precursors, improved the titer to 142.61 mg/L. Liang et al.(Liang, Huang et al. 2018) achieved single-step in vivo production of monacolin J by using lovastatin hydrolase (PcEST) in *A. terreus* HZ01 (Figure 3(B)). After modification of PcEST, cell activity

was increased by 18-fold, which greatly promoted hydrolysis of lovastatin to monacolin J, which also laid a foundation for industrial production of simvastatin.

Compactin synthetic gene cluster has not been fully characterized. The function of specific genes of compactin synthetic is unclear. However, there are still some reports of compactin production in engineered strains. Abe et al.(Abe, Suzuki et al. 2002) improved the synthesis of compactin by adding some gene clusters related to compactin synthesis in *P. piltrinum* No.41520. Baba et al.(Baba, Abe et al. 2009) improved the titer of compactin by adding complete gene clusters in *P. piltrinum* No.41520, lead to the titer of compactin increase by 50%. These results indicate that increasing gene copy numbers can promote high titer of compactin.

Pravastatin is mostly produced by microbial fermentation using compactin or compactin sodium as substrate. Screening strains with high conversion rate is the key to obtain high yield of pravastatin. Lin et al.(Lin, Tang et al. 2011) isolated a strain and further identified as *P. carboxydivorans* PAH4. In the medium of 1 mg/ml compactin sodium, the conversion rate of pravastatin reached 68%. The results of this study suggested *P. carboxydivorans* PAH4 could be considered a candidate for the production of pravastatin on an industrial scale. Ahmad et al.(Ahmad, Mujeeb et al. 2013) tested the bioconversion of compactin to pravastatin by three *A. species*, named *A. livida* MTCC 1382, *A. macra* MTCC 2559, and *A. madurae* MTCC 1220. Bioconversion by *A. macra* MTCC 2559 was highest (87 %) in the yeast extract-amended medium. Park et al.(Park, Lee et al. 2003) isolated *Streptomyces sp.* Y-110 from soil. In batch culture, the maximum titer was 340 mg/L. By adding compactin to the medium intermittently, the titer was increased to 1000 mg/L. McLean et al.(McLean, Hans et al. 2015) introduced the compactin pathway into the beta-lactam-negative *P. chrysogenum* DS50662, a new cytochrome P450 (P450 or CYP) was isolated to catalyze the final compactin hydroxylation. They evolved the CYP enzyme to reverse stereoselectivity, lead to more than 6 g/L pravastatin at a pilot production scale (Figure 3(C)).

3.2 Modification of regulatory proteins

Modifying the regulatory element proteins strategies to improve statins production are described in the box at the upper right (Figure 3 D, E). Liu et al.(Liu, Bai et al. 2018) overexpressed the statins pump protein TapA (a membrane protein that enables lovastatin to flow out of cells) in *P. pastoris* GS115, resulted in 419.0±9.5 mg/L lovastatin, 46% higher than overexpression of lovastatin gene and 520% higher than single-copy strain, respectively (Figure 3(D)). They similarly modulated Tap proteins in *P. pastoris* GS115, successfully increasing monacolin J production(Bai, Liu et al. 2020). Itoh et al.(Itoh, Miura et al. 2018) knocked out the sterol regulatory element binding protein (SREBP) system, increased the lovastatin production by *A. terreus* ATCC 20542. Thus, knockout of the SREBP system should be considered significant for increasing the productivities of polyketides, such as HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors, by filamentous fungi. Lu et al.(Huang, Tang et al. 2019) overexpressed the lovastatin transcriptional regulator *love*, increased the synthetic yield of monacolin J by 52.5% (Figure 3(E)).

3.3 Inhibiting by-product synthesis

The by-product (+)-Geodin is produced when lovastatin is synthesized from *A. terreus* ATCC 20542 in glycerol culture. Hasan et al.(Hasan, Abd Rahim et al. 2019) inserted the antibiotic marker hygromycin B (*hyg*) within the *gedC* gene that encodes emodin anthrone polyketide synthase (PKS), got an *A. terreus* mutant strain ($\gamma\epsilon\delta^{\Delta}$). Compared with the wild-type strain, the yield of lovastatin was increased by 80% to 113 mg/L. This study also provided a practical method for controlling carbon flux (Figure 3(F)).

3.4 Evolution of strains

Evolution of strains is a method to obtain high-yield strains. Chemical inducers and ultraviolet radiation are common methods of random mutation. Kaur et al.(Kaur, Kaur et al. 2009) induced *A. terreus* GD₁₃ for three cycles to get high-yielding lovastatin *A. terreus* EM19, increased 7.5-fold to 1424 mg/L. Azeem et al.(Azeem, Arshad et al. 2020) induced *A. terreus* with ethidium bromide for a long time, which greatly improved the yield of lovastatin in solid-state fermentation. El-Bondkly et al.(El-Bondkly, El-Gendy et al. 2021) obtained 4.51 mg/gds lovastatin by solid-state fermentation of straw by *Fusarium sp.* Alaa-20. Enhancing

mutagenesis induction and three successive gene recombination of *Fusarium alternium*, increased the titer to 52.1 mg/gds. Dzhevakhya et al.(Dzhevakhya, Voinova et al. 2015) obtained a strain *S. xanthochromogenes* S33-1 that is high tolerance of compactin by multi-step random UV mutagenesis of *S. xanthochromogenes* RIA 1098. After the fermentation medium improvement, the maximum bioconversion rate of this strain has reached 91% at the daily compactin dose equal to 1 g/L and still remained high (83%) even at the doubled dose (2 g/L) (Figure 3(G)).

4 · Challenges and future prospects

From the perspective of statins production strategies, most of the research is based on solid-state fermentation and submerged fermentation. Most of them are optimized for the composition of carbon source, nitrogen source and inorganic salt in the medium. Some papers have also studied the fermentation parameters and the substances produced in the fermentation process that may affect the yield of statins. It can be concluded that simply optimizing the culture medium components and fermentation parameters will not lead to significant progress in statins production. At the same time, the lack of microbial growth and catalytic activity in industrial fermenters will lead to low product yield, weak cell growth and other problems. Global screening or random mutagenesis of existing strains to obtain more adaptable strains may solve this problem(Maltsev, Maltseva et al. 2020, Chekanov, Litvinov et al. 2021). Metabolic engineering strategies have also been used to increase statins production, but these have been relatively infrequently reported. This is partly because some of the statins synthesis gene clusters have not been fully characterized(Abe, Suzuki et al. 2002, Baba, Abe et al. 2009), limiting gene modification. Therefore, a complete analysis and characterization of the statins synthesis gene cluster will further promote statins synthesis.

S. cerevisiae is an ideal host for heterologous gene expression(Novo, Bigey et al. 2009, Vatanparast and Kim 2019, Davies, Tsyplenkov et al. 2021). The mature technologies of gene editing and expression, high cell-density culture and fermentation process control made *S. cerevisiae* to be a very promising microorganism for statins production. The successful synthesis of simvastatin(Bond and Tang 2019) has demonstrated that *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* may be a promising microorganism for the production of statins. In particular, new statins can be synthesized by introducing exogenous synthetic genes into *S. cerevisiae* (Giugliano, Maiorino et al. 2019, Chioua and Marco-Contelles 2021). However, some challenges still exist to translate bio-statins into practical industrial applications.

In the future, major advances in statins production will depend on metabolic engineering strategies, which also need biotechnology innovation. Methods such as protein engineering, synthetic biology, metabolic engineering and fermentation engineering will be used to overcome challenges and solve biotechnology problems(Liu, Xue et al. 2022). Synthetic biology and systems biology tools help to explore and construct shorter alternatives to the classical statins synthesis pathway(2012, Nielsen and Pronk 2012). Protein engineering and structural biology tools are needed to improve transformation efficiency and mitigate the inhibition of key intermediates and end products. Adaptively directed evolution of enzymes has also benefited from advances in protein engineering. Therefore, through the further study of metabolic engineering strategies, the production of statins will make significant progress. Compared to review papers on statins production previously published(Manzoni and Rollini 2002, Barrios-González and Miranda 2010), We describe the strategies of statins synthesis in more detail. And we outlook the challenges and possible solutions of statins synthesis in more detail and comprehensively. Overall, statins biosynthesis is a worthy-studied theme, as statins still have high application and value.

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Data Availability Statement

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were created or analyzed in this study.

Author Contributions

All authors contributed to the background research and writing of the article, as well as the editing. In addition, all authors have read and approved the final version of this manuscript.

Conflicts Of Interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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Company	Sankyo	Merck	Merck	Sankyo	Sandoz	Pfizer
Half-life	/	3 h	2-3 h	1.5 h	2.3±0.9 h	14 h
Clearance	/	Hepatic	Hepatic	Hepatic and renal	Hepatic	Hepatic
Form Administered	/	Inactive lactone	Inactive lactone	Active hydroxy acid	Active hydroxy acid	Active hydroxy acid
Solubility	/	Lipophilic	Lipophilic	Hydrophilic	Lipophilic	Lipophilic
Derivative	Fungal	Fungal	Fungal	Fungal	Synthetic	Synthetic
Structure						
Generation	/	First	First	Second	Second	Third
Drug name	Compactin	Lovastatin	Simvastatin	Pravastatin	Fluvastatin	Atorvastatin

Table 2. Submerged fermentation for statins biosynthesis.

Statins	Strain	methods & strategies
Lovastatin	<i>A. terreus</i> ATCC 20542	Adding KH_2PO_4 , $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, NaCl and $\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ to the medium
		Adding 2mM or 5mM Zn^{2+} to the medium
		Controlling higher redox potential during fermentation
		Lactose is the initial substrate while feeding with glycerol
		Glycerol is the initial substrate while feeding with lactose
		The age of inoculated spores from 9 days to 16 days
		Carbohydrate concentration of jujube syrup 64 g/ L, yeast extract 15 g/L, PH 6.5
		Adding 10 μm talc particles to the culture medium
		Soybean and peanut flours as substrate
		The air bubbles diameter of bubble column bioreactor is 0.18cm
Compactin	<i>A. terreus</i> URM 5579	20% dissolved oxygen, 7 days of fermentation at 23
	<i>P. ostreatus</i> OBCC 1031	Adding 50 mg/L tylosin to the culture medium
	<i>M. purpureus</i> MTCC 369	Adding 1% w/v coconut oil to the culture medium
	<i>A. terreus</i> KPR 12	60 g/L soluble starch, 15 g/L soybean flour, pH 7.5, 200 rpm and 32 °C for 7 days
	<i>A. terreus</i> GD ₁₃	30 g/L glucose, 10 g/L yeast extract, 200 rpm, 28 , and pH 6
	<i>P. citrinum</i> NCIM 768	29.59 g/L glucose, 3.86 g/L NH_4Cl , 1.73 g/L KH_2PO_4 , 0.86 g/L $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 0.05 g/L $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
	<i>A. terreus</i> ATCC 20542	Sago processing wastewater as substrate
	<i>A. terreus</i>	C:N ratio in the culture medium was 37:1; Seven days of fermentation
	<i>P. citrinum</i> MTCC 1256	Using chemically-defined medium; Adding surfactant tween 80
	<i>P. citrinum</i> L-18065	Glc 4.65 g/L, Gly 15.8 g/L, U 0.61 g/L; IA 4.24 days and HT 8.9 days

Table 3. Solid-state fermentation for statins biosynthesis.

Statins	Strain	Description	Titer	Ref.
Lovastatin	<i>A. flavipes</i> BICC 5174	Wheat bran as substrates, fermenting in aerated stirred beds for 6 days	16.65 mg/g	(Valera, Gomes et al. 2005)
	<i>O. olearius</i> OBCC 2002	Fermenting of 5 g of barley, 1–2 mm particle diam, at 28 °C	139.47 mg/g	(Ath, Yamaç et al. 2015)
	<i>M. purpureus</i> MTCC 369	Sago starch as substrate	180.9 mg/g	(Subhagar, Aravindan et al. 2009)
		Long grain rice as substrate	190.2 mg/g	
		Barley as substrate	193.7 mg/g	
	<i>A. terreus</i> MTCC 279	1.5 g of green peas, 1.5 g of millet and 1.5 g of ragi	1467.12 mg/gds	(Syed, Rajendran et al. 2014)
	<i>A. sclerotiorum</i> PSU-RSPG 178	Agricultural wastes as substrates, such as dry corn trunks, rice husks, wild sugarcane and soy bean sludge; adding addition palm oil	0.99 mg/g	(Iewkittayakorn, Kuechoo et al. 2020)
		25.64 °C, 14.49 days, 1.32% glucose and 0.20% peptone	13.98 mg/gds	
		Optimizing medium supplemented with mycological, peptone by response surface methodology	3.723 mg/g	
	<i>A. terreus</i> UV 1718	Controlling packed bed reactor of superficial air velocity at 23.37 cm/min; 54% substrate composition	1.86 mg/g	(Kumar, Srivastava et al. 2014)

Statins	Strain	Description	Titer	Ref.
Compactin	<i>M. purpureus</i> MTCC 369 and <i>M. ruber</i> MTCC 1880	Co-culturing <i>m. purpureus</i> MTCC 369 and <i>m. ruber</i> MTCC 1880 for 14 days	2.83 mg/g	(Panda, Javed et al. 2010)
	<i>P. brevicompactum</i> WA 2315	Adding various supplements (glycerin, etc.); optimize supplement pH=7.5	0.815 mg/gds	(Shaligram, Singh et al. 2008)
		Control the substrate initial water content 50%; fermenting 168 hours; adding glycerol	1.25 mg/gds	(Shaligram, Singh et al. 2008)
	<i>A. terreus</i> MTCC 279	Using 1.5 g of green peas, 1.5 g of millet and 1.5 g of ragi as combinations of the substrates	389.34 mg/gds	(Syed, Rajendran et al. 2014)
	<i>A. terreus</i> GCBL-03	Bagasse as substrates, using potassium hydroxide to pretreat bagasse	30.63±1.24 mg/100mL	(Javed, Bukhari et al. 2016)

Table 4. Engineering strains strategies to improve the production of statins.

Statins	Strain	Description
Simvastatin	<i>S. cerevisiae</i> BY4741	Introducing the synthetic gene of monacoline J; adding the acyl-donor dimethylbutyrate
Lovastatin	<i>P. pastoris</i> GS115	Introducing lovastatin synthesis gene into <i>P. pastoris</i> GS115; using dihydromonacolin A
	<i>A. terreus</i> ATCC 20542	Overexpressing the statins pump protein TapA (a membrane protein that enables the cell to pump out statins)
Pravastatin	<i>A. terreus</i> EM ₁₉	Inserting the antibiotic marker hygromycin B (<i>hyg</i>) within the <i>gedC</i> gene that encodes the statin synthase
	<i>Fusarium sp.</i> Alaa-20	Inducing <i>A. terreus</i> GD ₁₃ for three cycles
	<i>Streptomyces sp.</i> Y-110	Enhancing mutagenesis induction and three successive gene recombination of <i>Fusarium</i>
	<i>P. chrysogenum</i> DS50662	Adding compactin to the medium intermittently
		Introducing the compactin pathway into the beta-lactam-negative <i>P. chrysogenum</i>



