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4	Engineering of bacterial methyl ketone synthesis for biofuels
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46 ABSTRACT

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We have engineered Escherichia coli to overproduce saturated and monounsaturated aliphatic methyl ketones in the  $C_{11}$  to  $C_{15}$  (diesel) range; this group of methyl ketones includes 2undecanone and 2-tridecanone, which are of importance to the flavor and fragrance industry and also have favorable cetane numbers (as we report here). We describe specific improvements that resulted in a 700-fold enhancement in methyl ketone titer relative to that of a fatty acidoverproducing E. coli strain, including the following: (a) overproduction of β-ketoacylcoenzyme A (CoA) thioesters achieved by modification of the β-oxidation pathway (specifically, overexpression of a heterologous acyl-CoA oxidase and native FadB, and chromosomal deletion of fadA) and (b) overexpression of a native thioesterase (FadM). FadM was previously associated with oleic acid degradation, not methyl ketone synthesis, but outperformed a recently identified methyl ketone synthase (ShMKS2, a thioesterase from wild tomato) in β-ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing strains tested. Whole-genome transcriptional (microarray) studies led to the discovery that FadM is a valuable catalyst for enhancing methyl ketone production. The use of a two-phase system with decane enhanced methyl ketone production by 4 to 7-fold in addition to increases from genetic modifications.

62 INTRODUCTION

Aliphatic methyl ketones are naturally occurring compounds that were first discovered in rue (*Ruta graveolens*) more than a century ago (30) and have since been commonly found in microorganisms, plants, insects, and mammalian cells (10). These compounds have a variety of important natural and commercial roles, including acting as pheromones and natural insecticides in plants (1), or providing scents in essential oils and flavoring in cheese and other diary products (10). Biosynthesis of methyl ketones has been hypothesized to derive from a variety of different

biological pathways such as fatty acid β-oxidation or aerobic alkene/alkane degradation (10, 21). However, studies to elucidate the genes and biochemical pathways involved in the synthesis of these compounds have been quite rare until recently. One research group in particular has carried out extensive biochemical and genetic studies in a wild tomato species (*Solanum habrochaites*) and identified two key genes, methyl ketone synthase I (*ShMKS1*) and methyl ketone synthase II (*ShMKS2*), that are essential for methyl ketone synthesis from fatty acid intermediates in this plant (6, 11, 31). *Sh*MKS2, which belongs to the 4-hydroxybenzoyl-CoA thioesterase (4-HBT) family, is hypothesized to hydrolyze a β-ketoacyl-acyl carrier protein (ACP) thioester intermediate to generate a β-keto acid; *Sh*MKS1, an enzyme that belongs to the  $\alpha$ /β-hydrolase superfamily, apparently decarboxylates the β-keto acid released by *Sh*MKS2 to yield a methyl ketone (31).

Despite the commercial relevance of methyl ketones and their prevalence in nature, no genes other than *ShMKS1*, *ShMKS2*, and *At1g68260* (a *ShMKS2* homolog from *Arabidopsis thaliana*), have been recombinantly expressed and shown to be associated with methyl ketone biosynthesis (31). Metabolic engineering of microbes to overproduce methyl ketones may merit additional attention, as these compounds could be relevant to the biofuel industry as well as the flavor and fragrance industry by virtue of their highly reduced, aliphatic character. Indeed, a range of other fatty-acid derived compounds have already been successfully synthesized from metabolically engineered microbes for use as biofuels, such as fatty acid ethyl esters (26), alkanes (24), alkenes (5, 18, 22, 28), and *n*-alcohols (9).

In this article, we report on engineering of E. coli to overproduce saturated and monounsaturated methyl ketones in the  $C_{11}$  to  $C_{15}$  (diesel) range for potential application to biofuel production. We describe specific improvements that resulted in more than 4500-fold

enhancement in methyl ketone titer relative to that of a fatty acid-overproducing  $E.\ coli$  strain, including re-engineering of  $\beta$ -oxidation, overexpression of a thioesterase native to  $E.\ coli$  (FadM), and use of decane overlays. Methyl ketone titers in the best producing strains were in the range of 380 mg/L.

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### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Bacterial strains, plasmids, oligonucleotides, and reagents. Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 1. Plasmid extractions were carried out using the QIAGEN (Valencia, CA) miniprep and midiprep kits. Oligonucleotide primers were designed using the web-based PrimerBlast program (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primerblast/index.cgi?LINK LOC=BlastHomeAd) and synthesized by Bioneer (Alameda, CA). Primer sequences for amplification of E. coli DH1 and Micrococcus luteus ORFs are listed in Table 2. The coding sequences (CDS) corresponding to the enzymes ShMKS1 (GenBank accession no. AAV87156) (11) and ShMKS2 (GenBank accession no. ADK38536) (31) from S. habrochaites, and UcFatB1 (GenBank accession no. Q41635) from Umbellularia californica (32) were synthesized and codon optimized for expression in E. coli by GenScript (Piscataway, NJ). Codon-optimized sequences are listed in Table S1. **Media and bacterial growth.** E. coli was propagated as previously described (23). For studies of heterologous gene expression in E. coli strains, cells were grown in 15 ml of tryptic soy broth (containing 0.2% glucose) in 30-ml glass tubes with 200-rpm agitation at 37°C, unless indicated otherwise, for up to 72 hours before being harvested for analysis. Frozen glycerol stocks were used as inocula for the studies described here, unless noted otherwise. When required, antibiotics were added to the growth medium at the following final concentrations: chloramphenicol, 25

μg/ml; kanamycin, 50 μg/ml. A final concentration of 0.5 mM IPTG was added to cultures after 6 hours when induction of genes was required. Plasmid and strain construction for heterologous expression in E. coli. Cloning of M. luteus and E. coli genes into expression plasmids were carried out as previously described (5). All primers used to amplify target genes are listed in Table 2. PCR products and plasmid DNA were digested with the appropriate restriction enzymes and purified with QIAquick gel extraction and/or PCR purification kits (QIAGEN) before being ligated and transformed into E. coli. When no appropriate restriction sites were available for generating cohesive ends for ligation, sequence and ligation independent cloning (SLIC) was performed as described by Li and Elledge (17). Proper clone construction was confirmed by DNA sequencing, which was performed by Quintara Biosciences (Berkeley, CA). Expression of heterologous genes in constructs was confirmed by extraction of proteins, tryptic digestion, and analysis of the resulting peptides by electrospray ionization liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC/MS/MS)(QSTAR Elite Hybrid Quadrupole TOF, Applied Biosystems). Mutations of genes were performed as described for the QuikChange site-directed mutagenesis kit (Agilent) using primers designed with nucleotide changes that corresponded to the desired amino acid substitutions. To knock out E. coli genes, in-frame chromosomal deletion of E. coli genes was carried using the method of Datsenko and co-workers (2, 7). Extraction of methyl ketones and related metabolites from bacterial cultures. For most samples, methyl ketones and other metabolites were extracted from cultures using a decane overlay. For overlay extractions, 1 ml of decane (Sigma, ReagentPlus ≥ 99% purity) amended with perdeuterated decane  $(C_{10}D_{22})$  and tetracosane  $(C_{24}D_{50})$  internal standards was added to fifteen-ml cultures in 30-ml glass tubes following induction with IPTG. 50 µl of decane overlay

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was removed at specified time points, up to 72 hrs, for direct gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC/MS) analysis. For low-concentration samples in which methyl ketones were not detectable using decane overlays, extractions of cell pellets were performed as previously described (5). For all extractions, culture tubes were pre-cleaned with high purity acetone before being autoclaved. All other glass and PTFE surfaces were also rigorously cleaned with highpurity acetone and an effort was made to ensure that solvent extracts contacted only glass or PTFE surfaces, whenever possible. Metabolite data described in the Results section are from 72hr overlays unless indicated otherwise. For fatty acid analysis, 50-ul aliquots of extracts were derivatized with ethereal diazomethane to generate fatty acid methyl esters (FAME), as previously described (5). Analysis by GC/MS. For electron ionization (EI) GC/MS analyses with a quadrupole mass spectrometer, studies were performed with a model 7890A GC (Agilent) with a DB-5 fused silica capillary column (30-m length, 0.25-mm inner diameter, 0.25-µm film thickness; J & W Scientific) coupled to an HP 5975C series mass selective detector; 1 µl injections were performed by a model 7683B autosampler. The GC oven was typically programmed from 40°C (held for 3 min) to 300°C at 15°C/min and then held for 5 min; the injection port temperature was 250°C, and the transfer line temperature was 280°C. The carrier gas, ultra high-purity helium, flowed at a constant rate of 1 ml/min. Injections were splitless, with the split turned on after 0.5 min. For full-scan data acquisition, the MS typically scanned from 50 to 600 atomic mass units at a rate of 2.7 scans per s. For saturated methyl ketones  $(C_{11}, C_{13}, C_{15})$ , external standard quantification (m/z 58 areas) was performed with authentic standards. For monounsaturated ketones, no authentic standards were available, so external standard quantification relied on total ion chromatogram (TIC) areas and saturated methyl ketone standards with the appropriate chain

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160 length. Thus, in the absence of authentic standards, unsaturated methyl ketone data should be 161 considered as estimates. 162 Analysis by liquid chromatography – atmospheric pressure chemical ionization – time of 163 flight (LC-APCI-TOF) mass spectrometry. Liquid chromatographic separation of methyl 164 ketones was conducted at 55°C with an Inertsil ODS-3 reverse-phase column (250-mm length, 165 2.1-mm internal diameter, 3-µm particle size; GL Sciences, Inc., Torrance, CA) using a 1200 166 Series HPLC (high-performance liquid chromatography) system (Agilent Technologies, CA). 167 The injection volume for each measurement was 2 µl. The mobile phase was composed of water 168 (solvent A) and methanol (solvent B) (HPLC grade, Honeywell Burdick & Jackson, CA). Methyl 169 ketones were separated with the following gradient: 60% to 98% B for 10 min, held at 98% B for 170 15 min, 98% to 60% B for 17 min, held at 60% B for 8 min. A flow rate of 0.19 mL/min was 171 used throughout. 172 The HPLC system was coupled to an Agilent Technologies 6210 time-of-flight mass 173 spectrometer (TOF MS) with a 1:4 post-column split. Nitrogen gas was used as both the 174 nebulizing and drying gas to facilitate the production of gas-phase ions. The drying and 175 nebulizing gases were set to 10 l/min and 30 psi, respectively, and a drying gas temperature of 176 325°C was used throughout. The vaporizer and corona were set to 350°C and 4 μA, respectively. 177 APCI was conducted in the positive-ion mode with a capillary voltage of 3 kV. MS experiments 178 were carried out in the full-scan mode (m/z 102–1000) at 0.86 spectra per s for the detection of  $[M + H]^+$  ions. The instrument was tuned for a range of m/z 50 – 1700. Prior to LC-APCI-TOF 179 180 MS analysis, the TOF MS was calibrated with the Agilent APCI TOF tuning mix. Data 181 acquisition and processing were performed by the MassHunter software package (Agilent 182 Technologies).

*In vitro* assay to generate pentadecenone. His-tagged acyl-CoA oxidase (Mlut 11700) and His-tagged E. coli FadB were purified as previously described (5). A 1-ml acyl-CoA oxidase assay was conducted in a screw-cap glass vial containing 1.5 mM palmitoleovl-CoA (Sigma), 400 µg of acyl-CoA oxidase, 150 µg/ml BSA, 0.1 mM FAD, and 0.1 M potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.5). The reaction was incubated on a rotary shaker at 30°C for 3 hr and 4 U of catalase (Sigma) was added to the mixture and incubated as before for another 30 min at 37°C to remove the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> generated by the acyl-CoA oxidase. 250 µl of the acyl-CoA oxidase reaction mixture was added to a 4-ml screw-cap glass vial with a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE)-lined septum for the 1-ml FadB assay, which also contained 400 µg/ml of BSA, 300 mM NAD, 600 µg of FadB, and 0.1 M potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.5). Controls included assay mixtures without FadB. Reactions were incubated on the rotary shaker overnight (~18 hrs) at 37°C. For extraction of assay products, 1 ml hexane (amended with C<sub>10</sub>D<sub>22</sub> internal standard) was added to the assay solution, mixed well, allowed to sit for 20 min, and the solvent layer was transferred to a 10-ml conical glass vial. The extraction step was repeated and the two 1-mL aliquots of hexane were combined and then concentrated to 50 µl under a gentle stream of ultra high-purity  $N_2$  for subsequent analysis by GC/MS. Transcriptional studies of E. coli with reverse transcription-quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-qPCR) and microarray analyses. For transcriptional studies, E. coli cultures were grown in 15 ml of tryptic soy broth in a 30-ml glass tube as described above, induced with IPTG after 6 hours, and harvested at 8 hours into 2 ml of ethanol solution containing 5% phenol to stop further transcription and preserve RNA integrity. Cell cultures were spun down and the pellets were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until RNA extraction. Extraction and purification of RNA were carried out with the QIAGEN RNeasy Mini kit and

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treated on-column with RNase-free DNase I (Qiagen). Concentration and integrity of RNA were determined with a Thermo Scientific Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer and an Agilent 2100 BioAnalyzer, respectively.

Synthesis of cDNA for RT-qPCR analysis was carried out using 1 μg of total RNA primed with 60 μM of random hexamers and reverse transcribed using a Transcriptor First Strand cDNA synthesis kit (Roche, Germany). qPCR analyses were then conducted on an Applied Biosystems StepOne system using 1 μl of the reverse transcription reaction and genespecific primers (Table 2) and the PerfeCTa SYBR Green FastMix (Quanta Biosciences, Gaithersburg, MD). Quantitative PCR cycle parameters were as follows: initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min, followed by 40 cycles of 1 s denaturation at 95°C and 30 s annealing and extension at 60°C. Fluorescence measurements were taken between each cycle. At the conclusion of the qPCR cycle, melting curve analysis was conducted by denaturing the PCR products from 60°C to 95°C and making fluorescence measurements at 0.3°C increments. All reactions were performed in triplicate. Transcripts were quantified with a standard curve generated by serial dilution of pEG855 (from 10<sup>5</sup> to 10<sup>10</sup> copies/reaction) and normalized to the internal reference gene, *hcaT* (34).

To perform microarray analyses, 10 μg of total RNA primed with 5 μg of random hexamers (Roche, Germany) were reverse transcribed using the SuperScript™ Indirect cDNA labeling kit (Invitrogen). Alexa Fluor 555 dyes (Invitrogen) were then incorporated into aminoallyl-dUTP-labeled cDNA, the fluorescently labeled cDNA was purified with the QiaQuick PCR purification kit (Qiagen) and dried under vacuum (Vacufuge Speed Vac, Eppendorf). Labeled cDNA was hybridized to the four-plex NimbleGen *E. coli* K-12 (Roche) Expression microarray chip (catalog no. A6697-00-01), which contains duplicates of 8 different 60-mer probes for each

of the 4,254 genes in the *E. coli* K-12 genome, at 42°C for 20 - 24 hours as recommended by the manufacturer. After hybridization, microarray chips were scanned with a GenePix 4000B scanner and data were extracted using NimbleScan software. Array normalization was performed using the Robust Multiarray Average (RMA) technique as described by Irizarry *et al* (13). The normalized expression values generated in RMA pair files were imported into Excel and statistical analyses were performed with the Significance Analysis of Microarray (SAM) add-on (29).

Cetane number determination. Cetane number (CN) determinations of selected methyl ketones (Sigma) were performed by the Southwest Research Institute (San Antonio, TX) according to ASTM (American Society for Testing and Materials) method D613, with no modifications.

Microarray data accession number. Microarray data have been deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo) under accession number GPL14649.

244 RESULTS

245	<b>Detection of methyl ketones in </b> <i>E. coli</i> <b>fatty acid-overproducing strains.</b> Previous studies of
246	alkene biosynthesis in <i>Micrococcus luteus</i> (5) in which <i>M. luteus</i> condensing enzymes [e.g.,
247	FabH ( $\beta$ -ketoacyl-ACP synthase III) and FabF ( $\beta$ -ketoacyl-ACP synthase II)] were
248	heterologously expressed in a fatty acid-overproducing strain of E. coli DH1 resulted in
249	unexpected GC/MS detection of methyl ketones. Authentic standards were used to confirm that
250	these compounds were 2-undecanone ( $C_{11}$ ), 2-tridecanone ( $C_{13}$ ; the predominant methyl ketone),
251	and 2-pentadecanone ( $C_{15}$ ). Furthermore, we observed that overexpression of the $M$ . luteus fabH
252	(MlfabH; Mlut_09310) resulted in an increase in methyl ketone concentration relative to the fatty
253	acid-overproducing control strain, particularly on an OD-normalized basis (Figure 1; Figure S1).
254	Enhancement of methyl ketone generation by overproduction of β–ketoacyl-CoAs. Several
255	factors led us to hypothesize that increasing the production of $\beta$ –ketoacyl-CoAs would lead to
256	better production of methyl ketones: (a) the long-held hypothesis that, in fungi, methyl ketones
257	arise from incomplete $\beta$ -oxidation of fatty acids and decarboxylation of $\beta$ -keto acids (10), (b)
258	methyl ketones were observed at higher concentration in fatty acid-overproducing DH1 strains
259	than in wild-type DH1 (data not shown), and (c) the carbon-chain lengths of the observed methyl
260	ketones were consistent with decarboxylation of prominent fatty acids in DH1 (i.e., $C_{12}$ , $C_{14}$ , and
261	$C_{16}$ ). To test this hypothesis and increase levels of $\beta$ -ketoacyl-CoAs, we constructed a modified,
262	truncated fatty acid $\beta$ -oxidation pathway in DH1 (Figure 2).
263	The native fatty acid $\beta$ -oxidation pathway in <i>E. coli</i> strain DH1 begins with the
264	conversion of free fatty acids into acyl-CoAs by an acyl-CoA synthetase (FadD). The acyl-CoA
265	is then oxidized to a 2,3-enoyl-CoA by a FAD-dependent acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (FadE).
266	Next, FadB catalyzes a hydratase reaction to form a $\beta$ -hydroxyacyl-CoA, which is then oxidized

to a β–ketoacyl-CoA (also catalyzed by the bifunctional FadB). The cycle is completed by CoA-mediated thiolytic cleavage of a β–ketoacyl-CoA to acetyl-CoA and a shorter (n-2) acyl-CoA, a reaction catalyzed by FadA. Our strategy to increase levels of β-ketoacyl-CoAs involved the following steps: (a) overexpression of a heterologous acyl-CoA oxidase used in lieu of FadE, (b) overexpression of the native FadB, and (c) deletion of *fadA* from the chromosome to truncate the β–oxidation cycle at β–ketoacyl-CoA. We chose to replace FadE with an acyl-CoA oxidase because the latter enzyme is a highly soluble protein (FadE is membrane associated) and has much higher specific activity than FadE (3, 4). Based upon reports of a high-activity acyl-CoA oxidase from *Arthrobacter ureafaciens* (3), we selected an apparent homolog (Mlut\_11700; 63% protein sequence identity) from the related actinobacterium, *M. luteus*. Both Mlut\_11700 and *E. coli fadB* were cloned into the low-copy pKS1 vector downstream of the 'tesA (thioesterase) gene (Table 1). The chromosomal deletion of *fadA* in *E. coli* DH1 was performed as described in the Materials and Methods section.

GC/MS analyses of extracts of  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing strains indicated dramatic increases in methyl ketone production relative to fatty acid-overproducing strains (e.g., a ~75-fold increase for strain EGS560 versus strain EGS084) (Table 3, Figure 1). Concentration trends were similar on an OD-normalized basis (compare Figure 1 and Figure S1). 2-Tridecanone was the predominant methyl ketone observed in  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing strains as it was in fatty acid-overproducing strains (Figure 1).

Identification of candidate *E. coli* thioesterase genes involved in methyl ketone production. We demonstrated that overproduction of  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-CoAs increased methyl ketone production, however it was unclear whether native *E. coli* proteins were facilitating conversion of the  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-CoAs to methyl ketones (e.g., by hydrolysis of the CoA thioester bond to generate a

free β-keto acid and/or decarboxylation of the β-keto acid; Figure 2). Further investigation of the enhancement of methyl ketone production in the presence of *MlfabH* suggested that indeed native *E. coli* proteins were facilitating conversion of β-ketoacyl-CoAs to methyl ketones. More specifically, when we mutated the conserved, well-characterized catalytic triad residues (C123S–H275A–N306A) of *Ml*FabH (strain EGS735, Table 1), which should have rendered FabH enzymatically inactive (8), enhancement of methyl ketones was comparable to that observed in the strain expressing wild-type *Ml*FabH (EGS212) (within 10%). This suggested that *MlfabH* expression had an epigenetic rather than catalytic effect, potentially upregulating native genes whose products facilitated methyl ketone production.

To explore the possibility that native *E. coli* DH1 proteins that could facilitate methyl ketone synthesis were being upregulated in the presence of *MlfabH*, we performed wholegenome transcriptional (microarray) analysis of strains EGS212 (*MlfabH*; Table 1) and EGS084 (control; empty vector). Using the Significance Analysis of Microarray (SAM) software package, we were able to narrow down the number of significantly upregulated genes to 55 that had a false discovery rate (FDR) of 0.6% or less (Figure S2 and Table S2). Of these significantly upregulated genes, only 7 were annotated to be associated with metabolism, and two thioesterases (*paal* and *fadM*) were the most upregulated genes in this group (Table 4). RT-qPCR analyses confirmed that *fadM* was upregulated approximately 2-fold in strain EGS212 compared to strain EGS084.

Overexpression of the *E. coli fadM* thioesterase enhances methyl ketone production. The two thioesterase genes observed to be upregulated in the presence of *MI*FabH were overexpressed in a fatty acid-overproducing host (*fadM* in strain EGS860 and *paaI* in strain EGS790; Table 1) and the effect on methyl ketone production was assessed. Overexpression of

paal slightly decreased methyl ketone production (~ 30%; data not shown) but overexpression of fadM resulted in approximately a 2-fold increase in 2-tridecanone (relative to the empty-vector control, strain EGS084) (Figure 1). Furthermore, overexpression of fadM in a β-ketoacyl-CoAoverproducing strain (strain EGS895; Table 1) resulted in a 9-fold increase in methyl ketone production (relative to the empty-vector control, strain EGS560) (Table 3, Figure 1). A broader range of methyl ketones (including monounsaturates) is produced in β-ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing strains expressing FadM. In addition to producing higher concentrations of 2-undecanone, 2-tridecanone, and 2-pentadecanone relative to fatty acid-overproducing strains and/or strains without fadM overexpression (Figure 1), strain EGS895 also produced a wider range of detectable methyl ketones. This included 2-nonanone ( $C_9$ ) and 2-heptadecanone ( $C_{17}$ ) at low relative concentration (< 1% of 2-tridecanone levels) and prominent peaks that are identified as monounsaturated methyl ketones. A representative GC/MS chromatogram of a diluted decane overlay of strain EGS895 is presented in Figure 3A. Peaks A and B (Figure 3A) are identified as tridecenone (C<sub>13</sub>H<sub>24</sub>O) and pentadecenone (C<sub>15</sub>H<sub>28</sub>O), respectively, based upon electronionization GC/MS spectra (Figure 3B and C), LC-APCI-TOF MS analysis, and comparison to a pentadecenone standard synthesized in vitro. Although authentic standards are not commercially available for tridecenone and pentadecenone, the TOF-determined accurate masses of the molecular ions representing peaks A and B agreed extremely well (within 0.5 ppm relative error) with the calculated masses for  $C_{13}H_{24}O$  and  $C_{15}H_{28}O$ . Furthermore, the base peak at m/z 43 in both EI spectra (Figure 3B,C) is consistent with the [CH<sub>3</sub>-CO<sup>+</sup>] fragment characteristic of methyl ketones. Finally, an *in vitro* assay containing the CoA thioester of palmitoleic acid [(Z)-9hexadecenoic acid), acyl-CoA oxidase (from M. luteus), E. coli DH1 FadB, and appropriate cofactors resulted in the formation of a compound with an identical GC/MS retention time and

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mass spectrum as Peak B; this compound was not observed in an assay lacking FadB. Notably, an analogous assay using tetradecanoyl-CoA rather than palmitoleoyl-CoA resulted in the formation of 2-tridecanone. This strongly suggests that Peak B is (Z)-8-pentadecen-2-one (15:1 methyl ketone), which was derived from palmitoleic acid (16:1 fatty acid). By analogy to Peak B, it is logical to conclude that Peak A is (Z)-8-tridecen-2-one derived from myristoleic acid (14:1 fatty acid). However, the mass spectral fragmentation patterns of Peaks A and B differ somewhat in the region between m/z 50 and 120, so the position of the double bond in the tridecenone is less certain.

A summary of the quantitative relationships between methyl ketones (both saturated and unsaturated) and their presumed fatty acid precursors is presented in Table 5. Among the trends apparent from Table 5 is that ratios of fatty acid precursors to the daughter methyl ketones are much greater in fatty acid-overproducing strains (EGS084 and EGS860) than in  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing strains (EGS560 and EGS895), suggesting that overall conversion of fatty acids to methyl ketones is far more efficient in the  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing strains. In addition, ratios of fatty acid precursors to the daughter methyl ketones are typically lower in strains with overexpressed FadM (EGS860 and EGS895) than in those without (EGS084 and EGS560, respectively), further suggesting that FadM improves the conversion of fatty acids to methyl ketones.

**Further characterization of the best methyl ketone-producing strain (EGS895).** The relative distribution of methyl ketones produced by strain EGS895 (the best producing strain in this study) is as follows (expressed as percent of total methyl ketones): 2-undecanone (15%), 2-tridecanone (36%), 2-pentadecenone (26%), 2-pentadecanone (6%). The total concentration of methyl ketones produced by strain EGS895 was 380 ± 38 mg/L for freshly

transformed cells (pEG855) and  $110 \pm 32$  mg/L in cells grown from frozen glycerol stocks. A times series of methyl ketone production by strain EGS895 over 72 hr (Figure S3) indicates that production begins in post-exponential phase and that the production rate decreases between 48 and 72 hr.

**Strategies to modify methyl ketone composition.** Degree of unsaturation and chain length are important factors that mediate key properties of diesel fuels (e.g., low-temperature properties, represented here by melting point, and CN). Three modifications to the genotype or cultivation of strain EGS895 were examined to determine their impact on overall methyl ketone composition and production.

The first strategy involved changing the cultivation temperature of EGS895 to increase degree of unsaturation and thereby decrease melting point. We found that indeed the ratios of the dominant unsaturated methyl ketones (C<sub>13</sub> and C<sub>15</sub>) to their saturated analogs increased considerably when strain EGS895 was cultivated at lower temperature. To illustrate, at 37°C, the ratio of tridecenone/tridecanone was 0.45, but at 15°C it increased to 0.93. Similarly, at 37°C, the ratio of pentadecenone/pentadecanone was 4, but at 15°C it increased to 8.5.

The second strategy was to replace the native 'TesA acyl-ACP thioesterase with *Uc*FatB1 (strain EGS975, Table 1), a plant-derived thioesterase that has a stronger preference toward C<sub>12:0</sub> acyl-ACP than does 'TesA (32). Based on the substrate preference of *Uc*FatB1, we anticipated an increase in the proportion of undecanone (derived from C<sub>12</sub> fatty acid) and a corresponding decrease in melting point. As expected, the ratio of undecanone to tridecanone increased from 0.1 in strain EGS895 to 0.4 in strain EGS975, but unexpectedly the pentadecanone to tridecanone ratio increased from 0.24 in strain EGS895 to 0.82 in strain EGS975.

Although both strategies achieved the intended objective of altering methyl ketone composition, they also resulted in lower total methyl ketone production (from 2- to 5-fold lower) than strain EGS895 cultivated at 37°C. Finally, an attempt was made to increase methyl ketone production by increasing the flux of free fatty acids into the  $\beta$ -oxidation pathway. To accomplish this, E. coli FadD (fatty acyl-CoA synthetase; see Figure 2) was overexpressed in strain EGS895. However, this modification also resulted in a 2-fold decrease rather than an increase in methyl ketone production. Methyl ketone production in strains containing fadM compared to production in strains **containing known methyl ketone synthases.** To date, the only proteins that have been experimentally verified as methyl ketone synthases are ShMKS1 and ShMKS2 from S. habrochaites and homologous proteins in other plants (6, 31). ShMKS2 has been described as a "hot-dog"-fold-family thioesterase that hydrolyzes β–ketoacyl-ACPs (intermediates of fatty acid biosynthesis) and ShMKS1 is a decarboxylase that acts on  $\beta$ -keto acids (such as those produced by ShMKS2) (31). Since FadM, like ShMKS2, is a thioesterase belonging to the "hotdog" fold protein family (in this case hydrolyzing long-chain acyl-CoAs) (20), we were curious about the relative effects of overexpression of these proteins on methyl ketone production. Comparisons were made of methyl ketone (2-tridecanone) production in wild-type, fatty acidoverproducing, and β-ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing DH1 strains overexpressing fadM, ShMKS2, or ShMKS1+ShMKS2 (Figure 4). Proteomics analyses confirmed ample expression of ShMKS1 and ShMKS2 in these studies. In all strains tested, constructs overexpressing ShMKS2 or ShMKS1+ShMKS2 never produced a 2-tridecanone concentration exceeding 5% that of strain EGS895 (a β–ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing, FadM-overexpressing strain). Two aspects of the data in Figure 4 were unexpected: (a) the best methyl ketone production in a strain containing

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ShMKS2 was in the wild-type host (strain EGS1140) rather than in a fatty acid- or β–ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing host, and (b) overexpression of ShMKS1 with ShMKS2 never improved methyl ketone production, and in some cases it detracted considerably from methyl ketone production. Regarding the latter point, overexpression of ShMKS1 also detracted from methyl ketone production in strains overexpressing FadM. To illustrate, in β-ketoacyl-CoAoverproducing DH1 strains overexpressing fadM plus ShMKS1 (with or without its own Ptrc promoter; strains EGS1115 and EGS1120, respectively), 2-tridecanone concentrations were approximately 5-fold lower than in strain EGS895, which did not contain ShMKS1 (data not shown). The reason that ShMKS1 decreased methyl ketone production is unknown. Effect of decane overlay on production. In strains with very low methyl ketone production (primarily wild-type E. coli DH1), an exhaustive extraction of the cell pellet (using methods described previously (5)) was necessary. However, decane overlays were usable for all other strains. Methyl ketone production was considerably higher when fatty acid- or β-ketoacyl-CoAoverproducing strains were incubated with a decane overlay than when they were sacrificed and the cell pellet exhaustively extracted. To illustrate, for the best producing strain (EGS895; Table 1), the methyl ketone concentration was more than 4-fold greater in the overlay than in the pellet extract at 39 hrs (Table 3). This may be explained by one or more of several factors, including the following: (a) removal of the methyl ketone products provides a thermodynamic driving force for production, (b) the overlay efficiently sequesters methyl ketones that might otherwise be volatilized during cultivation, and (c) removal of methyl ketones (or other metabolites) from the medium may alleviate potentially inhibitory or toxic effects from their accumulation. A comparison between the results of overlay and pellet extractions supports both points (a) and (b). First, the ratio of  $C_{14:0}$  fatty acid to  $C_{13:0}$  methyl ketone for strain EGS895 was 30-fold lower in

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overlays than in pellet extractions; this lower ratio in overlays could be explained by more efficient flux of fatty acids to methyl ketones in the presence of the overlay. Second, the ratio of  $C_{11:0}$  methyl ketone to  $C_{15:0}$  methyl ketone is 2-fold higher for the overlay than for the pellet. Since the  $C_{11:0}$  methyl ketone is more volatile than the  $C_{15:0}$  methyl ketone, the higher ratio in overlays supports the notion that the decane overlay facilitates capture of volatile compounds that would be lost without an overlay. Regarding the final explanation (toxicity mitigation), this seems unlikely because OD values for strain EGS895 were similar in the presence and absence of an overlay, suggesting that methyl ketones are not particularly toxic (at least, not at these concentrations).

Cetane number determination of selected methyl ketones. Cetane number (CN) is a key index indicating overall diesel fuel quality, much as octane number is a widely used indicator of gasoline fuel quality. More specifically, CN is a measure of ignition delay during compression ignition; a higher CN indicates a shorter ignition delay period and is more favorable than a lower CN (up to a CN of 55 to 60). In the U.S., diesel fuel must have a minimum CN of 40, in accordance with ASTM Standard D975. The CN for 2-undecanone (Sigma) was 56.6 and for a 50/50 (wt/wt) mixture of 2-undecanone and 2-tridecanone was 58.4.

444 DISCUSSION

We have engineered a small number of modifications into *E. coli* DH1 that resulted in a 700-fold increase in methyl ketone concentration relative to a fatty acid-overproducing strain. Accounting for the use of decane overlays, the overall increase was more than 4500-fold (Table 3). The modifications included overproduction of β-ketoacyl-CoAs (by overexpression of an acyl-CoA oxidase from *M. luteus* and native FadB, as well as chromosomal deletion of *fadA*) and

overexpression of the native thioesterase, FadM. In all host strains tested (wild-type, fatty acid-overproducing, β-ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing DH1), overexpression of the methyl ketone synthase *Sh*MKS2 never produced methyl ketones at concentrations that were more than 5% of those observed for the best-producing FadM-overexpressing strain.

To some extent, the difference in behavior of the two thioesterases, FadM and ShMKS2, can be explained by their known substrates. FadM has relatively high activity on acyl-CoA substrates between  $C_{12}$  and  $C_{18}$  (particularly 3,5-cis-tetradecadienoyl-CoA) (20), whereas ShMKS2 appears to be well suited to  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-ACPs (31). It follows that a thioesterase that hydrolyzes CoA thioesters (FadM) would be more amenable to acting on  $\beta$ -oxidation intermediates whereas a thioesterase that hydrolyzes ACP thioesters would be more effective at hydrolyzing fatty acid biosynthetic intermediates ( $\beta$ -ketoacyl-ACPs in particular). That said, a limited amount of information is available on the substrate ranges of these two thioesterases (particularly ShMKS2), so the extent to which each favors CoA versus ACP thioesters is unknown (25). Although FadM apparently hydrolyzes  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-CoAs sufficiently to markedly increase methyl ketone yields, it is reported to have considerably (at least 10-fold) higher activity on  $C_{16}$  acyl-CoA than on  $C_{16}$   $\beta$ -ketoacyl-CoA (20).

The best methyl ketone producer studied here (strain EGS895) did not have an added decarboxylase to convert free  $\beta$ -keto acids to methyl ketones. Either a native enzyme catalyzed this reaction, or it occurred abiotically, as  $\beta$ -keto acids are well known to be inherently unstable and prone to spontaneous decarboxylation (16). Spontaneous decarboxylation would not be surprising, as we observed substantial methyl ketone yields from *in vitro* reaction mixtures that produced  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-CoAs from acyl-CoAs; these reaction mixtures lacked both decarboxylases and thioesterases (the only enzymes they contained were acyl-CoA oxidase and FadB). For

unknown reasons, overexpression of the *Sh*MKS1 decarboxylase, which is reported to play a role in methyl ketone synthesis in *S. habrochaites*, markedly decreased methyl ketone synthesis in this study (including strains EGS1115 and EGS1120, which were simply *ShMKS1*-amended versions of EGS895).

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As is the case for other fatty acid-derived biofuels, such as fatty acid ethyl esters, saturated, medium-chain methyl ketones addressed in this article have favorable cetane numbers (CN). A less favorable property of the saturated methyl ketones addressed in this article is relatively high melting point (e.g., 30.5°C for 2-tridecanone; (12)), which is related to coldtemperature diesel fuel properties such as cloud point. This disadvantage could be significantly mitigated by the prominent monounsaturated methyl ketones observed in the best producing strains (monounsaturated methyl ketones account for ~40% of total methyl ketones in strain EGS895). Melting point depression caused by monounsaturation in fatty acid methyl esters illustrates this point. For example, for  $C_{16}$  and  $C_{18}$  fatty acid methyl esters, the  $cis-\Delta^9$ monounsaturated homologs have melting points approximately 60°C lower than those of their saturated counterparts [the melting point of methyl palmitoleate (16:1) is -33.9°C whereas that of methyl palmitate (16:0) is 30°C; the melting point of methyl oleate (18:1) is -19.5°C whereas that of methyl stearate (18:0) is 39°C](15). However, unsaturation can also be expected to decrease CN (e.g., a decrease of  $\sim 30$  in CN applies to  $C_{16}$  fatty acid methyl esters; (15)). In addition to degree of unsaturation, chain length will also affect fuel properties (increasing chain length increases CN and melting point). The ensemble of saturated and unsaturated methyl ketones generated by strain EGS895 (and related strains) may have sufficiently favorable collective fuel properties to be appropriate for blending with petroleum-based diesel. Nonetheless, future efforts will be directed at enhancing methyl ketone production (e.g., by enhancing intracellular malonyl-

496 CoA levels; (33)) and modulating the methyl ketone composition to optimize diesel fuel 497 properties. 498 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS** 499 We thank Tanveer Batth and Christopher Petzold (Functional Genomics Department, 500 Technology Division, JBEI) for mass spectrometric analysis of protein samples, Kenneth 501 Childress (Southwest Research Institute) for cetane number analysis, and Taek Soon Lee (JBEI) 502 for helpful comments on the manuscript. 503 J.D.K. has a financial interest in LS9, Amyris, and Lygos. 504 This work conducted by the Joint BioEnergy Institute was supported by the Office of 505 Science, Office of Biological and Environmental Research, of the U.S. Department of Energy 506 under Contract No. DE-AC02-05CH11231. 507

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TABLE 1. Bacterial strains, plasmids and primers used in this study						
Strain or	Strain or Relevant Characteristics					
plasmid	Relevant Characteristics	reference				
E. coli strains						
BL21 (DE3)	$F^-$ ompT gal dcm lon hsdSB( $r_B^ m_B^-$ ) $\lambda$ (DE3)	(27)				
DH1	endA1 recA1 gyrA96 thi-1 glnV44 relA1 hsdR17(r <sub>K</sub>	(19)				
	$m_K^+$ ) $\lambda^-$					
LT-∆fadE	DH1 ΔfadE with pKS1	(26)				
EGS084	LT-ΔfadE with pEC-XK99E	(5)				
EGS212	LT-ΔfadE with pEG205	(5)				
EGS514	BL21(DE3) with pEG513	This study				
EGS517	BL21(DE3) with pEG516	This study				
EGS522	DH1; ΔfadE; ΔfadA	This study				
EGS560	EGS522 with pEG530 & pEC-XK99E	This study				
EGS700	EGS522 with pEG530 & pEG205	This study				
EGS735	LT-ΔfadE with pEG705	This study				
EGS790	LT-ΔfadE with pEG775	This study				
EGS860	LT-ΔfadE with pEG855	This study				
EGS895	EGS522 with pEG530 & pEG855	This study				
EGS975	EGS522 with pEG955 & pEG855	This study				
EGS1015	EGS522 with pEG530 & pEG990	This study				
EGS1080	EGS522 with pEG530 & pEG1065	This study				
EGS1085	EGS522 with pEG530 & pEG1070	This study				
EGS1090	EGS522 with pEG530 & pEG1075	This study				
EGS1115	EGS522 with pEG530 & pEG1101	This study				
EGS1120	EGS522 with pEG530 & pEG1106	This study				
EGS1135	DH1 with pEG1065	This study				
EGS1140	DH1 with pEG1075	This study				
EGS1150	LT-∆fadE with pEG1065	This study				
EGS1155	LT-ΔfadE with pEG1075	This study				
	•					
M. luteus strains						
ATCC 4698	Wild type	ATCC				
	• •					
Plasmids						
pEC-XK99E	Km <sup>r</sup> ; E. coli - C. glutamicum shuttle expression	(14)				
	vectors based on the medium copy number plasmid					
	pGA1 and containing the <i>trc</i> promoter					
pKS1	Cm <sup>r</sup> ; p15a derivative containing 'tesA under the	(26)				
	lacUV5 promoter					
pKS104	Amp <sup>r</sup> , ColE1 derivative with <i>fadD</i> (M335I), <i>atfA</i>	(26)				
	under the <i>lacUV5</i> promoter					
pSKB3	Km <sup>r</sup> ; A derivative of the expression vector pET-28a	Burley <sup>a</sup>				
	with the thrombin protease site replaced by a TEV					
	protease site.					
pEG205	Km <sup>r</sup> ; ~1-kb fragment of Mlut_09310 ( <i>MlfabH</i> )	(5)				

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	cloned into pEC-XK99E at EcoRI and XbaI sites.	-
pEG513	Km <sup>r</sup> ; ~2.2-kb fragment of <i>fadB</i> (EcDH1_4315)	This study
	cloned into pSKB3 at NdeI and SalI sites.	
pEG516	Km <sup>r</sup> ; ~2.1-kb fragment of Mlut_11700 cloned into	This study
	pSKB3 at NdeI and SalI sites.	
pEG530	Cm <sup>r</sup> ; ~2.1-kb fragment of Mlut_11700 and ~2.2-kb	This study
	fragment of fadB (EcDH1_4315) cloned	
	downstream of the 'tesA gene in pKS1 by SLIC.	
pEG705	Km <sup>r</sup> ; QuikChange mutagenesis of <i>MlfabH</i> in	This study
	pEG205 to the following residues: C123S, H275A,	
	and N306A.	
pEG775	Km <sup>r</sup> ; ~0.4-kb fragment of <i>paal</i> (EcDH1_2249)	This study
700.	cloned into pEC-XK99E at EcoRI and XbaI sites.	
pEG855	Km <sup>r</sup> ; ~0.4-kb fragment of <i>fadM</i> (EcDH1_3166)	This study
EG055	cloned into pEC-XK99E at EcoRI and XbaI sites.	m: 1
pEG955	$Cm^r$ ; ~2.2-kb fragment of L-mbp-UCfatB1, ~2.1-kb	This study
	fragment of Mlut_11700 and 2.2-kb fragment of	
	fadB cloned into pKS1 (digested with MfeI and SalI	
EC000	to remove 'tesA') by SLIC.	TT1 : 4 1
pEG990	Km <sup>r</sup> ; ~1.7-kb of <i>fadD</i> M335I allele from pKS104	This study
EC1065	cloned downstream of <i>fadM</i> in pEG855 by SLIC.	This -4- 4-
pEG1065	$Km^{r}$ ; ~0.8-kb fragment of <i>ShMKS1</i> and ~0.6-kb	This study
	fragment of <i>ShMKS2</i> cloned into pEC-XK99E at	
"EC1070	BamHI and Sall sites by SLIC.	This study
pEG1070	Km <sup>r</sup> ; ~0.8-kb fragment of <i>ShMKS1</i> cloned into pEC-XK99E at BamHI and XbaI sites.	This study
pEG1075	Km <sup>r</sup> ; ~0.6-kb fragment of <i>ShMKS2</i> cloned into	This study
pEG1073	pEC-XK99E at BamHI and XbaI sites.	Tills Study
pEG1101	$Km^{r}$ ; ~ 0.9-kb fragment of $p_{trc}$ -ShMKS1 cloned	This study
pEGITOI	downstream of <i>fadM</i> in pEG855 by SLIC.	Tills study
pEG1106	$Km^{r}$ ; ~ 0.8-kb fragment of <i>ShMKS1</i> cloned	This study
P201100	downstream of <i>fadM</i> in pEG855 by SLIC.	IIII Staay
pEG1145	$Km^{r}$ ; ~1.2-kb fragment of <i>hcaT</i> (EcDH1 1132) into	This study
P2011.0	pEC-XK99E at EcoRI and XbaI sites.	IIII Staaj
o Storels our	V Duelay	

600 a Stephen K. Burley.

601 TABLE 2. Primers used in this study

Target genes	Primer name	Primer Sequence <sup>a,b</sup> (5'→3')
Primers use	ed for target gene amplification	1
fadB	DH1_fadB_SLIC_F1	GCGAAGCAGTTGCAGCCTTTAGTAAATCAT GACTCATAAGAGCTCGGTACGACCAGATCA CCTTGCGG
	DH1_fadB_SLIC_R1	TGGACGGTCATGACGATGCTCCTGTTCGTG AGTGGGGGCGTTCGAACGGCCCATCGGGGT
	DH1_fadB_F1	CTGC <u>CATATG</u> CTTTACAAAGGCGACACCCT GT
	DH1_fadB_R1	TACAGAATTCGAACGGCCCATCGGGGTG
fadM	DH1_fadM_F1	CGCT <u>GAATTC</u> ACAACGTAAGGTTATTGCGC TATGC
	DH1_fadM_R1	ATGT <u>TCTAGA</u> CTTGAGCATCCGGCACCACA AAAC
hcaT	DH1_hcaT_F1	TACT <u>GAATTC</u> CCTGACGGGAGGGACTCATG GT
	DH1_hcaT_R1	GCTA <u>TCTAGA</u> GGAGCAGATCCGCAAAATGC TCG
l-mbp	L-mbp_SLIC_F1	TGTGGAATTGTGAGCGGATAACAATTGCAC CAACAAGGACCATAGCATATGAAAATCGA AGAAGGTAAACTGGT
	L-mbp_SLIC_R1	AAGGCGCTTGCCAGGCTCGTCGTTGCCATC CCGAGGTTGTTGTTATTGTTG
paaI	DH1_paaI_F1	AGTG <u>GAATTC</u> GGGCGCTTCTGGAGAGCGGT TA
	DH1_paaI_R1	TTAT <u>TCTAGA</u> GGCTTCACGCATCAGGCTTCT CC
ptrc	Ptrc_SLIC_F1	GTTTTGTGGTGCCGGATGCTCAAGTCTAGA TATCATCGACTGCACGGTGC
	Ptrc_SLIC_R1	TTCCATGTTTCCTCCTGCGCAGGGAATTCCA TGGTCTGTTTCCTGTGTGA
ShMKS1	MKS1_SLIC_F1(MKS2)	CGTCCAGCATCATCTGTAATCTAGACCTGC GCAGGAGGAAACATGGAA
	MKS1_SLIC_F2 (fadM)	TTTTGTGGTGCCGGATGCTCAAGTCTAGAC CTGCGCAGGAGGAAACATGGAA
	MKS1_SLIC_F3 (ptrc)	TCACACAGGAAACAGACCATGGAATTCCCT GCGCAGGAGGAAACATGGAA
	MKS1_SLIC_R1	GCCAAGCTTGCATGCCTGCAGGTCGACTCA TTTGTATTTATTAGCGATGG
ShMKS2	MKS2_SLIC_F1	TCACACAGGAAACAGACCATGGGATCCCCT GCGCAGGAGGAAACATGTCAC
	MKS2_SLIC_R1	TTCCATGTTTCCTCCTGCGCAGGTCTAGATTACAGATGATGCTGGACG

Mlut_09310	Mlut_09310_C123S_F1	TCTCCGCCGCGAGCGCCGGCTAC
	Mlut_09310_C123S_R1	GTAGCCGGCGCTCGCGGCGGAGA
	Mlut_09310_H275A_F1	CCGCGTTCATCCCGGCCCAGGCCAACATGC
	Mlut_09310_H275A_R1	GCATGTTGGCCTGGGCCGGGATGAACGCGG
	Mlut_09310_N306A_F1	GCGGACGCCGGCGCCACGTCGGCCGC
	Mlut 09310 N306A R1	GCGGCCGACGTGGCGCCGGCGTCCGC
Mlut 11700	Mlut 11700 SLIC F1	<u>GTCATTGTCGATGCAATTCGCACCCCGATG</u>
_		<u>GGCCGTTCGAA</u> CGCCCCCACTCACGAACAG
		G
	Mlut_11700_SLIC R1	TGCCTCTAGCACGCGTCTCACTATAGGGCG
		<u>AATTGGAGCTC</u> CACCGCGAGGTGACGGGG
	Mlut 11700 F2	GATT <u>CATATG</u> ACCGTCCACGAGAAGCTCGC
	Mlut_11700_R2	GATT <u>GAATTC</u> ACCGCGAGGTGACGGGG
UcfatB1	UcfatB1_SLIC_F1	<u>CAACAATAACAATAACAACAACCTCGGG</u> AT
-		GGCAACGACGAGCCTGGCAAGCGCCTT
	UcfatB1 SLIC R1	<u>ATCCGCAAGGTGATCTGGTCGTACGAGCTC</u>
	_ <b>_</b>	TCACACACGCGGTTCAGCCGGAAT

## Primers used for real-time PCR

$f_{\alpha}JM$	fadM_qPCR_ F1	CCGCTACCTTGAATTTCTCG	
fadM	fadM qPCR R1	ACGACGAAGGCGATGTTATG	
la a a T	hcaT_qPCR_F1	GCTGATGCTGGTGATGATTG	
hcaT	hcaT qPCR R1	AGTCGCACTTTGCCGTAATC	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Underlined sequences indicate restriction sites or homology regions used for cloning purposes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Bold sequences indicate nucleotide changes from wild-type gene to generate site-directed mutations.

# TABLE 3. Fold improvements in total methyl ketone production<sup>a</sup> resulting from genetic

## modifications and the presence of a decane overlay

	Strains		Overlay			
	Strains	EGS895 <sup>b</sup>	EGS560 <sup>c</sup>	EGS084 <sup>d</sup>		
ıy	EGS084	700	76			
Overlay	EGS560	9.0				
0	EGS895					
e	EGS084	4600	500	6.6		
<b>Pellet</b> <sup>e</sup>	EGS560	61	6.6			
F	EGS895	4.7				

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- Ratios of total methyl ketone concentrations at 39 hrs. Individual and total methyl ketone concentrations in these strains are presented in Table S3.
- Strain EGS895 β-Ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing, FadM-overexpressing (full description in Table 1)
- 618 c Strain EGS560 β-Ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing control without FadM (full description in Table 1)
- 620 d Strain EGS084 Fatty acid-overproducing control without FadM (full description in Table 1)
- 622 e Cell pellet extracted after incubation, no decane overlay used.

TABLE 4. List of metabolic genes that were significantly upregulated during heterologous expression of *MI*FabH<sup>a</sup>.

Gene ID	Gene Name	Fold Change	Function	
b1396	paaI	3.4	predicted thioesterase <sup>b</sup>	
b0443	fadM	2.3	long-chain acyl-CoA thioesterase III <sup>b</sup>	
b0459	maa	2.1	maltose O-acetyltransferase	
b4040	ubiA	2.0	<i>p</i> -hydroxybenzoate octaprenyltransferase	
b3769	ilvM	2.0	acetolactate synthase II, small subunit	
b4039	ubiC	1.9	chorismate pyruvate-lyase	
b1400	paaY	1.7	predicted hexapeptide repeat acetyltransferase	

Based upon whole-genome microarray analysis of strain EGS212 and control strain EGS084.

b The two thioesterase genes used for further characterization are indicated in bold.

TABLE 5. Molar ratios of precursor fatty acids to their daughter methyl ketones in fatty acid and β-ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing strains of *E. coli* DH1 with and without *fadM* overexpression.

Strains		C <sub>12</sub> fatty acid / C <sub>11</sub> methyl ketone <sup>a</sup>	C <sub>14</sub> fatty acid / C <sub>13</sub> methyl ketone	C <sub>14:1</sub> fatty acid / C <sub>13:1</sub> methyl ketone <sup>b</sup>	C <sub>16</sub> fatty acid / C <sub>15</sub> methyl ketone	C <sub>16:1</sub> fatty acid / C <sub>15:1</sub> methyl ketone
low PI	EGS084	35	112	NA <sup>c</sup>	220	NA
Methyl ketone yield	EGS860	33	30	6.2	41	68
	EGS560	0.50	0.40	0.13	0.97	$0^{d}$
Ĭ <b>√</b> high	EGS895	0.078	0.041	0.018	0.17	0.0052

635 Fatty acids were determined as methyl esters.

636 b "X:Y" notation represents "# carbon atoms : # C=C double bonds"

637 ° Not Applicable; unsaturated methyl ketone was not detected.

638 d Fatty acid (16:1) not detected

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v	J	_

### FIGURE LEGENDS

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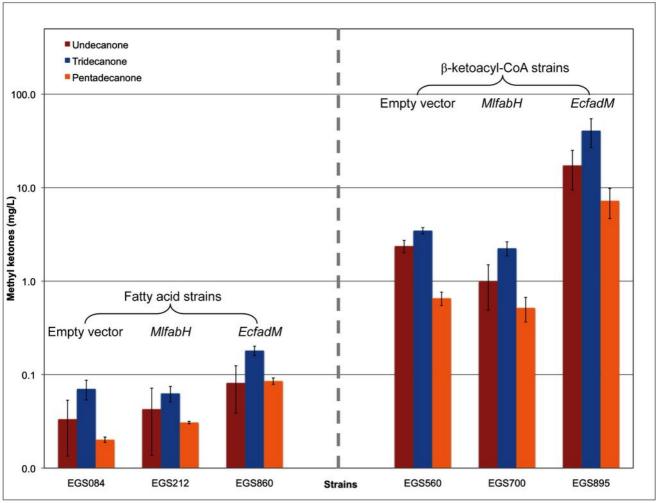
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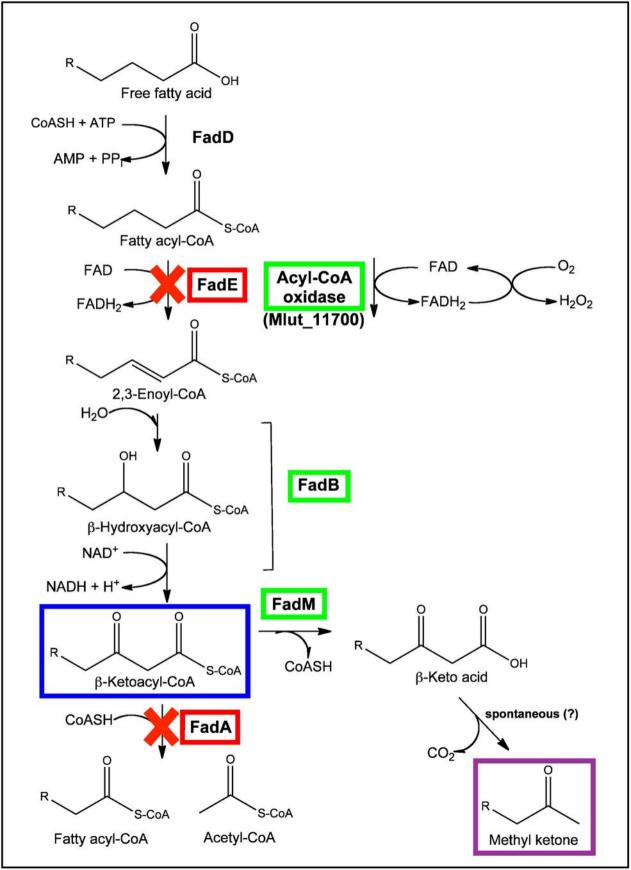
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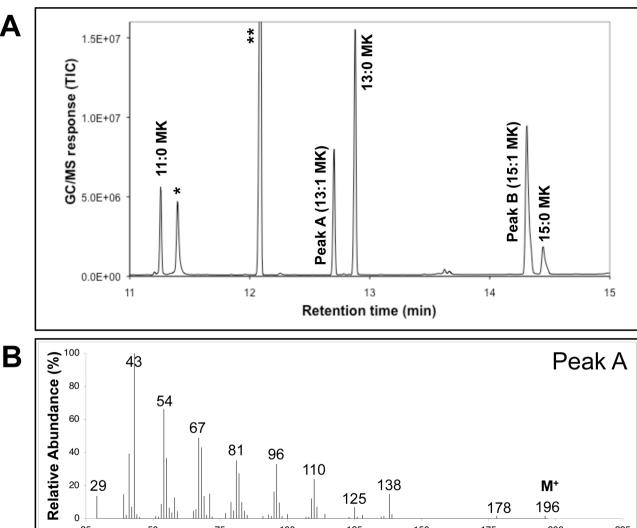
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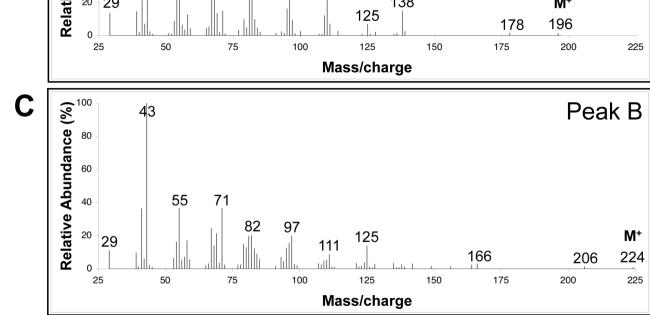
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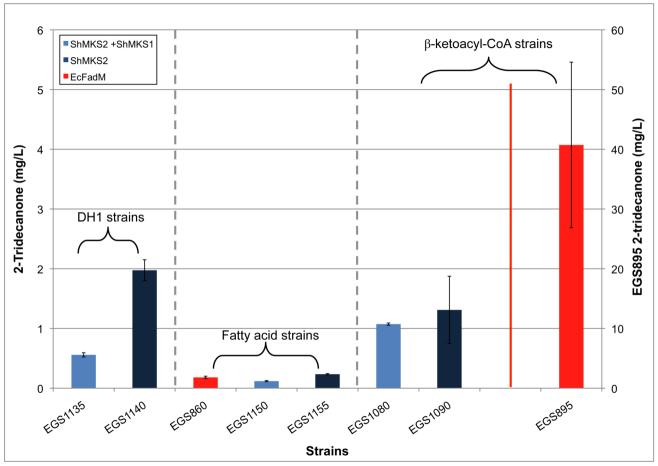
**FIG. 1.** Methyl ketone production in fatty acid- and β-ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing strains. Bar heights represent the averages of at least three biological replicates and error bars represent one standard deviation. **FIG.2.** Summary of engineered pathway to convert fatty acids to methyl ketones in E. coli DH1. Green boxes indicate overexpressed genes and red boxes indicate chromosomal deletions. The blue box indicates the putative substrate for FadM (producing free β-keto acids) and the purple box indicates the final methyl ketone product (putatively generated by spontaneous decarboxylation of β-keto acids). The 'TesA thioesterase used for fatty acid overproduction is not depicted in this figure. FIG.3. GC/MS chromatogram of methyl ketone mixture generated by the best producing strain (strain EGS895) and mass spectra of prominent monounsaturated methyl ketones. (A) GC/MS total ion chromatogram (TIC) of diluted decane overlay featuring region with C<sub>11</sub> to C<sub>15</sub> saturated and monounsaturated methyl ketones (MK). X:Y notation is described in Table 5. \*, component of growth medium. \*\*, hydrocarbon contaminant in decane. (B) 70-eV electron ionization mass spectrum of Peak A, which was identified as tridecenone (see text). (B) 70-eV electron ionization mass spectrum of Peak B, which was identified as pentadecenone (see text). FIG. 4. 2-Tridecanone concentration in DH1 wild-type, fatty acid-overproducing, or β-ketoacyl-CoA-overproducing strains expressing various methyl ketone synthases. Note that the scale for 2-tridecanone concentration in strain EGS895 is on the right-hand y-axis. Bar heights represent averages and error bars represent one standard deviation.











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