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Metabolic engineering of Saccharomyces cerevisiae for production of butanol isomers

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Saccharomyces cerevisiae has decisive advantages in industrial processes due to its tolerance to alcohols and fermentation conditions. Butanol isomers are considered as suitable fuel substitutes and valuable biomass-derived chemical building blocks. Whereas high production was achieved with bacterial systems, metabolic engineering of yeast for butanol production is in the beginning. For isobutanol synthesis, combination of valine biosynthesis and degradation, and complete pathway re-localisation into cytosol or mitochondria gave promising results. However, competing pathways, co-factor imbalances and FeS cluster assembly are still major issues. 1-Butanol production via the Clostridium pathway seems to be limited by cytosolic acetyl-CoA, its central precursor. Endogenous 1-butanol pathways have been discovered via threonine or glycine catabolism. 2-Butanol production was established but was limited by B₁₂-dependence.

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Introduction

Among second-generation biofuels, butanol isomers 1-butanol, 2-butanol and isobutanol are regarded as suitable gasoline substitutes due to their high octane rating and low hygroscopicity [1]. Several review articles provide comprehensive overviews of efforts to engineer synthesis of butanol isomers in diverse host organisms (e.g. [2–8]). The scope of this review will be an actual overview of academic research dealing with production of butanol isomers in the yeast *S. cerevisiae* (Figure 1). *S. cerevisiae* is successfully employed in various industrial processes due to its high robustness [9]. Whereas ethanol is its main product, yeast is also able to produce isobutanol and 1-butanol as byproducts (around 0.2 mg/g glucose). These properties make *S. cerevisiae* an attractive organism for metabolic engineering to improve butanol production. The maximum theoretical yields are 0.41 g/g glucose.

Isobutanol

Isobutanol biosynthesis occurs via the Ehrlich pathway [10], whereby 2-ketoisovalerate (KIV), an intermediate of valine biosynthesis (and degradation) is first decarboxylated by 2ketoacid decarboxylase (Kdc) to isobutyraldehyde, which is reduced to isobutanol by alcohol dehydrogenase (Adh). In bacteria, overproduction of isobutanol can be achieved by concomitant overexpression of enzymes involved in valine anabolism and suitable Kdcs and Adhs [11]. In yeast, the situation is more complicated, because the proteins required for synthesis of KIV are located in mitochondria, while Kdc and Adh are cytosolic (Figure 1). First, pyruvate is imported into mitochondria and two molecules are condensed to acetolactate (ALAC) by acetolactate synthase (Als) Ilv2. Ilv6 acts as a valine-responsive regulator of Ilv2. In the subsequent step, ALAC is reduced to 2,3-dihydroxvisovalerate (DIV) by acetohydroxyacid reductoisomerase (Ahar) Ilv5. Finally, DIV is converted to KIV by dihydroxvacid dehydratase (Dhad) Ilv3, an iron sulfur (FeS) cluster containing enzyme. For isobutanol synthesis, KIV must then be transported into the cytosol.

In a first attempt to enhance synthesis of isobutanol in yeast, Chen *et al.* [12] overexpressed the mitochondrial part of the pathway (*ILV2*, *ILV5* and *ILV3* genes) and achieved six-fold increased isobutanol yields compared to wild-type levels. Additional overexpression of cytosolic branched-chain amino acid aminotransferase Bat2 further increased isobutanol production (Table 1), possibly by raising the availability of KIV and degrading valine, which exerts a negative feedback regulation on Ilv2 via Ilv6 [13].

In subsequent publications, valine synthesis and the Ehrlich pathway were short-circuited either in the cytosol or in mitochondria. Avalos *et al.* [14^{••}] demonstrated that moving the complete pathway into mitochondria resulted in a substantial increase in isobutanol synthesis compared to the split pathway. Kdcs and Adhs were either over-expressed in the cytosol or imported into mitochondria by fusing them with an N-terminal targeting signal. The





Simplified scheme of metabolic pathways for production of butanol isomers in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. For sake of clarity, the scheme does not discriminate between native and heterologous enzymatic reactions and does not comprise the pathways for 1-butanol production from threonine and glycine. Filled-head arrows represent multiple enzymatic steps and open-head arrows represent direct reactions or transmembrane transports.

highest isobutanol titers were obtained with a completely mitochondrial pathway (Table 1). Based on the fact that Kdc and Adh enzymes showed an increased local concentration within mitochondria, the authors speculated that the smaller volume of the organelle might concentrate enzymes and substrates, favoring faster reaction rates. Unfortunately, no comparison with the full cytosolic pathway was included. Similarly, Yuan and Ching [15] developed a strain with the genes encoding a complete mitochondrial pathway integrated into the genome using a δ -integration system which resulted in 15 mg isobutanol per g glucose. Nevertheless, it must be considered that under industrially relevant fermentation conditions like anaerobiosis and high sugar concentrations, yeast cells contain only few poorly differentiated mitochondria [16].

A fully cytosolic pathway was established by Brat *et al.* [17^{••},18]. To re-localize Ilv2, Ilv5 and Ilv3 into the cytosol, various versions lacking mitochondrial targeting sequences were constructed. Only when the complete cytosolic pathway was overexpressed in the absence of a mitochondrial pathway and in the absence of valine, significantly increased isobutanol production was observed. After codon optimization of truncated *ILV* genes, isobutanol titers increased up to 630 mg/L in a $\Delta i lv2$ strain. On the other hand, two other groups

achieved increased isobutanol titers by overexpressing cytosolic Ilv2, Ilv3, Ilv5 and Kdc proteins despite the presence of an intact mitochondrial pathway [19,20], or even with concomitant mitochondrial Ilv2 overexpression [21^{••}].

Nevertheless, ethanol production remains a major competing pathway. Kondo *et al.* [22] showed that deletion of *PDC1*, the major pyruvate decarboxylase isoform, had a positive effect on isobutanol production. However, *pdc*negative strains are auxotrophic for cytosolic C2-compounds, which necessitates further interventions, e.g. overexpression of the regulatory factor Mth1 [23] or introduction of a pyruvate-formate lyase [24]. Matsuda *et al.* [21^{••}] showed that elimination of a subunit of the mitochondrial pyruvate dehydrogenase (Pdh) complex leads to increased isobutanol titers.

A further problem arises from redox cofactor imbalances as glycolysis yields NADH and Ahar (and some Adhs) require NADPH and *S. cerevisiae* does not naturally contain a transhydrogenase. Bastian *et al.* [25] achieved the theoretically maximal isobutanol yield in *Escherichia coli* by engineering NADH-dependent Ahar and Adh. Thus, introducing a mutated Ahar into yeast may be a promising strategy to further improve isobutanol production. Matsuda *et al.* [21^{••}]

Table 1

Overview of representative yeast strains engineered to produce butanol isomers. The strain variants with best characteristics in each reference are given. Only the strategies where butanol isomers were produced from sugars are included. Note that titers shown do not take into account different fermentation times and conditions and should therefore not be directly compared. The yields (mg/g carbon source) represent a more reproducible characteristic but were not indicated in each reference. Where possible, the yields were calculated for the purpose of this review from the available data. Defined media may vary in their individual compositions of e.g. amino acids, vitamins and nucleobases. The fermentation conditions regarding oxygen supply are given according to the references and may not be consistently defined.

Strain background	Overexpressed genes	Pathway localization	Relevant genome modifications	Carbon source (g/L)	Medium properties	Fermentation conditions	Average Titer (mg L ⁻¹)/ Yield (mg g ⁻¹ C-source)	Reference
Isobutanol								
CEN.PK2-1C	ILV2, ILV3, ILV5	Mitochondrial IIv/ cytosolic Ehrlich pathway	None	Glucose (40)	Defined	Aerobic	n.i./3.86	[12]
D452-2	ILV2∆55, ILV3∆20, ILV5∆34, ^{LI} kivD	Full cytosolic pathway with parallel mitochondrial Ilv branch	None	Glucose (40)	Complex	Microaerobic	151/3.78ª	[19]
YPH499	ILV2, ^{LI} kivD, ADH6	Mitochondrial Ilv/ cytosolic Ehrlich pathway	∆pdc1	Glucose (20)	Defined	Microaerobic	143/6.60	[22]
YPH499	ILV2, ILV2∆54, ILV3∆41, ILV5∆47, [⊔] kivD, ADH6	Full cytosolic pathway with parallel mitochondrial Ilv branch	None	Glucose (20)	Defined	Microaerobic	63/2.10 ^b	[20]
CEN.PK2-1C	^{syn} ILV2∆54, ^{syn} ILV3∆19, ^{syn} ILV5∆48	Full cytosolic pathway	∆ilv2	Glucose (40)	Defined	Aerobic	630/14.18	[17**]
BY4741 x Y3929 (diploid)	ILV2, ILV3, ILV5, ARO10-TS, ^{Ll} adhA ^{RE1} -TS	Full mitochondrial pathway with parallel cytosolic Ehrlich pathway	None	Glucose (100)	Complex	Semi-aerobic	635/6.40	[14**]
CEN.PK2-1C	^{syn} ILV2∆54, ^{syn} ILV3∆19, ^{syn} ILV5∆48, ARO10, ADH2, TAL1, XKS1, ^{synCp} xyIA	Full cytosolic pathway	∆ilv2	Xylose (20)	Defined	Aerobic	1.36/0.16	[18]
YPH499	ILV2, ILV2∆54, ILV3∆41, ILV5∆47, [⊔] kivD, ADH6, MAE1	Full cytosolic pathway with parallel mitochondrial Ilv branch	∆lpd1	Glucose (100)	Defined	Microaerobic	1620/16.00	[21**]
1-Butanol BY4742	ERG10, ^{Cb} hbd, ^{Cb} crt, ^{Sc} ccr, ^{Cb} adhE2	Cytosolic	None	Galactose (20)	Defined	Semi-aerobic	2.5/n.i.	[38]

Table 1 (Continued)

Strain background Pathway localization Overexpressed Relevant genome Carbon Medium Fermentation Average Titer Reference $(mg L^{-1})/$ genes modifications source (q/L) properties conditions Yield (mg g^{-1} C-source) ERG10. synCbhbd. CEN.PK113-11C Cytosolic ∧cit2 Glucose (20) Defined Aerobic 16.3/n.i. [40[•]] synCbcrt, synTdter, synCbadhE2, synSeacsL641P ADH2. ALD6 YSG50 None Cvtosol/ ∆adh1 Glucose (20) Microaerobic 242.8/n.i. [45••] Complex mitochondria ∆ilv2 ERG10. cytoYIKR. CEN.PK2-1C Cytosolic None Glucose (20) Defined Oxygen limited 20/n.i. [41] cytoYIHTD, EcEutE, ^{Ca}BdhB ^{Ca}thl. ^{Ca}hbd. CEN.PK2-1C Cytosolic $\Delta adh1 \Delta adh4$ Glucose (20) Defined Oxygen limited >100/n.i. [42**] Cbcrt, Tdter, $\Delta gpd1 \ \Delta gpd2$ ^{Ec}eutE, ^{Ca}bdhB, synSeacsL641P, ecpdh

Genes from *Clostridium acetobutylicum* (Ca), *Clostridium beijerinckii* (Cb), *Clostridium phytofermentans* (Cp), *Escherichia coli* (Ec), *Lactococcus lactis* (Ll), *Salmonella enterica* (Se), *Streptomyces collinus* (Sc), *Treponema denticola* (Td) and *Yarrowia lipolytica* (YI) are indicated by prefixes in superscript. The suffix 'RE1' denotes a variant of AdhA from *Lactococcus lactis* with increased affinity for isobutyraldehyde and 'L641P' an acetylation-resistant mutant of the acetyl-CoA synthetase from *Salmonella enterica*; the prefix 'syn' indicates synthetic codon optimized genes; the prefix 'cyto' indicates cytosolic localization of truncated *Yarrowia lipolytica* proteins; the deleted N-terminal amino-acids of the cytosolic versions of IIv proteins are indicated (ΔAA); fusion with an N-terminal mitochondrial targeting sequence (TS) is indicated; native *S. cerevisiae* gene forms are shown without a denominator.

n.i.: not indicated in the publication.

^a The values were not indicated by the authors but calculated from the data.

^b Recalculated from molar yield.

constructed a transhydrogenase-like shunt, in which pyruvate is converted cyclically to oxaloacetate, malate and back to pyruvate, simultaneously converting NADH to NADPH (Table 1).

Even with all these advances, the production of isobutanol seems to be limited by supply of KIV. Lee *et al.* [19] and Avalos et al. [14^{••}] showed that addition of KIV could enhance isobutanol production significantly. The enzyme responsible for conversion of DIV to KIV, the DHAD Ilv3, possesses FeS clusters. In yeast, FeS proteins are present in mitochondria, cytoplasm and nucleus, although the initial assembly of this co-factor takes place inside mitochondria. Since the biogenesis of FeS clusters is a well-regulated process [26-28], a simple overexpression of a FeS protein especially in the cytosol could be meaningless. Attempts have been reported in patent applications [29,30] to enhance Dhad activity by modulating expression of components of the FeS assembly machinery, such as Atm1 (a transporter of FeS precursors from mitochondria to cytosol), Aft1/2 (transcription factors controlling iron utilization and homeostasis) and Grx proteins (glutathione-dependent oxidoreductases involved in biosynthesis of FeS). Also for other pathways, overexpression of FeS proteins in yeast has been demonstrated as a challenging step [31,32].

1-Butanol

Various Clostridium species are established 1-butanol producers in so-called acetone-butanol-ethanol (ABE) fermentations [33,34]. Titers of up to 13 g/L 1-butanol have been reported [35,36], but in fermentation processes Clostridia are difficult to handle [37]. Therefore, several approaches have been published to express variants of the pathway in other, more robust host organisms like yeasts. In this pathway, two molecules of acetyl-CoA are condensed to acetoacetyl-CoA, which is converted into 3hydroxybutyryl-CoA and transferred into crotonyl-CoA. This is reduced via butyryl-CoA and butyraldehyde into 1-butanol (Figure 1). Steen et al. [38] compared enzymes taken from different organisms to convert acetyl-CoA into 1-butanol in S. cerevisiae. Expressing a combination of Erg10 (thiolase) from S. cerevisiae, Hbd (NADH-dependent 3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA dehydrogenase) and Crt (crotonase) from C. beijerinckii, Ccr (NADH-dependent crotonyl-CoA reductase) from Streptomyces collinus and AdhE2 (bifunctional butyraldehyde/butanol dehydrogenase) from C. beijerinckii resulted in 2.5 mg/L 1-butanol [38] (Table 1). Ccr was used as it turned out that the butyryl-CoA dehydrogenase from C. beijerinckii together with an electron transfer flavoprotein EtfAB did not improve 1butanol production.

By replacing Ccr with an NADH-dependent trans-enoyl-CoA reductase (Ter) from *Treponema denticola*, which provides an irreversible reaction and therefore acts as a strong driving force [39], Krivoruchko *et al.* [40[•]] could further improve production up to 6.6 mg/L. In an attempt to implement a reversal of the β -oxidation cycle in yeast, Lian and Zhao [41] found several other suitable candidate enzymes for 1-butanol synthesis in yeast. Expression of these enzymes together with a CoA-acylating aldehyde dehydrogenase from *E. coli* and a butanol dehydrogenase from *C. acetobutylicum* resulted in titers of up to 20 mg/L. It was speculated that lower availability of cytosolic acetyl-CoA in *S. cerevisiae* as compared to *E. coli* is the main reason for lower 1-butanol titers in yeast.

To increase the availability of cytosolic acetyl-CoA, Krivoruchko *et al.* [40[•]] made use of a pyruvate dehydrogenase (Pdh) bypass by overexpressing an acetaldehyde dehydrogenase and an acetyl-CoA synthetase in a cit2 mutant devoid of extramitochondrial citrate synthase activity. Indeed, 1-butanol titers increased from 6.6 mg/ L to 16.3 mg/L. Moreover, as ethanol and glycerol are still major unwanted (by-) products in 1-butanol production and high levels of NADH would be a strong driving force, a yeast strain deleted for all its alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) and glycerol-3-P dehydrogenase (GPD) genes seems to be a promising host strain [42^{••},43,44]. Expression of an improved 1-butanol pathway together with an acetyl-CoA producing cytosolic version of Pdh from E. coli and Pdh-bypass reactions in an adh1/4 gpd1/2 mutant strain increased 1-butanol production to 120 mg/L [42^{••}] (Table 1). However, functionality of the Pdh complex from E. coli was not confirmed by additional experiments.

An endogenous pathway for 1-butanol production dependent on threonine catabolism was characterized in S. cerevisiae [45^{••}]. The authors discovered a new catabolic pathway from glucose via threonine to 1-butanol using the enzymes of leucine biosynthesis together with Kdcs and Adhs. In addition, this endogenous pathway was stimulated by deletion of ADH1 and ILV2, resulting in up to 242.8 mg/L 1-butanol. Another endogenous pathway for butanol production in S. cerevisiae uses glycine as a substrate [46[•]]. When glycine was added as the sole nitrogen source, 1-butanol accumulated up to 92 mg/L. The pathway was shown to proceed from glycine to glyoxylate, which was condensed with butyryl-CoA to yield 3-ethylmalate. 3-Ethylmalate is oxidized to 2-ketovalerate and finally converted to 1-butanol via the Ehrlich pathway. However, it is not clear from where the butyryl-CoA originates. Nevertheless, as biofuel production from amino acids is economically not viable, threonine or glycine overproduction strains would be required with lower theoretical maximum yields.

2-Butanol

2-Butanol has the highest octane number among the butanol isomers. High-level production of 2-butanol has not yet been tested for bacterial systems but only recently for *S. cerevisiae*. A heterologous pathway was

introduced converting 2,3-butanediol to 2-butanol via 2butanone [47[•]]. All three subunits of a B_{12} -dependent diol dehydratase from Lactobacillus reuteri and its two-subunit activating enzyme were expressed in equal amounts via a TEV-cleavage based system. After simultaneous expression of a secondary alcohol dehydrogenase from Gordonia sp., the yeast transformants could produce 4 mg/L 2butanol from meso-2,3-butanediol. In order to ensure an ample supply of NADH a gpd1 gpd2 double deletion strain unable to produce glycerol was used under anaerobic conditions. Moreover, production of 2-butanol was dependent on the supply of adenosylcobalamine to the medium. It was speculated that additional engineering of high level production of 2,3-butanediol [48,49] together with expression of a B12-independent diol dehydratase could enable higher production levels of 2-butanol from glucose.

Conclusions and outlook

Production rates and yields for butanol isomers are still lower in S. cerevisiae compared to bacterial systems. While in bacteria the maximal theoretical yields (0.41 g/g glucose) have nearly been reached for isobutanol and 1butanol, the yields reported for yeast are only less than 5% of the maximal values. However, as yeast cells have decisive advantages as industrial production organisms compared to bacteria [9], further pathway engineering is highly desirable. Nevertheless, although yeasts are less sensitive against butanol [50], tolerance will become a serious issue once higher titers are reached. González-Ramos et al. [51[•]] established that maintenance of protein integrity plays an essential role in butanol tolerance. Strains overexpressing genes involved in degradation systems of damaged proteins showed increased resistance to butanol. From a proteomic analysis of an evolved butanol tolerant yeast strain, Ghiaci et al. [52] concluded that upregulation of proteins involved in the mitochondrial ATP synthesizing machinery and glycerol biosynthesis seem to be beneficial for a successful adaptation to butanol stress. These studies show promising targets to engineer S. cerevisiae for improved tolerance when butanol titers increase to more than 15 g/L.

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