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Construction of an L-Tyrosine Chassis in Pichia pastoris Enhances Aromatic Secondary Metabolite Production from Glycerol

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- 2 secondary metabolites production from glycerol

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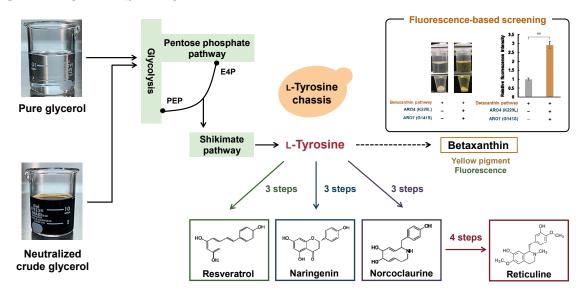
ABSTRACT

Bioactive plant-based secondary metabolites such as stilbenoids, flavonoids, and benzylisoquinoline alkaloids (BIAs) are produced from L-Tyrosine (L-Tyr) and have a wide variety of commercial applications. Therefore, building a microorganism with high L-Tyr productivity (L-Tyr chassis) is of immense value for large scale production of various aromatic compounds. The aim of this study was to develop an L-Tyr chassis in the non-conventional yeast Pichia pastoris (Komagataella phaffii) to produce various aromatic secondary metabolites (resveratrol, naringenin, norcoclaurine, and reticuline). Overexpression of feedback-inhibition insensitive variants of 3-deoxy-D-arabinoheptulosonate-7-phosphate synthase $(ARO4^{K229L})$ and chorismate mutase $(ARO7^{G141S})$ enhanced L-Tyr titer from glycerol in P. pastoris. These engineered P. pastoris strains increased the titer of resveratrol, naringenin, and norcoclaurine by 258%, 244%, and 3400%, respectively after expressing the corresponding heterologous pathways. The titer of resveratrol and naringenin further increased by 305% and 249% resulting in yields of 1825 mg/L and 1067 mg/L, respectively in fed-batch fermentation which is the highest titer from glycerol reported to date. Furthermore, the resveratrol-producing strain accumulated intermediates in the shikimate pathway. L-Tyr-derived aromatic compounds were produced using crude glycerol by-product from biodiesel fuel (BDF) production. Constructing L-Tyr chassis is a promising strategy to increase the titer of various aromatic secondary metabolites and *P. pastoris* is an attractive host for high yield production of L-Tyr-derived aromatic compounds from glycerol.

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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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KEYWORDS

- 33 aromatic secondary metabolite, L-Tyrosine chassis, Pichia pastoris, non-conventional
- yeast, metabolomics, crude glycerol

INTRODUCTION

Plant-derived aromatic compounds are widely used as pharmaceutical drugs, dietary supplements, and nutraceuticals¹⁻³. The production of these compounds predominantly relies on costly and inefficient extraction methods from low productivity plants⁴⁻⁶. Chemosynthesis does not improve productivity because of the complicated processes, strict reaction conditions, and poor selectivity^{7,8}. Microbial production with reconstituted plant biosynthetic pathways has received increasing attention to ensure a sustainable supply of useful aromatic compounds and meet future anticipated demands^{9,10}.

The aromatic amino acid L-Tyrosine (L-Tyr) is a building block to produce stilbenoids, flavonoids, and benzylisoquinoline alkaloids (BIAs) in many plants. Thus, optimization of L-Tyr supply is important for producing L-Tyr-derived aromatic compounds in quantities that compete with commercial demands¹¹ and engineering microorganisms for L-Tyr overproduction is extensively studied¹²⁻¹⁴. For example, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* has been genetically engineered for aromatic compound production¹⁵⁻¹⁷. Although *S. cerevisiae* is the preferred host due to its robustness and high stress tolerance during fermentation¹², repression of ethanol production to produce aromatic compounds in high yield is difficult¹⁸. Hence, exploring alternative yeast platforms is of immense value.

The metabolism of Crabtree-negative yeasts such as *Yarrowia lipolytica* and *Pichia pastoris* (*Komagataella phaffii*) does not divert carbon flux to ethanol, and carbon partitioning among the various pathways is well balanced¹⁴. Recently, the yield of aromatic compounds using *Y. lipolytica* greatly increased compared to that of *S. cerevisiae*^{19,20} suggesting productivity differs among microbial hosts. *P. pastoris* is widely used as a chassis to produce heterologous proteins for research and industrial purposes^{21,22} which does not produce fermentative by-products under aerobic conditions because its glycolytic flux does not exceed the respiratory capacity^{23,24}. Glycerol is

often used as a carbon source during *P. pastoris* fermentation because it encodes four H⁺/glycerol symporters in its genome allowing for efficient metabolism and high biomass productivity²⁴⁻²⁶. Glycerol requires fewer enzymatic reactions for the biosynthesis of phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) from glycolysis and erythrose-4-phosphate (E4P) from the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) compared to glucose (Figure 1). PEP and E4P are essential precursors for L-Tyr biosynthesis.

In this study, an L-Tyr chassis was developed in *P. pastoris* by rational engineering to increase the titer of various L-Tyr-derived aromatic secondary metabolites. Initial screening utilized a simple betaxanthin fluorescence assay to search for the overexpression of target genes enhancing L-Tyr titer. The potential of the L-Tyr chassis to produce resveratrol, naringenin, norcoclaurine, and reticuline from glycerol was investigated by co-expressing the required heterologous pathways (Figure 1). Furthermore, the metabolic responses of the engineered resveratrol-producing strains were investigated and the potential of *P. pastoris* to produce aromatic secondary metabolite from crude glycerol by-product of biodiesel fuel (BDF) was evaluated.

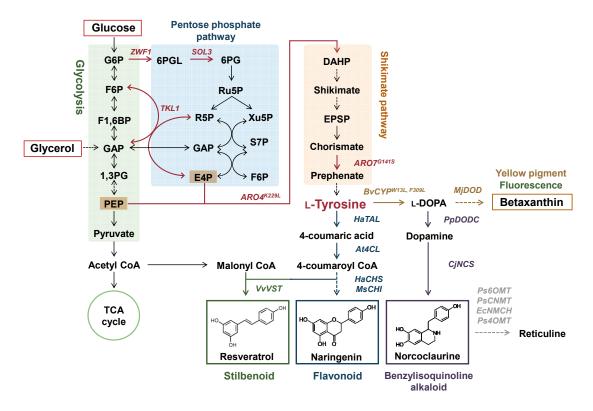


Figure 1. Biosynthetic pathway of betaxanthin, 79 resveratrol, naringenin, **norcoclaurine, and reticuline in** *P. pastoris***.** The native pathway in *P. pastoris* is 80 represented by black and red arrows. The red arrow represents the overexpression of 81 genes. The pathways to produce betaxanthin, resveratrol, naringenin, norcoclaurine, and 82 reticuline are illustrated in yellow, green, blue, purple, and gray, respectively. The 83 dashed arrows indicate multiple enzymatic steps. G6P: glucose-6-phosphate; F6P: 84 fructose-1,6-bisphosphate; GAP: glyceraldehyde fructose-6-phosphate; F1,6BP: 85 3-phosphate; 1,3PG: 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate; PEP: phosphoenolpyruvate; 6PGL: 86 6-phosphogluconolactone; 6PG: 6-phosphogluconate; Ru5P: ribulose-5-phosphate; 87 R5P: ribose-5-phosphate; Xu5P: xylulose-5-phosphate; S7P: 88 sedoheptulose-7-phosphate; E4P: erythrose-4-phosphate; TCA cycle: tricarboxylic acid 89 90 cycle; DAHP: 3-deoxy-D-arabinoheptulosonate 7-phosphate; EPSP: 5-O-(1-carboxyvinyl)-3-phosposhikimate; ZWF1: glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase 91 from P. pastoris; SOL3: 6-phosphogluconolactonase from P. pastoris; TKL1: 92 transketolase from P. pastoris; ARO4K229L: DAHP synthase (K229L) from 93

Saccharomyces cerevisiae; ARO7^{G141S}: chorismate mutase (G141S) from S. cerevisiae; 94 BvCYPW13L, F903: Tyrosine hydroxylase (W13L, F903L) from Beta vulgaris; MjDOD: 95 DOPA dioxygenase from Mirabilis jalapa; PpDODC: DOPA decarboxylase from 96 Pseudomonas putida; CjNCS: norcoclaurine synthase from Coptis japonica; HaTAL: 97 Tyrosine ammonia-lyase from Herpetosiphon aurantiacus; At4CL: 4-coumarate CoA 98 ligase from Arabidopsis thaliana; VvVST: resveratrol synthase from Vitis vinifera; 99 HaCHS: chalcone synthase from Hypericum androsaemum; MsCHI: chalcone 100 isomerase from *Medicago sativa*; Ps6OMT: 6-O-methyltransferase from *Papaver* 101 somniferum; PsCNMT: coclaurine N-methyltransferase from P. somniferum; EcNMCH: 102 103 *N*-methylcoclaurine hydroxylase from Eschscholzia californica; Ps4OMT: 104 4'-*O*-methyltransferase from *P. somniferum*.

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RESULTS

Identification of optimal engineering based on betaxanthin fluorescence

To search for overexpression target genes that contribute to enhance the L-Tyr titer in a high-throughput manner, we employed betaxanthin production pathway (Figure 1). Betaxanthin is an L-Tyr-derived yellow pigment emitting green fluorescence used to evaluate the strength of metabolic flux to L-Tyr. An engineered *P. pastoris* strain (CD strain) expressing the betaxanthin pathway was generated by introducing tyrosine hydroxylase from *Beta vulgaris* (*BvCYPW13L, F309L*) and DOPA dioxygenase from *Mirabilis jalapa* (*MjDOD*) to detect L-Tyr production (Figure 1) and identify target genes contributing to enhanced L-Tyr titer in a high-throughput manner. The yellow coloration and green fluorescence of CD strain indicated successful betaxanthin production (Figure 2, Supporting Figure S1). We targeted PPP and shikimate pathway genes to improve L-Tyr titer. In *S. cerevisiae*, transketolase (*TKL1*), feedback-inhibition insensitive variants of 3-deoxy-p-arabino-heptulosonate-7-phosphate synthase (*ARO4^{K229L}*) and chorismate mutase (*ARO7^{G141S}*) were common overexpression targets

to increase the titer of L-Tyr-derived aromatic compounds^{11,12}. Overexpression of 6-gluconolactonase (*SOL3*) and glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (*ZWF1*) has been reported to enhance the flux to PPP in *P. pastoris*²⁷. In this study, overexpression of *TKL1*, *SOL3*, and *ZWF1* from *P. pastoris*, and/or *ARO4*^{K229L} and *ARO7*^{G141S} from *S. cerevisiae* were introduced, respectively (Figure 1) using the CD strain (Table 1).

Measurement of fluorescence intensity in the engineered P. pastoris strains indicated that overexpression of TKL1, SOL3, and ZWF1 from the PPP pathway did not have a statistically significant effect (p > 0.05) on betaxanthin levels while overexpression of $ARO4^{K229L}$ and $ARO7^{G141S}$ from the shikimate pathway in strain CD47m enhanced betaxanthin fluorescence by 191% (Figure 2). However, expression of these genes from both the PPP and shikimate pathways produced less betaxanthin fluorescence than the CD47m strain (Figure 2). Therefore, overexpression of $ARO4^{K229L}$ and $ARO7^{G141S}$ was employed to increase the titer of L-Tyr-derived aromatic compounds in subsequent experiments.

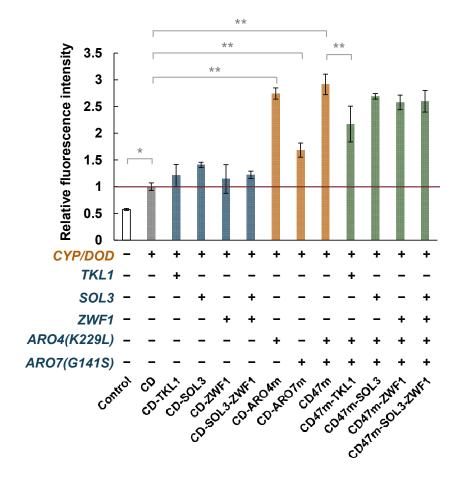


Figure 2. Betaxanthin fluorescence. Relative fluorescence intensity of the CD strain expressing pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) genes (blue), shikimate pathway genes (orange), and both PPP and shikimate pathway genes (green) after 24 h incubation in YPG medium. Error bars represent the standard deviation of three independent biological samples. The strains used in this study are summarized in Table 1. Control: *P. pastoris* CBS7435 $\Delta dnl4$ $\Delta his4$; *CYP*, *DOD*, *TKL1*, *SOL3*, *ZWF1*, $ARO4^{K229L}$, and $ARO7^{G141S}$ as stated in Figure 1. Statistical analysis was performed using EZR (two-tailed, two-sample unequal variance; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.005).

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Resveratrol production from glycerol

145 Downstream L-Tyr products resveratrol, naringenin, and norcoclaurine were tested in the following sections to determine if they are positively affected by increased 146 L-Tyr production (Figure 1). A resveratrol-producing strain (T4V strain) was developed 147 through the introduction of Herpetosiphon aurantiacus (HaTAL), 4-coumarate CoA 148 ligase from Arabidopsis thaliana (At4CL), and stilbene synthase from Vitis vinifera 149 $(VvVST)^{28}$ into a parent strain (*P. pastoris* CBS7435 $\Delta dnl4$ $\Delta his4$). Furthermore, 150 ARO4^{K229L} and ARO7^{G141S} were co-overexpressed to produce the T4V-ARO47m strain. 151 152 The T4V-ARO47m strain was slightly defective in cell growth (Supporting Figure S2) and produced 451 mg/L resveratrol compared with 126 mg/L for the T4V strain with a 153 yield of 22.5 mg/g-glycerol consumed (Figure 3A). Resveratrol titer in the 154 T4V-ARO47m strain was further tested using fed-batch fermentation in a jar fermenter 155 (Figure 3B) with constant DO and pH levels, and feeding solution added at the specified 156 time. Cell growth (OD₆₀₀) plateaued after 72 h of fermentation, while the resveratrol 157 titer continuously increased and reached 1825 mg/L with a yield of 16.6 mg/g-glycerol 158 consumed after 120 h of fermentation which is an improvement of 305% compared to 159 cultivation in flasks (Figure 3B) and is the highest resveratrol titer from glycerol 160 161 reported to date (Supporting Table S1).

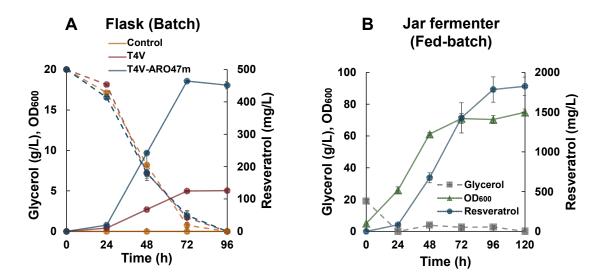


Figure 3. Resveratrol production in engineered *P. pastoris* strains. (A) Time course of resveratrol production and glycerol consumption in YPG culture medium of resveratrol-producing strains (T4V and T4V-ARO47m) and their parent strain CBS7435 Δdnl4 Δhis4 (Control). Error bars represent standard deviations of three independent biological samples. The solid lines and dashed lines represent the resveratrol titer and glycerol concentration, respectively. (B) Fed-batch fermentation of the T4V-ARO47m strain in the jar fermenter. The feed was added from 24 to 96 h. Error bars represent the standard deviation of two independent biological samples.

Quantification of intracellular metabolites in engineered P. pastoris strains

To investigate the metabolic responses by overexpressing $ARO4^{K229L}$ and $ARO7^{G141S}$ in P. pastoris, the intracellular metabolites of the T4V, T4V-ARO47m, and their parent strain (P. pastoris CBS7435 $\Delta dnl4$ $\Delta his4$) were extracted and quantified. There was no difference in the accumulation of glycolysis and PPP compounds at the beginning of glycerol consumption (24 h fermentation), except for an accumulation of fructose-1,6-bisphosphate (F1,6BP), phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP), and 6-phosphogluconate (6PG) in T4V-ARO47m (Figure 4). Meanwhile, intermediates of the shikimate pathway [3-dehydroquinate (DHQ), 3-dehydroshikimate (DHS), shikimate, shikimate 3-phosphate (S3P), and chorismate] significantly accumulated in

the T4V-ARO47m strain which remained after complete glycerol consumption (96 h fermentation) (Figure 4). In addition, the accumulation of aromatic amino acids [L-Tyr, L-phenylalanine (L-Phe), and L-tryptophan (L-Trp)] was maintained at relatively high levels in this strain.



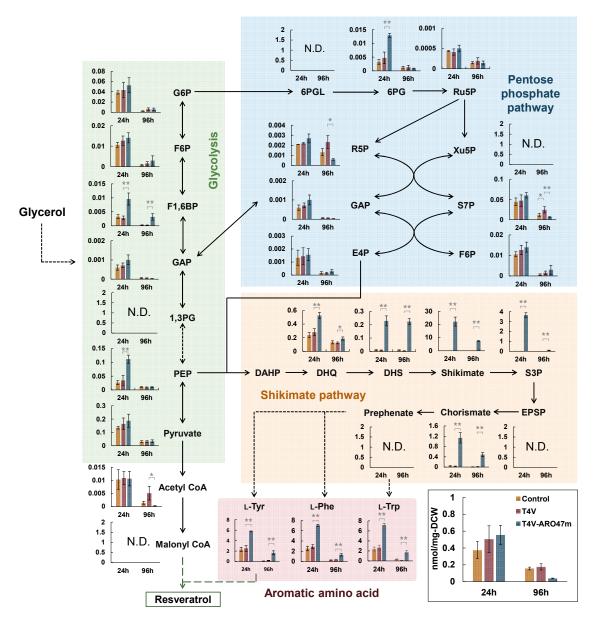


Figure 4. Comparison of intracellular metabolites involved in the resveratrol synthetic pathway in the T4V, T4V-ARO47m, and their parent strain. Intracellular metabolites were extracted after 24 and 96 h incubation in YPG medium. Metabolites

extracted from cells were subjected to LC-MS/MS analysis. T4V, T4V-ARO47m, and their parent strain CBS7435 $\Delta dnl4$ $\Delta his4$ (Control) were used for intracellular metabolite analysis. All y-axis units are in n-mol/mg-dry cell weight (DCW). The dashed arrows indicate multiple enzymatic steps. Error bars represent the standard deviations of three independent biological samples. Statistical analysis was performed using EZR (two-tailed, two-sample unequal variance; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.005). G6P; F6P; F1,6BP; GAP; 1,3PG; PEP; 6PGL; 6PG; Ru5P; R5P; Xu5P; S7P; E4P; DAHP3-deoxy-D-arabino; and EPSP as stated in Figure 1; DHQ: 3-dehydroquinate; DHS: 3-dehydroshikimate; S3P: shikimate 3-phosphate; L-Tyr: tyrosine; L-Phe: phenylalanine; L-Trp: tryptophan. N.D.: not detected.

Expanding the pathway to produce naringenin

A naringenin-producing strain (T4CC strain) was developed by introducing *HaTAL*, *At4CL*, chalcone synthase from *Hypericum androsaemum* (*HaCHS*), and chalcone isomerase from *Medicago sativa* (*MsCHI*) into the parent strain (*P. pastoris* CBS7435 Δdnl4 Δhis4). Furthermore, *ARO4*^{K229L} and *ARO7*^{G141S} were co-overexpressed in the T4CC strain (T4CC-ARO47m strain). The T4CC-ARO47m strain had a slight defect on cell growth (Supporting Figure S3) and produced 306 mg/L naringenin compared with 89 mg/L in the T4CC strain with a yield of 15.3 mg/g-glycerol consumed (Figure 5A). Fed-batch fermentation with controlled pH and DO in the T4CC-ARO47m strain produced 1067 mg/L naringenin with a yield of 9.7 mg/g-glycerol consumed after 120 h which was 249% higher than that in flasks (Figure 5B) and is the highest naringenin titer using a microbial host (Supporting Table S1).

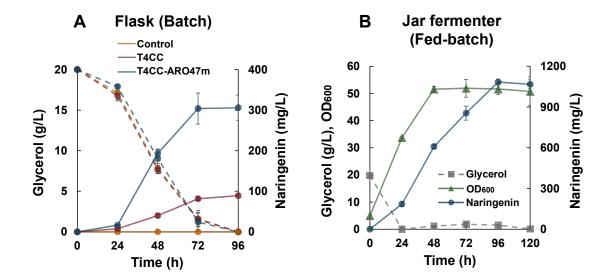


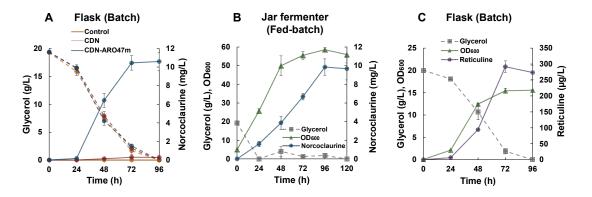
Figure 5. Naringenin production in the engineered *P. pastoris* strains. (A) Time course of naringenin production and glycerol consumption in YPG culture medium of naringenin-producing strains (T4CC and T4CC-ARO47m) and their parent strain CBS7435 Δdnl4 Δhis4 (Control). Error bars represent standard deviations of three independent biological samples. The solid lines and dashed lines represent the naringenin titer and glycerol concentration, respectively. (B) Fed-batch fermentation results of the T4CC-ARO47m strain using the jar fermenter. The feed was added from 24 to 96 h. Error bars represent the standard deviations of two independent biological samples.

Production of BIAs in the engineered strains

A norcoclaurine-producing strain (CDN) was generated by introducing $BvCYP^{W13L, F309L}$, DOPA decarboxylase from *Pseudomonas putida* (*PpDODC*), and an N-terminal truncation of norcoclaurine synthase from *Coptis japonica* (ΔN_CjNCS), which increases norcoclaurine titer by 50% compared with full-length $CjNCS^7$. $ARO4^{K229L}$ and $ARO7^{G141S}$ were co-overexpressed in the CDN strain to produce CDN-ARO47m. The CDN-ARO47m strain had a slight defect on cell growth

(Supporting Figure S4) and produced 10.6 mg/L norcoclaurine compared with 0.30 mg/L in the CDN strain (Figure 6A). Fed-batch fermentation with controlled pH and DO in the CDN-ARO47m produced 9.7 mg/L norcoclaurine which was comparable with batch conditions in flasks (Figure 6B).

Reticuline is the last shared intermediate in the major branch point of BIA production pathways and is produced from norcoclaurine via four enzymatic steps. Therefore, a reticuline-producing strain (CDN-ARO47m_6CN4 strain) was developed by introducing 6-*O*-methyltransferase (*Ps6OMT*), coclaurine *N*-methyltransferase (*PsCNMT*), and 4'-*O*-methyltransferase (*Ps4OMT*) from *Papaver somniferum*, and *N*-methylcoclaurine hydroxylase from *Eschscholzia californica* (*EcNMCH*) into the CDN-ARO47m strain. This strain produced reticuline at a titer of 292 μg/L (Figure 6C). This is the first report of the successful production of norcoclaurine and reticuline in *P*.



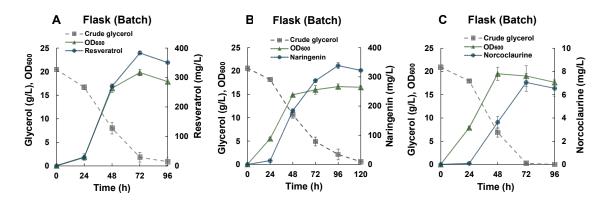
pastoris.

Figure 6. Production of BIAs (norcoclaurine and reticuline) in the engineered *P.pastoris* strains. (A) Time course of norcoclaurine production and glycerol consumption in YPG culture medium of norcoclaurine-producing strains (CDN and CDN-ARO47m) and their parent strain CBS7435 Δdnl4 Δhis4 (Control). Error bars represent the standard deviation of three independent biological samples. The solid lines and dashed lines represent norcoclaurine titer and glycerol concentration, respectively. (B) Fed-batch fermentation results of CDN-ARO47m using the jar fermenter. The feed

was added from 24 to 96 h. Error bars represent the standard deviations of two independent biological samples. (C) Time course of reticuline production, glycerol consumption, and cell growth (OD₆₀₀) of CDN-ARO47m-6CN4. Error bars represent the standard deviations of three independent biological samples.

Production of various aromatic compounds from crude glycerol

One of the major challenges in microbial production is the high raw material cost. Resveratrol, naringenin, and norcoclaurine production were examined using crude glycerol by-product from BDF production. Neutralized crude glycerol containing 260.6 g/L glycerol and 54.6 g/L methanol was diluted to a glycerol concentration of 20 g/L and used as a carbon source for batch fermentation with T4V-ARO47m, T4CC-ARO47m, and CDN-ARO47m strains. T4V-ARO47m produced 383 mg/L resveratrol with a yield of 20.6 mg/g-crude glycerol consumed (Figure 7A), T4CC-ARO47m produced 338 mg/L naringenin with a yield of 18.4 mg/g-crude glycerol consumed (Figure 7B), and CDN-ARO47m produced 7.1 mg/L norcoclaurine with a yield of 0.34 mg/g-crude glycerol consumed (Figure 7C). In all fermentations, there was little difference in titer, cell growth, and glycerol consumption compared to cultivation with pure glycerol indicating that *P. pastoris* is capable of utilizing crude



glycerol.

Figure 7. Aromatic compounds production from crude glycerol. (A) Resveratrol, (B)

naringenin, and (C) norcoclaurine production from crude glycerol as a carbon source in the T4V-ARO47m, T4CC-ARO47m, and CDN-ARO47m strains, respectively. Error bars represent the standard deviations of three independent biological samples.

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DISCUSSION

Recent synthetic biology improvements indicate that *P. pastoris* is a promising platform for metabolic engineering and will likely become the next-generation yeast cell factory^{21,24}. Optimization of the biosynthetic pathway for L-Tyr precursor is essential to achieve high production of various aromatic secondary metabolites^{13,14} (Figure 1).

In this study, a fluorescence-based screening system was constructed by engineering P. pastoris to produce betaxanthin to identify the optimal genetic engineering strategies for high L-Tyr production from glycerol. Overexpression of ARO4K229L and ARO7G141S from S. cerevisiae enhanced L-Tyr titer in P. pastoris (Figure 2) with significant accumulation of the intracellular metabolites of the shikimate pathway (DHQ, DHS, shikimate, S3P, and chorismate) at the beginning of glycerol consumption (24 h) and at the end (96 h) (Figure 4). Meanwhile, overexpression of PPP genes TKL1, SOL3, and ZWF1 had little positive effect on betaxanthin levels (Figure 2) which may be caused by the low activity of other PPP enzymes and/or the downstream shikimate pathway. In the five-step reaction from yeast, 3-deoxy-p-arabinoheptulosonate 7-phosphate (DAHP) to 5-O-(1-carboxyvinyl)-3-phosposhikimate (EPSP) in the shikimate pathway is catalyzed by ARO1p²⁹. The *P. pastoris ARO1* overexpressing strain (T4V-ARO47m-ARO1) increased resveratrol titer by 15% to 544 mg/L (Supporting Figure S5A). However, ARO1 overexpression resulted in significant defects in cell growth and glycerol consumption (Supporting Figure S5B, S5C) which may be caused by excessive flux to the shikimate pathway resulting in high intracellular toxicity. In other organisms such as plants and bacteria, the five-steps DHAP to EPSP are catalyzed by monofunctional enzymes. It has been reported that the overexpression of *E. coli* shikimate kinase AroL, which catalyzes the conversion of shikimate to S3P, enhances the *p*-coumarate titer in *S. cerevisiae*³⁰. A similar engineering approach might improve the titer of L-Tyr-derived compounds in *P. pastoris*.

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Co-overexpression of ARO4K229L and ARO7G141S together with the de novo pathways for the synthesis of resveratrol, naringenin, or norcoclaurine secondary metabolites increased their titers by 258%, 344%, or 3400%, respectively compared with the strains introduced only with the heterologous pathway (Figure 3A, 5A, 6A) using glycerol as the carbon source. Resveratrol titer decreased by approximately half in resveratrol-producing strains (T4V and T4V-ARO47m) cultured in YPD medium containing 20 g/L glucose compared with glycerol: the T4V and T4V-ARO47m strain produced 101 mg/L and 176 mg/L resveratrol, respectively using glucose (Supporting Figure S6). Cell growth was comparable; however, glycerol was consumed over 96 h, while glucose was consumed in 48 h (Supporting Figure S2, S6). A similar phenomenon was reported for resveratrol production using glucose or sucrose carbon sources in Scheffersomyces stipitis engineered to synthesize resveratrol: 237.6 mg/L resveratrol was produced with 50 g/L glucose consumed in 24 h or 668.6 mg/L resveratrol was produced and 50 g/L sucrose consumed over 96 h²⁸. These results suggest that the rate of carbon uptake may affect resveratrol production. Further studies will be needed to elucidate the detailed metabolic mechanisms and physiology of P. pastoris by examining differences in intracellular metabolites and protein expression levels when cultured with glucose or glycerol.

In fed-batch fermentation, the resveratrol, naringenin, and norcoclaurine titer reached 1825 mg/L and 1067 mg/L, and 9.7 mg/L, respectively (Figure 3B, 5B, 6B). There was little difference in norcoclaurine titer between batch and fed-batch fermentation (Figure 6A, 6B). The cytoplasmic expression of norcoclaurine synthase

(NCS) is toxic to S. cerevisiae resulting in reduced norcoclaurine and reticuline production³¹. Toxicity was reduced and reticuline titer increased by the addition of a peptide tag to the C-terminus (peroxisomal targeting signal type 1, PTS1) of NCS to compartmentalize NCS into peroxisomes³¹. This approach may be useful for P. pastoris. For better understanding toxicity and productivity of L-Tyr-derived compounds, it will be important to examine their intracellular accumulation.

Crude glycerol by-product from BDF production contains impurities such as free fatty acids, inorganic salts, and methanol^{32,33} and its purification require sequential treatments including neutralization, distillation, ion exchange, membrane separation, and activated carbon adsorption³⁴. Distillation and ion exchange are energy- and cost-intensive processes and the total purification cost for commercial production is up to \$50.45/kg^{34,35}. This cost is much higher than the current market price of pure glycerol (\$1-15/kg)³⁶ resulting in crude glycerol disposal. Thus, conversion of crude glycerol into value-added products generates economic and environmental benefits^{32,36}. In the present study, resveratrol, naringenin, and norcoclaurine were synthesized using neutralized crude glycerol to the same levels as that with pure glycerol (Figure 7). This is the first report of L-Tyr-derived aromatic compound production from crude glycerol which demonstrates the potential of *P. pastoris* to utilize crude glycerol for the synthesis of various aromatic compounds.

In this study, an L-Tyr chassis was produced to optimize L-Tyr synthesis from glycerol in *P. pastoris*. A heterologous pathway was introduced into the engineered strain for the *de novo* production of various L-Tyr-derived aromatic compounds. A major improvement in the production of aromatic secondary metabolites resveratrol, naringenin, norcoclaurine, and reticuline was observed. This study will accelerate the development of *P. pastoris* strains capable of producing high value aromatic compounds from glycerol.

METHODS

Strains and media conditions

Escherichia coli NovaBlue (Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) was used for plasmid construction and amplification. The microorganisms were routinely cultured at 37 °C and 200 rpm in LB medium [10 g/L tryptone (Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan), 5 g/L yeast extract (Nacalai Tesque), and 5 g/L NaCl] supplemented with 100 μ g/mL ampicillin.

The yeast strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. *P. pastoris* CBS7435 Δdnl4 Δhis4 was used as a parent strain since it has improved gene targeting efficiency for homologous recombination³⁷. *P. pastoris* strains were cultivated in YPG medium [10 g/L yeast extract, 20 g/L peptone (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA), and 20 g/L glycerol], YPD medium [10 g/L yeast extract, 20 g/L peptone, and 20 g/L glucose], or SD medium [6.7 g/L yeast nitrogen base without amino acids (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, MI, USA), and 20 g/L glucose] supplemented with 20 mg/L histidine and appropriate antibiotics including 500 μg/mL G418 (FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical, Osaka, Japan), 300 μg/mL hygromycin (Nacalai Tesque), 100 μg/mL Zeocin (Nacalai Tesque), and 50 μg/mL clonNAT (Jena Bioscience, Löbstedter, Germany).

Plasmid construction and yeast strains

Plasmids, synthetic DNA fragments, and primers are listed in Table 1, Supporting Table S2, and Table S3, respectively. Synthetic DNA fragments of *HaTAL*, *At4CL*, and *VvVST* were used as previously reported²⁸. All other synthetic DNA fragments were codon-optimized for *P. pastoris* and synthesized by GeneArt (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). All plasmids were constructed using the In-fusion HD cloning kit (Takara Bio USA, Mountain View, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Detailed methods for plasmid and strain construction are provided in the supporting information.

Batch fermentation

Yeast cells were inoculated into 5 mL of YPG medium supplemented with appropriate antibiotics in test tubes and pre-cultured overnight at 30 °C and 200 rpm. Cells were centrifuged at $15,000 \times g$ for 1 min, washed twice with sterile water, inoculated in 20 mL YPG medium in 100-mL Erlenmeyer flasks with a cap-type plug at an initial OD600 of 0.05, and cultivated at 30 °C and 150 rpm in an orbital shaker incubator (BR-43FL; Taitec, Saitama, Japan). The culture broth was used to measure OD600 and the concentration of glucose, glycerol, resveratrol, naringenin, norcoclaurine, reticuline, and intracellular metabolites was measured as described below.

Fluorescence-based screening with betaxanthin

Yeast cells were centrifuged at $15,000 \times g$ for 1 min after 24 h cultivation in YPG medium as described above. Two hundred and fifty μ L of culture supernatant was transferred to a 96-well black plate (Sumitomo Bakelite, Tokyo, Japan) and fluorescence intensity was measured using an excitation wavelength of 485 nm and emission wavelength of 510 nm to determine betaxanthin levels using Envision 2014 multilabel plate reader (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA).

Fed-batch fermentation in jar fermenter

Yeast cells were pre-cultured in 20 mL of YPG medium supplemented with appropriate antibiotics in a 100-mL Erlenmeyer flask at 30 °C and 150 rpm for 48 h. Cells in stationary phase were centrifuged at 5,000 × g for 5 min, washed twice with sterile water, suspended in 100 mL YPG medium and transferred into a 250-mL jar fermenter (Bio Jr. 8; ABLE Biott, Tokyo, Japan) at an initial OD₆₀₀ of 5.0. Fermentation was carried out at 30 °C and the airflow was maintained at 100 mL/min. The pH of the culture medium was maintained at 5.5 by the automatic addition of a 5 N ammonium

solution, and antifoam SI (FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical, Osaka, Japan) was added in the range of 0.01-0.1 %. The agitation speed varied between 300 and 600 rpm to maintain dissolved oxygen (DO) at 20%. A feeding solution composed of 50 g/L yeast extract, 100 g/L peptone, and 200 g/L glycerol was pumped into the jar fermenter at a flow rate of 625 μ L/h (45 mL total volume) after 24 h fermentation. Approximately 1 mL samples were withdrawn every 24 h to measure OD₆₀₀ and the concentration of glycerol, resveratrol, naringenin, and norcoclaurine.

Purification of crude glycerol

Crude glycerol, a major by-product from the biodiesel industry, was kindly provided by the Sannokura Center (Gifu, Japan) and pretreated according to the method described by Chi et al³⁸. Briefly, the pH of crude glycerol was adjusted to 6.3 with 1 N HCl, stirred for 2 h at room temperature, added to a separatory funnel, and the lower layer collected and filtered through a 0.22 µm filter. The glycerol and methanol concentrations in the filtered liquid was analyzed as described below. The filtered liquid was diluted with sterile water to a final glycerol concentration of 20 g/L together with 10 g/L yeast extract and 20 g/L peptone in the culture medium. Batch fermentation was performed using the same conditions as described above.

Analytical methods

The concentrations of glucose, glycerol, and methanol were analyzed by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) equipped with an Aminex HPX-87H column (7.8 mm \times 300 mm, 9 μ m particle size; Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) and a RID-10A refractive index detector (Shimadzu). The column was kept at 65 °C, and 5 mM H₂SO₄ was used as the mobile phase at a flow rate of 0.6 mL/min. For resveratrol and naringenin quantification, culture samples were mixed with an equal volume of 100% ethanol, vortexed for 10 s, and centrifugated at 15,000 \times g for

5 min at room temperature^{28,39}. These supernatants were then analyzed by HPLC equipped with a Luna Omega PS C18 column (4.6×150 mm, 3 μ m particle size; Phenomenex, CA, USA) as described previously²⁸. Quantification of norcoclaurine and reticuline in the fermentation medium was carried out with an LCMS-8060 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Shimadzu) equipped with a Discovery HS F5-3 column ($2.1 \text{ mm} \times 150 \text{ mm}$, 3 μ m, Sigma-Aldrich, MO, USA) using previously described running conditions⁴⁰.

Intracellular metabolite analysis

The extraction method for intracellular metabolites followed a previously described method⁴¹. Intracellular metabolites related to amino acids and the shikimate pathway were analyzed using the LCMS-8060 instrument described above. Metabolites related to glycolysis and PPP were analyzed using a 6460 Triple Quad LC/MS (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA) equipped with a Mastro C18 column (2.1 mm × 150 mm, 3 µm, Shimadzu) using previously described running conditions^{40,42}.

Statistical analysis

All numerical values are depicted as the means \pm s.d. One-way ANOVA was used as a statistical test in conjunction with Tukey's range test to assess significant differences between strains. Statistical analysis was performed using EZR⁴³ which is a modified version of R commander designed to add frequently used statistical functions in biostatistics (two-tailed, two-sample unequal variance; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.005).

Table 1 Yeast strains and plasmids

Strains	Description	Source
CBS7435 ∆dnl4 ∆his4	Δdnl4 Δhis4 :: ADE1	37
CD	CBS7435 \(\Delta dnl4 \(\Delta his4 \) \(pPGP-CYP-DOD \) [G418\(\text{r} \)]	This study
CD-TKL1	CD / pPGPZ-TKL1 [G418 ^r , Zeo ^r]	This study

CD-SOL3	CD / pPGPZ-SOL3 [G418 ^r , Zeo ^r]	This study
CD-ZWF1	CD / pPGPZ-ZWF1 [G418 ^r , Zeo ^r]	This study
CD-SOL3-ZWF1	CD / pPGPZ-SOL3-ZWF1 [G418 ^r , Zeo ^r]	This study
CD-ARO4m	CD / pPGPH-ARO4 ^{K229L} [G418 ^r , Hyg ^r]	This study
CD-ARO7m	$CD / pPGPZ\text{-}ARO7^{G141S} \left[G418^{r}, Zeo^{r}\right]$	This study
CD47m	$CD / pPGPH\text{-}ARO4^{K229L}\text{-}ARO7^{G141S} [G418^r, Hyg^r]$	This study
CD47m-TKL1	CD47m / pPGPZ-TKL1 [G418 ^r , Zeo ^r , Hyg ^r]	This study
CD47m-SOL3	CD47m / pPGPZ-SOL3 [G418 ^r , Zeo ^r , Hyg ^r]	This study
CD47m-ZWF1	CD47m / pPGPZ-ZWF1 [G418 ^r , Zeo ^r , Hyg ^r]	This study
CD47m-SOL3-ZWF1	CD47m / pPGPZ-SOL3-ZWF1 [G418 ^r , Zeo ^r , Hyg ^r]	This study
T4V	CBS7435 \(\Delta dnl4 \(\Delta his4 \) \(pPGP-TAL-4CL-VST \)	This study
	[G418 ^r]	
T4V-ARO47m	$T4V/pPGPH\text{-}ARO4^{K229L}\text{-}ARO7^{G141S}\left[G418^{r},\right.$	This study
	Hyg ^r]	
T4CC	CBS7435 Δdnl4 Δhis4 / pPGP-TAL-4CL,	This study
	pPGPZ-CHS-CHI [G418 ^r , Zeo ^r]	
T4CC-ARO47m	$T4CC \ / \ pPGPH\text{-}ARO4^{K229L}\text{-}ARO7^{G1418} \ [G418^r,$	This study
	Zeo ^r , Hyg ^r]	
CDN	CBS7435 Δdnl4 Δhis4 / pPGP-CYP-DODC,	This study
	pPGPZ-NCS [G418 ^r , Zeo ^r]	
CDN-ARO47m	CDN / pPGPH-ARO4 ^{K229L} -ARO7 ^{G141S} [G418 ^r ,	This study
	Zeo ^r , Hyg ^r]	
CDN-ARO47m-6CN4	CDN-ARO47m / pPHU-6OMT-CNMT,	This study
	pPNS-NMCH-4OMT [G418 ^r , Zeo ^r , Hyg ^r , NAT ^r ,	
	his4]	
Plasmids		
pPGP-EGFP	$G418^{r}$, P_{gap} - $EGFP$ - T_{aoxl}	37
pPGP-CYP	G418 ^r , P_{gap} - $BvCYP^{W13L, F309L}$ - T_{aox1}	44
pPGPH-DOD	$\mathrm{Hyg}^{\mathrm{r}}, P_{gap}$ - $MjDOD$ - T_{aoxI}	44
pPGPZ-EGFP	Zeo^{r} , P_{gap} - $EGFP$ - T_{aoxl}	This study
pPGP-CYP-DOD	G418°, P_{gap} -BvCYP ^{W13L, F309L} - T_{aox1} ,	This study

	P_{gap} -MjDOD- T_{aox1}	
pPGPZ-TKL1	Zeo^{r} , P_{gap} - $TKL1$ - T_{aox1}	This study
pPGPZ-SOL3	Zeo^{r} , P_{gap} - $SOL3$ - T_{aoxI}	This study
pPGPZ-ZWF1	Zeo^{r} , P_{gap} - $ZWF1$ - T_{aox1}	This study
pPGPZ-SOL3-ZWF1	Zeo^{r} , P_{gap} - $SOL3$ - T_{aoxI} , P_{gap} - $ZWFI$ - T_{aoxI}	This study
pPGPH-ARO4 ^{K229L}	$\mathrm{Hyg^r}, P_{gap}\text{-}ARO4^{K229L}\text{-}T_{aoxI}$	This study
pPGPZ-ARO7 ^{G141S}	Zeo^{r} , P_{gap} - $ARO7^{G141S}$ - T_{aox1}	This study
pPGPH-ARO4 ^{K229L} -ARO7 ^{G141S}	$\mathrm{Hyg^r}, P_{gap}\text{-}ARO4^{K229L} \text{-} T_{aoxl}, P_{gap}\text{-}ARO7^{G141S}\text{-} T_{aoxl}$	This study
pPGPZ-ARO1	Zeo^{r} , P_{gap} - $ARO1$ - T_{aox1}	This study
pPGP-TAL	$G418^{r}$, P_{gap} - $HaTAL$ - T_{aoxl} ,	This study
pPGP-4CL	$G418^{r}$, P_{gap} - $At4CL$ - T_{aoxl} ,	This study
pPGPZ-VST	Zeo^{r} , P_{gap} - $VvVST$ - T_{aoxl}	This study
pPGP-TAL-VST	$G418^{r}$, P_{gap} - $HaTAL$ - T_{aoxl} , P_{gap} - $VvVST$ - T_{aoxl}	This study
pPGP-TAL-4CL-VST	$G418^{r}$, P_{gap} - $HaTAL$ - T_{aoxl} , P_{gap} - $At4CL$ - T_{aoxl}	This study
	P_{gap} - $VvVST$ - T_{aoxl} ,	
pPGP-TAL-4CL	$G418^{r}$, P_{gap} - $HaTAL$ - T_{aoxl} , P_{gap} - $At4CL$ - T_{aoxl}	This study
pPGPZ-CHS	Zeo^{r} , P_{gap} - $HaCHS$ - T_{aoxl}	This study
pPGPZ-CHI	Zeo^r , P_{gap} - $MsCHI$ - T_{aoxl}	This study
pPGPZ-CHS-CHI	Zeor, P_{gap} -HaCHS- T_{aoxl} , P_{gap} -MsCHI- T_{aoxl}	This study
pPHU	HIS4 marker,	This study
pPNS	NAT ^r	This study
pPGPZ-DODC	Zeo^{r} , P_{gap} - $PpDODC$ - T_{dox1}	This study
pPGP-CYP-DODC	G418°, P_{gap} -BvCYP ^{W13L, F309L} - T_{aoxl} ,	This study
	P_{gap} - $PpDODC$ - T_{aoxl}	
pPGPZ-NCS	Zeo ^r , P_{gap} - ΔN _ $CjNCS$ - T_{aox1}	This study
pPGPZ-6OMT	Zeor, P_{gap} - $Ps6OMT$ - T_{aoxl}	This study
pPGPZ-CNMT	Zeor, P_{gap} - $PsCNMT$ - T_{aoxI}	This study
pPGPZ-NMCH	Zeor, P_{gap} -EcNMCH- T_{aoxl}	This study
pPGPZ-4OMT	Zeo^{r} , P_{gap} - $Ps4OMT$ - T_{aoxl}	This study
pPHU-6OMT	$HIS4$ marker, P_{gap} - $Ps6OMT$ - T_{aox1}	This study
pPHU-6OMT-CNMT	$HIS4$ marker, P_{gap} - $Ps6OMT$ - T_{aox1} ,	This study

P_{gap} -PsCNMT- T_{aox1}

 NAT^{r} , P_{gap} -EcNMCH- T_{aox1}

pPNS-NMCH

	privs-nwich	$INAI$, F_{gap} - $ECNMCH$ - $I_{aox}I$	This study
	pPNS-NMCH-4OMT	NAT^{r} , P_{gap} - $EcNMCH$ - T_{aoxl} , P_{gap} - $Ps4OMT$ - T_{aoxl}	This study
	ASSOCIATED CONTE	NT	
	Supporting Information		
	Detailed methods for	plasmid and yeast strain construction; Supporting	g Figure S1,
	Difference in year	ast colony coloration and green fluore	escence for
	betaxanthin-producin	g cells; Supporting Figure S2-S4, Cell growth o	f engineered
	strains; Supporting	Figure S5, The data of resveratrol production	n in ARO1
	overexpressing strain	n; Supporting Figure S6, The data of resveratro	l production
	using glucose; Supp	porting Table S1, Comparison of resveratrol,	naringenin,
	norcoclaurine, and re	ticuline titer by various microbial hosts; Supporti	ng Table S2,
	Synthetic DNA fragn	nents; Supporting Table S3, Primer list.	
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490	R. K. and T. B. conceived the topic and designed the study. R. K. performed all genetic
491	engineering and fermentation experiments. T. Y. analyzed the data. All authors
492	discussed the results. R. K. wrote the manuscript supported from T.B., K. I., and T. H.
493	Y. I., A. K., and T. H. supervised all aspects of the study.
494	
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