

Exploring Phenotypic and Genetic Diversity of Natural *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strains for Improved Recombinant Cellulase Secretion

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With regards to **Chapter 2 to 5**, the nature and scope of my contribution were as follows:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution
Planning and execution of experimental work, data analysis and preparation of draft manuscript	90%

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3. potential conflicts of interest have been revealed to all interested parties and that the necessary arrangements have been made to use the material in **Chapters 2 to 5** of this dissertation.

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SUMMARY

The yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is considered an important host for the consolidated bioprocessing (CBP) of plant biomass to fuels and commodity products, but the production of high titres of recombinant cellulases is required for efficient hydrolysis of heterogenous lignocellulosic substrates to fermentable sugars. Recently, it was shown that *S. cerevisiae* strain diversity represents a treasure trove of genetic determinants for industrially relevant traits, including secretory capacity for recombinant cellulases. Since recombinant protein secretion profiles vary significantly among different strain backgrounds, careful selection of robust strains with optimal secretion profiles is crucial.

This dissertation addresses numerous central challenges surrounding *S. cerevisiae* CBP namely, (1) improving the yeast's low secretion capacity for recombinant cellulase through the construction and screening of hybrids of natural and industrial strains; (2) the evaluation of different cellulolytic yeast strain configurations to handle the heterogeneity of lignocellulosic substrates; and (3) the identification of genetic elements associated with the complex, polygenic trait of heterologous cellulase production and secretion through whole genome sequencing of selected yeast strains.

We detail a novel approach, which combines cellulase secretion profiles and phenotypic responses of strains to stresses known to influence the secretion pathway, for the development of a phenotypic screen. The construction and screening of haploids derived from natural strain isolates YI13, FINI and YI59, consequently yielded several haploid strains with enhanced general cellulase secretion. A clear distinction was observed between the YI13 haploid derivatives and industrial and laboratory counterparts, Ethanol Red and S288c, respectively. Our results demonstrated that a new screening technique combined with a targeted mating approach could produce a pool of novel strains capable of improved cellulase secretion.

In an effort to find a suitable genetic background for efficient cellulase secretion, genetically diverse strains were created to produce core sets of fungal cellulases, namely, β -glucosidase, endoglucanase and cellobiohydrolase, in various combinations. Higher secretion titers were achieved by cellulolytic strains with the YI13 genetic background and cellulolytic transformants released up to 1.34-fold higher glucose concentrations (g/L) than a control mixture composed of equal amounts of each enzyme type. The transformant co-producing BGLI and EGII in a secreted cellulase activity ratio of 1:15 (unit per gram dry cell weight) converted 56.5% of the cellulose present in corn cob to glucose in hydrolysis experiments, and yielded 4.05 g/L ethanol in fermentations.

Finally, by performing pooled-segregant whole genome sequence analysis with subsequent quantitative trait loci mapping of an industrial strain (Ethanol Red) and a natural strain (YI13), we identified a large list of potential causative gene candidates linked to the high secretion phenotype. Some of these gene candidates were previously demonstrated to be active at different phases of secretion, ranging from the initiation of transcription, translation, post-translational modification to protein folding. Furthermore, we have identified several targets for future yeast strain improvement strategies. The yeast strains developed in this study therefore represent a new step towards efficient cellulase secretion for CBP bioethanol production.

OPSOMMING

Die gis *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* word as 'n belangrike gasheer vir die gekonsolideerde bioprosessering (“consolidated bioprocessing” CBP) van plantbiomassa na brandstof en kommoditeitsprodukte beskou. Die produksie van hoë titers rekombinante sellulase word egter vir doeltreffende hidrolise van heterogene lignosellulotiese substrate tot fermenteerbare suikers benodig. Onlangs is aangetoon dat *S. cerevisiae*-stamdiversiteit 'n skatkis van genetiese determinante vir industriële relevante eienskappe verteenwoordig, insluitend sekresiekapasiteit vir rekombinante sellulases. Aangesien rekombinante proteïensekresieprofiële tussen verskillende stamagtergronde aansienlik verskil, is noukeurige seleksie van robuuste stamme met optimale sekresieprofiële van kardinale belang.

Hierdie proefskrif adresseer 'n aantal sentrale uitdagings rondom *S. cerevisiae* CBP naamlik, (1) die verbetering van die gis se lae sekresiekapasiteit vir rekombinante sellulases deur die konstruksie en sifting van hibriede van natuurlike en industriële stamme; (2) die evaluering van verskillende sellulotiese gisstamkonfigurasies om die heterogeniteit van lignosellulotiese substrate aan te pak; en (3) die identifikasie van genetiese elemente wat verband hou met die komplekse, poligeniese eienskap van sellulaseproduksie en -sekresie deur middel van heelgenoomvolgordebepaling van geselekteerde gisvasse.

Ons beskryf 'n unieke benadering, wat sellulasesekresieprofiële van stamme en fenotipiese reaksies op stres, wat vir hul invloed op die sekresieweg bekend is, te kombineer en sodoende 'n fenotipiese siftingproses te ontwikkel. Die konstruksie en sifting van haploïede variante vanaf natuurlike stam-isolate YI13, FINI en YI59, het gevolglik verskeie haploïede met verhoogde algemene sellulasesekresie gelever. 'n Duidelike onderskeid tussen die YI13 haploïede variante en die industriële en laboratorium-stamme, Ethanol Red en S288c, is waargeneem. Ons resultate het getoon dat 'n nuwe siftingstegniek gekombineer met 'n

geteikende paringsbenadering 'n poel van nuwe stamme met verbeterde sellulasesekresievermoëns kon oplewer.

In 'n poging om 'n geskikte genetiese agtergrond vir doeltreffende sellulasesekresie te vind, is geneties diverse stamme geskep om kernstelle van swamsellulases, naamlik β -glukosidase, endoglukanase en sellobiohidrolase, in verskillende kombinasies te produseer. Hoër sekresietiters deur sellulolitiese stamme met die YI13 genetiese agtergrond is verkry en sellulolitiese transformante het tot 1.34-voudige hoër glukosekonsentrasies (g/L) vrygestel in vergelyking met 'n kontrolemengsel met gelyke hoeveelhede van elke ensiem tipe. Die transformant wat BGLI en EGII saam in 'n aktiwiteitsverhouding van 1:15 (eenheid per gram droë massa) geproduseer het, het 56.5% van die sellulose in mieliebronke tot glukose in hidrolise-eksperimente omgeskakel, en 4.05 g / L etanol in fermentasies opgelewer.

Ten slotte het ons 'n omvattende lys van moontlike veroorsakende geenkandidate geïdentifiseer wat met 'n hoë sekresiefenotipe verband hou, deur middel van 'n gesamentlike segregante heelgenoomvolgorde-analise en die daaropvolgende kartering van kwantitatiewe eienskaplokusse van 'n industriële stam (Ethanol Red) en 'n natuurlike stamisolat (YI13). Ander navorsers het getoon dat sommige van hierdie geenkandidate aktief by verskillende fases van sekresie, vanaf transkripsie, translasie, na-translasie-modifisering tot proteïenvouing, betrokke is. Daarbenewens het ons verskeie teikens vir toekomstige stamverbeteringstrategieë geïdentifiseer. Die stamme wat in hierdie studie ontwikkel is, verteenwoordig dus 'n nuwe stap na doeltreffende sellulasekresie vir CBP bio-etanolproduksie.

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PREFACE

This dissertation is a continuation from a Master's publication, referred to as **Paper I**. This article contributed to, but does not formed part of this study:

Paper I: Steffi Davison, Riaan den Haan and Willem van Zyl (2016)
Heterologous expression of cellulase genes in natural *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strains
Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology 120:8241-8254,
doi:10.1007/s00253-016-7735-x.

This dissertation is based on the following scientific manuscripts and outputs, referred to as **Papers II to III** in the text and represents **Chapter 3** and **Chapter 4**, respectively:

Paper II: Steffi Davison, Riaan den Haan and Willem van Zyl (2019)
Identification of superior cellulase secretion phenotypes in haploids derived from natural *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* isolates.
FEMS Yeast Research 19:foyl117, *doi:10.1093/femsyr/foyl117*.

Paper III: Steffi Davison, Nadine Keller, Riaan den Haan and Willem van Zyl (2019)
Improved cellulase expression in diploid yeast strains enhanced consolidated bioprocessing of pretreated corn residues.
Enzyme and Microbial Technology (131):109382,
doi:10.1061/j.enzmictec.2019.109382.

Paper IV: Steffi Davison and Riaan den Haan (2019)
Engineering organisms for direct microbial conversion of biomass to fuels and chemicals.
Sections of Chapter 2 form part of an invited review chapter in a book named 'Handbook for Biofuels', which will be submitted to Springer in the last quarter of 2019.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

1G	First generation	PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
2G	Second generation	PGK	Phosphoglycerate kinase
AFEX	Ammonia fiber explosion	PIR	Protein with internal repeats
AMP	Ampicillin marker	<i>p</i> NPG	<i>p</i> -Nitrophenyl β -D glucopyranoside
ARC	Agricultural Research Council	Pool-seq	Pool sequencing
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate	PSWGS	Pooled segregant whole genome sequencing
AZO-CM	Carboxymethyl cellulose dyed with remazolbrilliant blue	qPCR	Quantitative PCR
BAM	Binary of SAM	QTL	Quantitative trait loci
BSA	Bulk segregant analysis	QTN	Quantitative trait nucleotide
BLAST	Basic Local Alignment Search Tool	LD	Linkage disequilibrium
Biotech	Biotechnology	mRNA	Messenger RNA
BGL	Beta-glucosidase	MuLac	4-Methylumbelliferyl β -D- lactoside
BiP	Binding-immunoglobulin protein	NaCl	Sodium chloride
CBH	Cellobiohydrolase	NGS	Next generation sequencing
CBP	Consolidated bioprocessing	ORF	Open reading frame
CCNV	Chromosomal CNV	R&D	Research and design
CEN	Centromeric sequence	rDNA	Ribosomal DNA
Cel3A	BGL	RHA	Reciprocal hemizygoty analysis
Cel5A	EGII	RFLP	Restriction fragment length polymorphism
Cel7A	CBHI	RNA	Ribosomal nucleic acid
CFU	Colony forming unit	RPM	Rate per minute
Chr	Chromosome	ROS	Reactive oxygen species
cloNAT	Nourseothricin	SAM	Sequence alignment map
CMC	Carboxymethyl cellulose	SC	Synthetic complete
CNV	Copy number variation	SNV	Single nucleotide variance
CO ₂	Carbon dioxide	SSF	Simultaneous saccharification and fermentation
Ct	Cycle threshold	SSCF	Simultaneous saccharification and co-fermentation
CTAB	Cetyltrimethylammonium bromide	<i>Sf</i>	<i>Saccharomycopsis fibuligera</i>
CWI	Cell wall integrity	SNP	Single nucleotide polymorphisms
DCW	Dry cell weight	Sp.	Species
DNA	Deoxyribose nucleic acid	<i>Te</i>	<i>Talaromyces emersonii</i>
DNS	Dinitrosalicylic acid	<i>Tr</i>	<i>Trichoderma reesei</i>
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide	UV	Ultraviolet light
ER	Endoplasmic reticulum	UPR	Unfolded protein response
ERAD	ER-associated degradation	U/g	Unit per gram
ER12	Ethanol Red 12 strain	WGS	Whole genome sequencing
EG	Endoglucanase	W/V	Weight per volume
ENO	Enolase	VPS	Vacuolar protein sorting
FPU	Filter paper units	XI	Xylose isomerase
gDNA	Genomic DNA	XRD	Xylose dehydrogenase
G418	Geneticin sulphate	YNB	Yeast nitrogen base
GFP	Green fluorescence protein	YPD	Yeast peptone dextrose
GO	Gene ontology	YIP	Yeast integrative plasmid
GPI	glycosylphosphatidylinositol		
GSV	Genomic structural variation		
GWA	Genome wide association		
GEN	Geneticin		
Hsp	Heat shock proteins		
HPLC	High performance liquid chromatography		
HPH	Hygromycin		
INDEL	Insert/deletion		
KD	Kilo-dalton		
PASC	Phosphoric acid swollen cellulose		

“It's the job that's never started as takes longest to finish.”

J.R.R. Tolkien

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The “Sustainable Development Goals” set by the United Nations General Assembly for achievement in 2030 call for (1) affordable and clean energy, (2) responsible consumption and production as well as (3) climate action (Assembly and Goals 2015). Apart from being a more efficient source of energy, bioenergy can also provide economic, social and environmental benefits to particularly sub-Saharan Africa at large (Van Zyl et al. 2019). In fact, a bulk of Africa’s energy supply (48%) comes from biomass (IRENA 2015), with the main utilization of crop residue in Africa being incineration to generate energy or crop tillage (Kim and Dale 2004).

Second generation (2G) bioethanol technology, defined as fuels manufactured from various non-food biomass, i.e. lignocellulosic biomass, is gaining attention in low- and middle-income countries (Renzaho et al. 2017). However, some technical challenges remain that have impeded the economic feasibility of this technology (Van Rijn et al. 2018). One such obstacle is the development of suitable host organisms that contains all the necessary industrial traits for effective substrate utilisation (Lynd et al. 2005).

Saccharomyces cerevisiae has been employed as a bioengineering platform for the production of commodity chemicals, biofuels and natural products (Kavšček et al. 2015). At present, only a few laboratory strains, such as CEN.PK and S288c series, have been extensively used in genetic studies (Mortimer and Johnston 1986; Strucko et al. 2015; Daran-Lapujade et al. 2003). Recent studies screened natural *S. cerevisiae* isolates from a variety of sources and uncovered several industry-desirable traits (De Witt et al. 2018, Jansen et al. 2018, Cagnin et al. 2019;

Greetham et al. 2019, Favaro et al. 2019, Kang et al. 2019), including enhanced, innate secretory capacity for recombinant cellulase enzymes (Davison et al. 2016, 2019).

To expand yeast secretion efficiency as a model to study natural quantitative genetic variation, this study set out to measure and characterise the secretion efficiency of vineyard yeast isolates and the well-known industrial strain, Ethanol Red. Thereafter, a core challenge addressed in this study was to unravel the genetic foundation behind this trait. This could assist in transferring industrially relevant traits to industrial strains in future, thereby creating superior yeast strains for the production of renewable commodity products.

1.1 Study rationale

One of the main obstacles for viable industrial bioethanol production from lignocellulose is the recalcitrant nature of the biomass (Kroukamp et al. 2018). In 2G cellulosic bioethanol production, high titers of key cellulolytic enzymes are needed to break down complex lignocellulosic substrates for monomeric sugar release (Lynd et al. 2002). In comparison to other hydrolysis techniques such as acid hydrolysis, hydrolysing enzymes work in milder conditions. Less equipment maintenance is thus required (Aditiya et al. 2016) and it is considered an environmentally-friendly technology (Bilal et al. 2018). However, the cost of cellulases is by far the most variable cost factor of lignocellulosic biomass conversion (Losordo et al. 2016, Van Zyl et al. 2011; Lynd et al. 2005). Consequently, this parameter can account for up to 28% of processing costs when produced off-site and 22% when produced on-site, but at no cost when integrated into the configuration (Johnson et al. 2016).

To date, a highly integrated consolidated bioprocessing (CBP) configuration is widely recognised for its low-cost hydrolysis by reducing the amount of exogenous enzymes through the use of a fit-for-purpose microorganism or microbial consortium (Lynd et al. 2005, Johnson

et al. 2016, Bilal et al. 2018). The ideal CBP host needs to ferment pre-treated biomass to ethanol in one step through simultaneous saccharification and fermentation (SSF), without enzyme supplementation (Den Haan et al. 2015). In this way, enzyme costs can be decreased as the fermenting organism also secretes the required cellulases (Cripwell et al. 2015).

1.2 Aims and objectives

The aim of this study was to explore the natural diversity of *S. cerevisiae* isolates for improved heterologous enzyme expression, a core requirement for host strains for the CBP industry. The research objectives of this study was to (i) evaluate and characterise the secretory capacity of natural strains of *S. cerevisiae* to produce recombinant, cellulase enzymes; (ii) to investigate the application of cellulolytic strains on ‘real’ lignocellulosic raw materials; and (iv) elucidate the genetic mechanisms underlying the superior protein secretory phenotype displayed by natural strains. This study posed several questions, including:

- What challenges exist in terms of cellulase secretion that hamper CBP hosts?
- What can we learn from studying recombinant protein secretion of different cellulases in various genetic backgrounds?
- What can be learned from evaluating cellulolytic yeast strain expression configurations on lignocellulosic feedstocks for bioethanol production?
- Can we develop a blueprint of genes that can enhance secretion by studying the genetic architecture of recombinant protein secretion?

1.3 Dissertation outline

This dissertation is presented as a number of chapters consisting of a literature review with a general overview of 2G bioethanol production by CBP hosts and a discussion of the challenges related to various aspects of the recombinant protein secretion pathway, specifically for *S. cerevisiae* in the CBP context (**Chapter 2**). The subsequent chapters of the dissertation consist of three research chapters that addressed the aims of the study (**Chapters 3 to Chapter 5**). A general discussion and conclusions are presented in **Chapter 6**.

Due to a lack of certain desirable traits in existing industrial strains, the challenge of developing *S. cerevisiae* as a CBP organism prompted us to look to natural isolates, testing the principle that these isolates can be engineered to function as CBP strains by secreting high titers of the key enzymes in the cellulolytic system, whilst maintaining a high innate tolerance to industry-relevant stress factors (Davison et al. 2016). **Chapter 3** describes in greater depth the natural strains' ability to express the cellulolytic genes *Sf-BGLI*, *Tr-EGII* or *Te-CBHI* and illuminates the mechanism that allows certain yeast cells to sustain this response, as well as the link between heterologous protein secretion and stress modulation. This was done by generating an advanced intercross of haploid F1-segregant pools for pooled segregant whole genome sequencing and QTL analysis.

Another complicating factor in biomass conversion, is the impact of heterogeneous 'real', lignocellulosic substrates (such as the corn residues used in this dissertation), which impacts enzyme efficiency (Zhang et al. 1999, Yamada et al. 2013), enzyme loading (Arantes and Saddler 2010) and optimal enzyme ratios (Yamada et al. 2013). **Chapter 4** investigates different expression configurations of cellulase genes in *S. cerevisiae* through δ -integration of the *Sf-BGLI* and subsequent transformation with high-copy plasmids containing either *Tr-EGII* or *Te-CBHI*, in order to identify the most efficient combination for enzyme hydrolysis and

bioethanol production from pre-treated corn residues. This study thereby demonstrated the utilisation of natural yeast strains in CBP of ‘real’ substrates to produce bioethanol.

Understanding the genetic differences between *S. cerevisiae* strains with regards to their general secretion capacity could be a starting point to identifying the beneficial genetic elements for this complex phenotype. **Chapter 5** investigates the genetic basis that underlies hypersecretion in natural isolates strain of *S. cerevisiae*, as well as highlighting the significant findings of my research in relation to what has been reported in literature. This led to the identification of potential targets for improved secretion capabilities in *S. cerevisiae* and adds to the current knowledge regarding recombinant protein secretion.

Chapter 6 summarises the general conclusions of the study as well as future directions regarding strain engineering to enhance protein secretion yield, cellulase secretion functional analysis studies and tailoring strains for specific substrates.

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CHAPTER 2

MICROBIAL HOST CHALLENGES IN CONSOLIDATED BIOPROCESSING FOR CELLULOSIC BIOETHANOL PRODUCTION

*Sections of this chapter form part of a review chapter in a book named 'Handbook for Biofuels', which will be submitted to Springer.

2.1 Introduction

Research for consolidated bioprocessing of lignocellulosic material into bioethanol has made progress in the past decades, however, several challenges still exist that impede the viable, industrial application of this technology (Lynd et al. 2017). Identifying the challenges which exist in all the unit operations are crucial and need to be addressed, but only the barriers related to microbial hosts, in particular, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, will be addressed in this chapter. This review will briefly discuss the challenges involved in the construction of an efficient cellulolytic yeast, focusing on, the secretion efficiency of cellulases from the hosts. A significant section of the research reported in this thesis involves rational engineering and exploiting genetically diversity, combining the strengths of both approaches towards understanding complex but desirable phenotypes, in particular recombinant cellulase secretion. Furthermore, with the advancement of low-cost and high-throughput approaches in next generation sequencing, it is important to review studies that exploit inter-strain diversity to determine the genetic factors surrounding industrially relevant traits. As a part of the research was performed on corn residue, this raw material will be discussed as a case study for challenges related to substrate heterogeneity and cellulase loadings.

2.2 Consolidated bioprocessing of lignocellulosic biomass for biofuels

Conversion of biomass to ethanol via a biological route initiates with physical and/or chemical pretreatment to enhance subsequent enzymatic hydrolysis of the polymeric fractions (Lynd et al. 2005; Jansen et al. 2017). Four biologically-mediated events then convert pretreated lignocellulose to ethanol, namely (a) production of depolymerising enzymes; (b) hydrolysis of polysaccharide components; (c) fermentation of the hexose; and (d) pentose monomers. When these four stages are performed separately, the process is termed separate hydrolysis and fermentation (SHF). Improved conversion technologies involve consolidating two or more of these steps. Hydrolysis and fermentation steps are combined in either simultaneous saccharification and fermentation (SSF) of hexoses or simultaneous saccharification and co-fermentation of both hexoses and pentoses (SSCF). These processes avoid the feedback inhibition inherent to SHF, but require a compromise in either optimal enzyme hydrolysis or fermentation temperature and a suitable fermentative organism. However, improved product yields have been reported with SSF and SSCF configurations (Smith et al. 2014). Ultimately, one-step consolidated bioprocessing (CBP) of lignocellulosic biomass to a commodity product such as bioethanol is envisioned, where a single microorganism or consortium performs all steps in one reactor with no requirement for external enzymes.

To date, a highly integrated CBP configuration is widely recognised for its low-cost hydrolysis by reducing the amount of exogenous enzymes through the use of a fit-for-purpose microorganism or microbial consortium (**Figure 2.1**). The challenge exists in finding an ideal CBP host, which needs to produce ethanol from pretreated biomass in one step without enzyme supplementation (Den Haan et al. 2015). The enzyme costs can be decreased by CBP, during which the fermenting organism also secretes the recombinant cellulases (Cripwell et al. 2015). Several microorganisms have been engineered for possible use in lignocellulosic bio-refineries for the production of biofuels and green chemicals (reviewed in **Paper IV**).

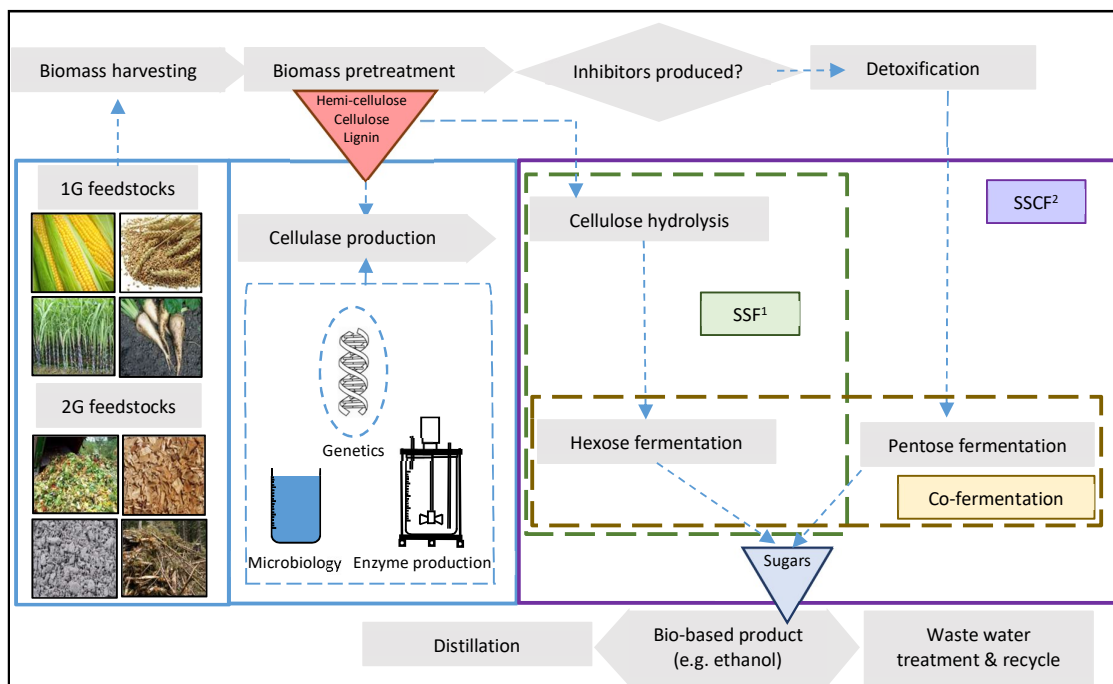


Figure 2.1 Schematic overview of different steps in industrial production of bio-based chemicals with first- and second-generation substrates using microbial hosts (image adapted from Van Zyl et al. 2007).
¹SSF, simultaneous saccharification and fermentation.
²SSCF, simultaneous saccharification and co-fermentation

Dominating the worldwide biofuel production is ethanol production using sugarcane, and cereal crops for biodiesel production using oleaginous plants as feedstocks (Vohra et al. 2014). These first generation (1G) biofuels have provided a means to displace substantial amounts of fossil fuel, but do not create the required volumes of fuels and green chemicals required to avoid crude oil usage (Lynd et al. 2017). Furthermore, 1G fuels often suffer from poor energy balances and contribute to debates on food-versus-fuel production, as well as indirect land and water usage problems. In response to these challenges, several studies have demonstrated that using lignocellulose, the non-edible structural component of plant cell walls, as feedstock for second generation (2G) biofuels, may provide a way of avoiding a number of negative issues associated with 1G biofuel production (Saini et al. 2015; Vohra et al. 2014). Second generation biofuels can also contribute to rural economic development and enhanced sustainability of

agriculture in developed and developing economies (Saini et al. 2015). Lignocellulosic biomass is thus a potential sustainable and renewable feedstock for the production of biofuels and green chemicals if an enabling technology can be developed to overcome its recalcitrance (Lynd 2017; Singh and Olsen 2012). This recalcitrance stems from the fact that the cellulose and hemi-cellulose polymers, representing the fermentable portion of lignocellulosic biomass, are largely packaged in crystalline form and intertwined with non-fermentable lignin.

2.2.1 Substrate heterogeneity and enzyme loadings

While corn residues are regarded as one of the most favourable lignocellulosic substrates in biorefinery concepts due to its low price, abundance and availability, cellulosic fuel plants utilising corn residue are not yet considered economically feasible. Several economic analyses have been performed on different biorefinery systems, with inconsistency in the minimum ethanol selling price ranging from US\$0.89-US\$4.58 per US gallon of ethanol as summarised by Van Rijn and co-workers (2018). A techno-economic model based on an experimental scenario of bagasse-based ethanol production predicted a cost of over US\$3 per gallon, requires further optimisation to become cost competitive with petroleum (Van Rijn et al. 2018).

Lignocellulosic biomasses such as corn residues are required to be pretreated to break down the recalcitrant, naturally resistant carbohydrate-lignin shield that limits accessibility (Torget et al. 1991). Significant research has been pursued to improve the efficiency of pretreatment methods (Yang and Wyman 2008; Alvira et al. 2010) and the production of hydrolytic enzymes on lignocellulosic substrates like corn stover (Zhao et al. 2017; Stenberg et al. 2000). However, high exogenous enzyme loadings are still required which contribute to the high costs involved in biomass conversion to biofuels and green chemicals (Lynd et al. 2017). For this study, corn residues namely corn cob and corn husk, were utilised (**Chapter 4**) as they constitute some of the most important agricultural crop waste in South Africa (Myers and Underwood 1992).

Previous research has utilised several strategies to try to reduce the cost of enzymatic hydrolysis, which include minimising the costs of enzyme production (Lynd et al. 2005; Den Haan et al. 2013a), increasing the hydrolytic performance of enzymes (Liu et al. 2017; Li et al. 2018; Hu et al. 2013; Ilmén et al. 2011), or reducing the enzyme inhibition (Mhlongo et al. 2015). Increased enzyme loadings may lead to increased hydrolysis, but only to a certain point after which hydrolysis slows down due to various factors. For instance, at higher loadings, the relative number of available binding sites is reduced and enzymes start competing for the same binding sites, leading to a reduced rate of hydrolysis (Banerjee et al. 2010). In a study by Boussaid and Saddler (1999), up to 720 FPU/g (filter paper unit/gram cellulose) of a commercial cocktail did not achieved complete hydrolysis of kraft pulp that contained 28% lignin. Higher enzyme loadings of commercial cocktails are generally required, as the specific activities of the enzymes will be lower due to the presence of many non-essential enzymes (Banerjee et al. 2010) and different substrate specificities (Van Dyk and Pletschke 2012). Furthermore, it is more difficult to achieve optimised ratios of enzymes for each specific substrate (Gao et al. 2011). An alternative route to cost reduction includes identifying key essential enzymes and adapting the cellulase ratios (Liu et al. 2017; Yamada et al. 2010, 2011).

Biotechnological companies including Novozyme, Genencor International and Megazyme, have made great strides in decreasing the cost associated with enzyme production in the past decade, however, it is predicted that at least a three to five-fold further reduction is needed for cellulosic ethanol to be financially feasible (Aden and Foust 2009; Humbird et al. 2010). Lowering cellulase loadings by determining the minimal enzyme dose or protein amount required to achieve effective cellulose hydrolysis yields is one way to reduce costs involved in biomass conversion processes like CBP (Den Haan et al. 2013b). As discussed previously, enzyme loadings may differ depending on the specific substrate and its composition. For example, Hu and co-workers (2018) measured the minimum enzyme required to efficiently

hydrolyse a substrate (~80%) after 72h. With a relatively “pure” cellulosic substrate (dissolving pulp), they were able to achieve a hydrolysis yield of 93% using enzyme loadings of 30 mg/g (or 30 FPU/g cellulose), while 60 mg/g was required for the same yields in a naturally heterogeneous substrates (lodge pine) containing hemi-cellulose and lignin.

Exacerbating the challenge of biomass conversion is the heterogeneity of the biomass, as improved hydrolytic activity on simple, cellulosic substrates usually does not directly translate to improved activity on more complex lignocellulosic substrates (Brodeur et al. 2011). Subsequently, different percentages of cellulose, hemi-cellulose and lignin have an effect on accessibility and cellulose hydrolysis performance of cellulase enzymes as reviewed by Hu and co-workers (2018). In fact, a bottleneck in CBP is the limited efficacy of cellulase mixtures on the various polysaccharides in lignocellulosic substrates (Hu et al. 2018). Therefore, a solution to improve cellulose hydrolysis include studying the protein/enzyme ratios required to achieve the effective cellulose hydrolysis and reducing the overall enzyme loadings by altering the enzyme ratios for different biomass substrates. It is thus important to evaluate recombinant cellulolytic yeasts expressing optimum enzyme activity ratios of key cellulases in order to improve lignocellulosic substrate conversion levels (**Chapter 4**).

2.2.2 Expression of cellulases in yeast

Enzymes represent a significant cost in bioconversion (Lynd et al. 2017), therefore understanding the challenges in reducing the enzyme cost or enzyme loadings are paramount. Over the past two decades, the yeast *S. cerevisiae* was regularly chosen for the production of industrially relevant enzymes due to its rapid growth rate, high cell density fermentation capabilities, microbial safety and post-translational processing (Çelik and Çalik 2012). Identifying *S. cerevisiae* strains with superior secretion and thus the production of recombinant enzymes, whether for pharmaceutical, agricultural or industrial processes, has the benefit of

lowering production costs (Lynd et al. 2005). Specifically, cellulase engineering in *S. cerevisiae* has demonstrated significant progress towards the development of a CBP host strain, including the successful secretion of the three main types of cellulase activities, namely cellobiohydrolase (CBH), endoglucanase (EG), and β -glucosidase (BGL) (Den Haan et al. 2007), as well as partial conversion of crystalline cellulose to ethanol (Sadie et al. 2011) as illustrated in **Figure 2.2**.

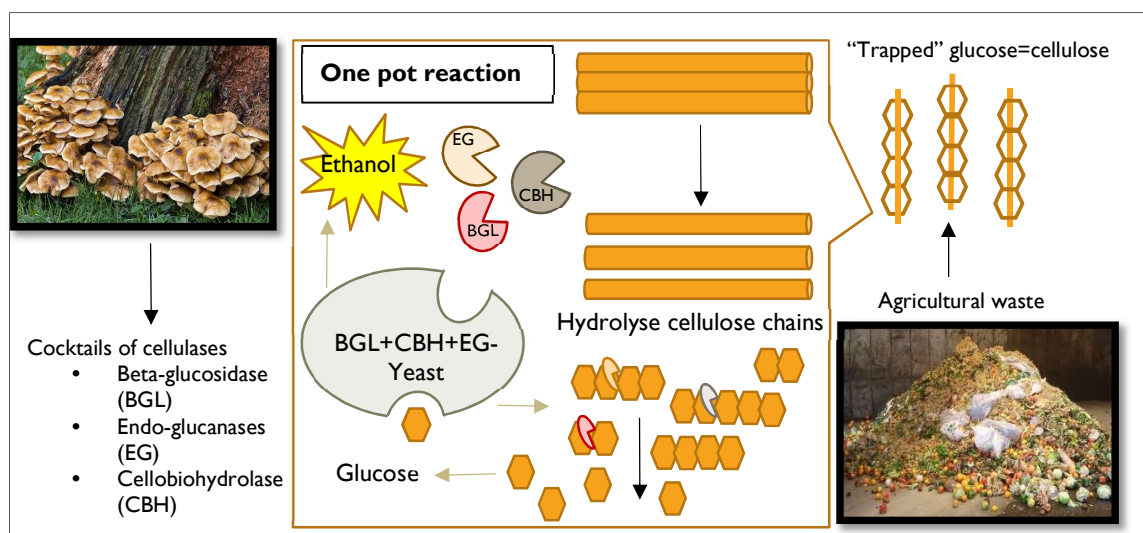


Figure 2.2 Breakdown of cellulose using core glycoside hydrolases.

Cellobiohydrolase or exoglucanase (CBH, 1,4- β -D-glucan cellobiohydrolase, E.C.3.2.1.91) has in particular, gained attention due its mechanism of action on crystalline cellulose substrates (acting on the reducing (CBHI) or non-reducing (CBHII) ends of cellulose chains, liberating cellobiose), as well as its efficiency, synergy and being the most abundantly produced protein by a majority of cellulolytic fungi (Den Haan et al. 2013). However, it is known that the expression of the GH7 family of CBHs is challenging in *S. cerevisiae*, yielding poor secretion levels and low activity. In order to identify CBHs that were efficiently secreted by *S. cerevisiae*, Ilmén and co-workers (2011) screened several CBH genes and identified a *Talaromyces emersonii* CBHI (with a modified carbohydrate binding domain) as one of the most efficiently secreted CBHI enzymes. This study successfully improved the CBH activity

and yields in *S. cerevisiae*, through modular engineering of *Te*-CBHI by adding a carbohydrate binding domain from *T. reesei*. Due to its importance in both academic and industrial fields, this enzyme has served as one of the main reporter proteins in this thesis.

Other reporter proteins used in this thesis included endoglucanase (EG, endo-1,4- β -D-3 glucanohydrolase, E.C.3.2.1.4) and beta-glucosidase (BGL, β -glycoside glycosyl hydrolase/cellobiose E.C.3.2.1.21). EG hydrolyses β -1-4 glycosidic bonds randomly at internal amorphous sites in the cellulose, providing more ends for CBHI to act upon (Kleman-Leyer et al. 1996). BGL hydrolyses cellobiose or cello-oligosaccharides to glucose and is involved in transglycosylated reactions of β -glycoside conjugates (Van Rooyen et al. 2005). All three core enzymes are required for efficient hydrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass (Medve et al. 1998; Kleman-Leyer et al. 1996). Recently, the importance of LPMOs (lytic polysaccharides monooxygenases in family AA9) has been emphasised as accessory enzymes for the enhancement of cellulolytic cocktails for lignocellulosic hydrolysis, demonstrating high substrate specificity (Hu et al. 2013).

Enhanced secretion of recombinant cellulases is one of many strategies to engineer cellulolytic microbes for ethanol production; other strategies include cell-surface display, cellodextrin transport and secretion of cellulases (illustrated in **Figure 2.3**). One strategy for cellulose utilisation by *S. cerevisiae* involved co-expression of a cellodextrin transporter with heterologous cellulases (Yamada et al. 2013) or cellobiose phosphorylase (Sadie et al. 2011) (**Figure 2.3b**). A combinatorial study by Fan and co-workers (2016) integrated the cellodextrin pathway and expressed bifunctional minicellulosomes, achieving high specific productivity in the range of 55-62 mg ethanol/g cell/h from cellulose substrates.

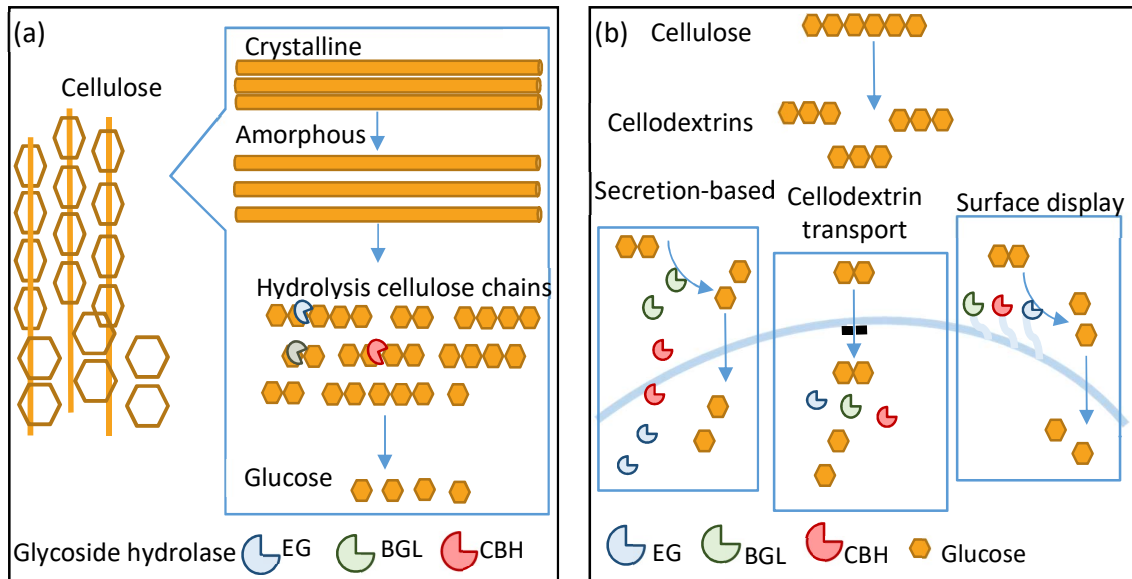


Figure 2.3 Lignocellulosic sugar utilisation pathways. a) Cellulose utilisation pathways. b) Engineering cellulolytic microbes for cellulosic ethanol production via either cell-surface display, secretion of enzymes or cellodextrin transport.

In comparison, a cell-surface display technique, that immobilised the enzymes to the cell surface through anchoring proteins, has allowed successful expression of a range of cellulases in *S. cerevisiae* (Fan et al. 2016, Liu et al. 2016; Chen et al. 2018) (**Figure 2.3b**). A study by Fan and co-workers (2016) tethered BGL, EG and CBH to the cell surface, achieving 27% ethanol yield from Avicel. This demonstrated that optimising the cellulase ratio on the cell surface was effective in improving cellulosic ethanol production, resulting in overall better synergy, but also rationally distributing intracellular resources for protein synthesis.

More recently, novel anchoring proteins, i.e. glycosylphosphatidylinositols (GPIs) from different yeast and fungal species for cell-surface display of BGL on *S. cerevisiae* have been explored (Mhuantong et al. 2019). In this case, demonstrating an improvement of BGL activity up to 2.8 times compared to the traditional α -agglutinin anchor system. Liu and co-workers (2016) fused enzymes to the N-terminus of Sed1, a *S. cerevisiae* cell wall protein rich in threonine/serine residues that contains a putative GPI attachment signal. Once the GPI-anchor is attached to the Sed1-enzyme fusion protein in the ER, it is transferred to the cell surface

through the secretion pathway. Liu and co-workers (2016) used this strategy to engineer a *BGL*-expressing *S. cerevisiae* strain to produce cell-surface displayed cellulases including *T. reesei* EGII, *T. emersonii* CBHI, and *Chrysosporium lucknowense* CBHII, demonstrating ethanol yields of up to 6 g/L on PASC, which is 9% higher than levels produced by cellulase expressing strains secreting the enzymes into the extracellular media.

Recently, the recovery of cellulases has emerged as a promising approach, as using enzymes several times (by relying on the mechanism of enzyme absorption/desorption) has reduced the enzyme cost component of CBP (Gomes et al. 2018, 2016). A feasibility study of cellulase recycling demonstrated, in a case study of recycled paper sludge for bioethanol production, enzyme stabilities of 71, 64 and 100% of the initial Cel7A, Cel7B and BGL activities after four rounds of hydrolysis and fermentation (Gomes et al. 2018). This strategy enabled an enzyme saving in the range of 53 to 60%, and can contribute to up to a 40% reduction in paper sludge disposal costs (Gomes et al. 2018).

Due to the heterogeneity of lignocellulosic substrates, recent studies have supplemented heterologous cellulases with xylanases to improve hydrolysis rates and enzyme accessibility to cellulose through synergistic interactions (Song et al. 2016, Chen et al. 2018). Chen and co-workers (2018) recently employed a cellulase-xylanase cell-surface engineered yeast consortium for cellulosic ethanol conversion (**Figure 2.3b**). Since hydrolysis efficiency correlates with the enzyme diversity of CBP systems, fusion proteins can be co-displayed as xylanases (XynII-XylA) and three types of cellulases (Y5/EG-CBH-BGL), resulting in enhanced synergism between cellulases and xylanases (Song et al. 2016). This combined yeast consortium produced 1.60 g/L ethanol, which achieved 64.7% of the theoretical maximum ethanol yield during 144h fermentations of steam-exploded corn stover. However, it is important to note that the fusion protein approach is not universally applicable to all yeasts as

demonstrated by Xu and co-workers (2018). A fusion protein of *T. reesei*'s CBHI and EGII demonstrated enhanced digestion of pre-treated corn stover with secretomes of *Yarrowia lipoytica* (50%) and *Lipomyces starkeyi* (29%), whereas *S. cerevisiae* expression was poor and only minimal activity on the substrate was observed.

2.2.3 Importance of cellulase enzyme ratio

Past research suggests that recombinant cellulases need to work in a synergistic manner similar to fungal cellulases, whereby two or more cellulases are present in a specific ratio and are essential components of the full hydrolysing activity (Baek et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2017; Yamada et al. 2010) (**Figure 2.3a**). For instance, a study by Zhang and Lynd (2004) demonstrated that a *T. reesei* mixture, where 60% of the cellulase was composed of CBHI and 12% of EGII enzyme activities, enhanced hydrolysis yields. Liu and co-workers (2017) and Song and co-workers (2018) optimised cellulase ratios by screening cellulosic *S. cerevisiae* transformants generated through cocktail delta-integration strategies, ultimately improving hydrolysing capacity through optimised heterologous cellulase expression levels.

Some expression studies focused on optimising the cellulase gene copy numbers ratio. For example, Liu and co-workers (2017) constructed strain A26 with delta-integrated cellulase cassettes (BGL:EG:CBHI:CBHII). This strain demonstrated transcript levels at ratios of 1:2:2.3:0.5, and produced 2.6 g/L ethanol from 10 g/L Avicel, in contrast to the single integrated strain (1:1:1:1) that produced 1.9 g/L ethanol. According to the early endo-exo synergistic model of free-form cellulase (Henrissat et al. 1985), the EG:CBH ratio should be lower than 1, demonstrating that CBH is the major contributor to cellulose hydrolysis, with EG synergistically enhancing its hydrolysis efficiency.

To date, only a handful of studies have demonstrated the capability of cellulolytic *S. cerevisiae* to ferment ethanol in a one-step process through SSF of pre-treated corn stover without the

addition of exogenous enzymes (Khrantsov et al. 2011, Chen et al. 2018). In the study by Khrantsov and co-workers (2015), the recombinant strain was constructed using multiple rounds of delta integration and the ethanol fermentation was performed at 10% dry weight of pre-treated matter, resulting in the recombinant strain (590.E1) reaching 2.6% (v/v) ethanol titer after 96h. In contrast, Chen and co-workers (2018) produced 1.61% (v/v) ethanol (64.7% of theoretical ethanol yields) after 144 h from steam-exploded corn stover using a combined yeast consortium. It is therefore imperative to demonstrate improvements in cellulosic expression in fermentative hosts like *S. cerevisiae* (**Chapter 4**).

2.3 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* as a host organism for CBP

“Given that yeast have a long history of being used to ferment food and drink, archaeologists have argued for years that early craftsmen may have selectively bred yeast strains without even realising it. This resulted in yeasts developing traits that led them to thrive in environments managed by humans, but tend to struggle in the wild.” (Economist 2016)

Yeast, specifically strains of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, have been the organisms of choice for fermentation processes including early wine and beer making and currently, the bioethanol industry (Lynd et al. 2005). Genomic analysis studies of the microbiome found in natural ethanol fermentation processes, have demonstrated that among the vast diversity of yeast species,

S. cerevisiae is the most dominant species (Pretorius 2000; Basso et al. 2008; Steensels et al. 2014). The traits that make *S. cerevisiae* an ideal candidate for the industrial production of ethanol and other commodity products, include its ability to produce high ethanol yields, making this yeast especially useful in carbohydrate bio-processing (Favaro et al. 2015). However, the fermentation environment in 2G cellulosic bioethanol production is significantly different to the classical fermentation set-up (Lambertz et al. 2014). The ideal host strain would not only have to tolerate the complex and challenging fermentation medium presented by

lignocellulosic hydrolysates, but also display high levels of recombinant cellulase activity (La Grange et al. 2010). Since several of the desired traits for strains used in wine fermentation are similar to the traits desired for industrial strains in bioethanol fermentations, e.g. to tolerate and produce high ethanol yields (Zakrzewska et al. 2011), it is logical to search for ideal industrial strains in the same environment (**Chapter 3**).

The strategy of exploiting the biodiversity of yeast for strain optimisation takes advantage of the well-documented natural phenotypic variation within *S. cerevisiae* species, as well as between strains and closely related species (Fay et al. 2004; Carreto et al. 2008; Kvitek et al. 2008; Liti et al. 2009; Schacherer et al. 2009; Csoma et al. 2010; Ruyters et al. 2014; Jin et al. 2013; Wohlbach et al. 2014). A recent survey of genetic polymorphisms highlighted that vineyard yeast isolates represent a diverse, natural population that are genetically different from domesticated strains (Peter et al. 2018). Vineyard isolated strains therefore provide an untapped resource of natural genetic polymorphisms resulting from environmental selective pressures, that are distinct from those of laboratory strains.

Initially, Brazilian bioethanol fermentations used baker's yeast strains in starter cultures for yeast recycling; however, these were quickly outcompeted by dominant and persistent natural *S. cerevisiae* strains (Da Silva-Filho et al. 2005; Basso et al. 2008). This demonstrated the potential of phenotyping the natural biodiversity of *S. cerevisiae* to find superior industrial strains. Unfortunately, many natural strains may not be suitable for direct industrial fermentation, but industrially superior relevant traits can, nevertheless, potentially be transferred to industrial strains, thereby creating strains with desirable features. More recently, commercial bioethanol strains such as PE2, CAT1 and Ethanol Red (Amorim et al. 2011, Da Conceição et al. 2014, Romani et al. 2015) have caught the attention of researchers worldwide. In particular, Brazilian commercial yeast strains have been reported in literature to have other interesting traits, namely for 2G bioethanol processes, such as tolerance to inhibitors

dominance over other strains in the industrial fermentation process (Pereira et al. 2014, Da Conceição et al. 2014) and have been genetically modified for xylose (Romani et al. 2015). Not only is there a need to develop new strains for ethanol industries that are tolerant, fast fermenters and competitive with natural strains (Amorim et al. 2011), but also there is an increasing need to understand the genetic background of natural and industrial strains linked to the process conditions (Davison et al. 2015, Costa et al. 2017).

2.3.1 Exploiting genetic diversity for desirable industrial traits

Over 70 years ago, yeast genetics started with Øjvind Winge when he crossed two strains to create a hybrid with the combined desirable traits from both parents, resulting in the generation of recombinant offspring from genetically diverged strains (Winge and Roberts 1954). This process of crosses and generating segregants led to the yeast developing into an ideal genetic model (Liti and Louis 2012). *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* was the first eukaryote sequenced with a handful of laboratory strains, mostly related to the sequenced S288c strain's background, being universally studied (Liti and Louis 2012).

Large collections of strains have been isolated from man-made industrial environments (Pereira et al. 2014; Ventorino et al. 2015) and natural environments (Khan et al. 2000; Westhuizen et al. 2000). Half the sequenced natural strains demonstrated a mosaic of recombinant genomes due to outcrossing between clean lineages, resulting in polymorphism in the majority of segregating sites (Liti and Louis 2012). Natural *S. cerevisiae* strains can contain sequences that are not present in the reference strain (found on GenBank database) or the bioethanol production strain (PE2) that are used to design the probes on arrays or to align the short reads by next-generation sequencing (NGS) (Peter et al. 2018). Argueso and co-workers (2009) revealed additional chromosomal regions within sub-telometric regions of an industrial bioethanol production strain that were not present in the S288c genome using karyotype

analysis. Generally, these regions do not contain essential viability genes, but they may contribute to overall fitness in specific environments (Swinnen et al. 2012).

In contrast, breeding *S. cerevisiae* for experimental usage has created laboratory strains that have less heterozygosity, resulting in a loss of some of the characteristics seen in natural strains (Peter et al. 2018). For instance, population studies have demonstrated genome-wide variation between diverged populations, potentially due to man-made environments, as well as between geographical clusters (Liti and Louis 2012). Although domesticated yeast lines exhibit high variation in ploidy and genome structural variation, genome evolution in natural isolates is mainly driven by the accumulation of single nucleotide polymorphisms at low frequencies, as well as copy number variations (Peter et al. 2018).

As a way to experimentally measure the phenotypic effect on genetic variants, reverse genetic technology allow the high throughput manipulation of genetic information (Liti and Louis 2012). To date, a targeted genetic modification such as inverse engineering offer one of the optimal solutions for the improvement of traits. However, this requires knowledge about the genetic basis of the phenotype. Thus, a method that studies complex, polygenic traits without background knowledge of the trait, is desirable.

Studies of quantitative traits, i.e. traits that depend on the cumulative action of many genes, are challenging. However, the genetic divergence between strains and the presence of phenotypes that are extreme (relative to those of either parental line) in segregating hybrid populations, have allowed for the detections of genetic mechanisms that govern the trait (Tanksley 1993; Rieseberg et al. 1999). These transgressive phenotypes in segregating hybrid populations have been speculated to contribute to mechanisms for niche divergence of hybrid lines and that hybridisation provided raw material for rapid adaptation and phenotypic novelty (Rieseberg et al. 1999). Furthermore, transgressive segregation appears to be quite common in industrial

traits, i.e. nitrogen metabolism (Rieseberg et al. 1999), although the genetic basis of the generated novel phenotypes is generally unknown.

Interestingly, transgression occurs most frequently in intra-specific crosses involving inbred, domesticated plant populations and least frequently in interspecific crosses between outbred, wild animal species (Rieseberg et al. 1999). This transgression is caused in part by heterosis (or hybrid vigour), which is most pronounced in first-generation (F1)-hybrids, and is implicated when the mean trait value of the hybrids exceeds (in the positive direction only) the phenotypic values of both parental lines. Holland and co-workers (2014) demonstrated that hybrid species display transgressive traits in nature, potentially due to the evolutionary advantage of higher levels of genetic heterogeneity.

Several studies have focused on evaluating natural and industrial *S. cerevisiae* isolates for a range of quantitative traits required in CBP, as reviewed in **Table 2.1**. Examples of quantitative traits evaluated among *S. cerevisiae* isolates include high tolerance to various inhibitors and varying fermentation profiles, as well as tolerance to other environmental stresses including fluctuating osmolarity and high temperatures (Steensels and Verstrepen 2014; Ruyters et al. 2014; Mukherjee et al. 2014; Favaro et al. 2013). Surprisingly, only a handful of studies have evaluated *S. cerevisiae* isolates for protein secretion capacities. An example of the difference in secretion capacity was the significant differences in extracellular activity levels of *Saccharomycopsis fibuligera* Cel3A among seven diverse *S. cerevisiae* strains, with secreted enzyme activities ranging from 73 to 250 mU/mL (Gurgu et al. 2011). Similarly, De Baetselier and co-workers (1991) demonstrated a 100-fold difference in enzyme activities between the lower and higher performers after screening several recombinant *S. cerevisiae* strains producing *Aspergillus niger* glucose oxidase.

Table 2.1 Summary of the most prominent studies for CBP processes using natural strains of *S. cerevisiae* as a platform for identifying genes and other mechanisms involved in desirable industrial traits.

Trait of interest	Methodology	Gene	Strain information	Reference
Volatile metabolites involved in wine aroma profiles	Advanced multidimensional gas chromatography tandem with multivariate analysis – microbial metabolomics to assess inter-strain variability	n/a	Two strains isolated from spontaneous fermentation of grapes (BT2652 and BT2453) and two commercial strains (CSc1 and CSc2)	Alves et al. 2015
Fermentation vigour	Transcriptome profiles for strains evaluated at different time points of fermentation in synthetic must medium during exponential and stationary growth phases.	n/a	Five environmental isolates, clinical and laboratory strains	Carreto et al. 2011
Heterologous protein secretion	Characterised the ability of various natural strains to secrete recombinant killer toxin	n/a	Twenty natural isolate strains, five modified wild strains, and three laboratory strains	Strange et al. 2016
Heterologous protein secretion	Transposon-mutagenised yeast genomic DNA library was constructed to identify novel genes involved in secretion of recombinant antibodies	<i>VSP30</i> , <i>TAR1</i> , <i>HEM13</i>	Strain W303 α was used for all experiments	De Ruijter et al. 2017
Thermotolerance	Mapping multiple quantitative trait loci's (QTLs) responsible for high thermotolerance in natural yeast strain	<i>MKT1</i> <i>PRP42</i>	Isolated strain MUCL28177 from orange juice	Li et al. 2012
Ethanol tolerance	Applying next-generation sequencing analysis to map QTLs determining high ethanol tolerance	<i>MKT1</i> , <i>SW12</i> , <i>APJ1</i> , <i>SWS2</i>	Brazilian bioethanol production strain with laboratory strain with moderate ethanol tolerance	Swinnen et al. 2012
Sporulation efficiency	High throughput method to quantify yeast sporulation efficiency of oak isolates and wine strains	<i>RME1</i>	Isolates of strains from wine fermentation and oak trees	Gerke et al. 2006
Xylose utilization	Mapped single gene trait using bulk segregant analysis using microarrays and sequencing	<i>XDHI</i>	Wine haploid strains crossed S288c strains	Wenger et al. 2010
Oenological traits	Mapping multiple QTLs responsible for oenological phenotypes	<i>YRD30W</i> , <i>FLX1</i> , <i>MDH2</i>	Combination of commercial wine strains and natural yeast isolates	Salinas et al. 2012

Previously, we evaluated natural *S. cerevisiae* strains for superior secretion activity and other industrially relevant characteristics needed during the process of lignocellulosic ethanol production (Davison et al. 2016). Individual cellulases, namely the *S. fibuligera* Cel3A (β -glucosidase), *Talaromyces emersonii* Cel7A (cellobiohydrolase) and *Trichoderma reesei* Cel5A (endoglucanase) were utilised as reporter proteins. The natural *S. cerevisiae* strain, YI13, was identified to have a high secretory phenotype, demonstrating a 3.7- and 3.5-fold higher Cel7A and Cel5A activity, respectively, compared to the S288c reference strain. The YI13 strain also demonstrated other industrially relevant characteristics, such as growth vigour, high ethanol titer, multi-tolerance to high temperatures (37 and 40 °C), ethanol (10% w/v) and towards various concentrations of a cocktail of inhibitory compounds commonly found in lignocellulose hydrolysates. This study accentuated the value of natural *S. cerevisiae* strains to serve as potential robust and highly productive chassis organisms for CBP strain development. However, less is known about the genetic determinants underlying this superior secretion phenotype and no study to date has utilised genetic backgrounds of natural strain isolates to understand this phenotype.

2.3.2 Aneuploidy and genomic structural variations: Drivers of phenotypic diversity

Genomic structural variation (GSV) is an ubiquitous phenomenon observed in the genomes of *S. cerevisiae* strains with different genetic backgrounds (Zheng et al. 2014). However, the physiological and phenotypic effects of GSV are not well understood. Industrial strains have demonstrated to show a more complex genome, with differing ploidy genotypes (Carreto et al. 2008). In this regard, the genetic complexity of strain background may hamper genetic mapping due to the difficulty in obtaining stable haploids that continue to demonstrate the relative expression of the quantitative trait of interest of its parent, thus serving as the strain containing the specific trait in genetic mapping. In fact, if copy number variation (CNV) is a contributing

factor to the expression of the trait, genetic mapping becomes challenging (Swinnen et al. 2012). However, successful quantitative trait loci (QTL) studies have been performed in strains demonstrating chromosomal copy number variations (Marullo et al. 2007; García-ríos et al. 2017). For example García-ríos and co-workers (2017) unravelled the genetic determinants of low-temperature fermentation by performing QTL using the approach of bulk segregant analysis (BSA) in the F₁₃ offspring of two industrial yeast strains with divergent performance at low-temperature, although chromosomal copy number variation was detected on Chromosomes IV, VIII, XV and XVI.

Clear phenotypes of aneuploid cells are caused by specific gene imbalances and general aneuploidy-associated traits caused by simultaneous changes in the gene dosage of many genes, which have little effects when studied individually (Hose et al. 2015). For instance, whole chromosome gains and losses can dramatically affect human health with hallmarks such as cancers or tumorigenesis, mental retardation and causes of miscarriages (Rutledge and Cimini 2016). However, in yeasts, aneuploidy plays a significantly different role. Changes in gene expression levels, ploidy and CNV are important contributors to both genetic and phenotype diversity and fungal domestication (Gallone et al. 2016; Gibbons and Rinker 2015). An example is seen in the gene duplication of the α -amylase in *Aspergillus oryzae* (Fraser et al. 2012; Gibbons and Rinker 2015) as well as experimentally evolved *S. cerevisiae* strains (Gresham et al. 2008; Dunn et al. 2012). These studies suggest that CNV could be a significant contributor to evolution and adaptation of *S. cerevisiae* and that it provides an important additional source of genetic diversity (Comai 2005).

Aneuploidy or chromosomal copy number variation, as encountered in natural and industrial strains (Peter et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2016b), plays a key role in adaptation to endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress resistance in yeast (Beaupere et al. 2018). In particular, ER stress has been linked to protein folding and secretion (Mattanovich et al. 2004). A study by Beaupere

and co-workers (2018) highlighted that chromosomal duplications allowed adaptation of yeast cells to ER stress, independently of the unfolded protein response (UPR), and that the gain of an extra chromosome II alone was sufficient to protect against the effects of tunicamycin (an ER stressor). The yeast genome becomes unstable during stress, which often results in adaptive aneuploidy, allowing rapid activation of protective mechanisms that restore the cellular homeostasis (Beaupere et al. 2018). While aneuploidy itself leads to proteotoxic stress (Oromendia et al. 2012), the gene-specific effects of aneuploidy could counteract the negative effect in this case, resulting in improved protein folding and may therefore be a key mediator of ER stress resistance in yeast (Beaupere et al. 2018). In this way, there is a suggested link between large-scale genomic structural variation and their influence on complex, polygenic traits. These include industrially relevant traits such as stress tolerance (Beaupere et al. 2018), ethanol productivity (Zhang et al. 2016b) and native and recombinant cellulase secretion (Yang et al. 2014).

Previous studies by Torres and co-workers (2007) demonstrated that aneuploid yeast strains share transcriptomic and phenotypic traits, including increased expression of genes in energy production pathways and protein folding pathways in order to maintain the aneuploid cell's physiological homeostasis. The overexpression of extra copies of specific genes leads to proteotoxic stress (Torres et al. 2007). Thus, more energy for molecular chaperones are required for the degradation or refolding of aggregated proteins (Torres et al. 2007; Thorburn et al. 2013; Torres et al. 2010; Oromendia et al. 2012). For example, Chen and co-workers (2012) determined that resistance to radicicol (a chemical that binds to Hsp90) was acquired by improved protein folding by upregulation of the Hsp90 co-chaperone through increased expression of *STII*, and overexpression of *PDR5* improved drug efflux system due to disomy in XV Chromosome.

These physiological and phenotypic alterations found in aneuploid cells are called ‘aneuploidy stress’ (Brodeur et al. 2011) and demonstrate that changes in DNA dosages of certain functional genes in the *S. cerevisiae* genome would, in part, contribute to the development of different traits between strains, and even lead to certain strains conferring advantages under stressed conditions. While some studies suggested that these aneuploid cells failed to grow properly if they contain extra copies of chromosomes (Torres et al. 2007), more recent studies have found that extra copies of chromosomes are commonplace, and seemingly have no detrimental effect on growth in yeast (Beaupere et al. 2018). Numerous evolutionary engineering studies have linked chromosomal copy number variations to industrially relevant traits, ranging from tolerance to products or inhibitors, ethanol production and nitrogen uptake to improved kinetics of sugar fermentation (reviewed by De Vries and co-workers, 2017) (**Table 2.2**). In the bioethanol context, a study by Zhang and co-workers (2016) highlighted the benefits of chromosomal and segmental aneuploidy in an industrial strain, ZTW1, which included increased fermentation rates, copper tolerance and decreased by-product generation. Interestingly, extensive CNV has been demonstrated for fermentation-related genes among *S. cerevisiae* wine strains (Steenwyk and Rokas 2017). Therefore, it stands to reason that this would hold true for other polygenic traits such as secretion-related genes (**Chapter 5**).

Table 2.2 Examples of whole or partial chromosome copy number variations acquired either through adaptive laboratory evolution experiments with yeast or screening natural isolates.

Selected phenotype	Aneuploid chromosomes	Confirmed causality	Contributing genes	Reference
Tunicamycin resistance	XVI	Yes	<i>HSP90</i> genes	Chen et al. 2012
Alpha amylase secretion	III, XI	Yes	<i>HDA2, HDA3, SNC2, ERV26, COG5</i>	Huang et al. 2015
CBHI secretion	IX, XI	No	<i>ALG12, GPA2, HOR7</i>	Kroukamp 2015
BGL1 secretion	Triploid genome	Yes	n/a	Yang et al. 2014
Maltose metabolism	Partial chromosomal duplication	Yes	<i>MAL1, MAL3</i>	Gallone et al. 2016
Glucose transporters	Partial chromosomal duplication	Yes	<i>HXT6, HXT7</i>	Kao and Sherlock 2008
Fermentation rates	VIII, IX, XI, XIV, VI	Yes	<i>ERG7, ERGII, CUOP1</i>	Zhang et al. 2016b
Fermentation-related processes	Partial chromosomal duplication	No	<i>CUP, FLO, HXT, SNO</i> genes	Steenwyk and Rokas 2017
Low-temperature fermentation	IV, VIII, XV, XVI	Yes	<i>AGA1, COQ2, FPK1, PET494</i>	García-ríos et al. 2017

2.4 Challenges surrounding recombinant protein secretion in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

High recombinant protein secretion from *S. cerevisiae* has been hampered due to a number of factors, of which the most prevalent is the secretory bottlenecks as a result of the overproduction and misfolding of heterologous proteins (Gasser et al. 2008). The yeast secretory pathway is a carefully regulated system, with many organelles to traffic the protein to the extracellular space, cell membrane or vacuole (Idiris et al. 2010). During protein secretion, yeast cells trigger a series of biochemical reactions to respond and adapt to the stress (Fan et al. 2015). It has been assumed that heterologous proteins stimulate the unfolded protein response (UPR), and are degraded by inducing the endoplasmic reticulum associated degradation machinery (ERAD). However, the mechanisms that allow yeast cells to sustain this response are not yet fully understood and the genetic basis of heterologous protein secretion and the stress associated with it remains unclear.

A further complication in the improvement of protein secretion levels is that in contrast to Mendelian genetics (traits linked to single loci), heterologous protein secretion is a quantitative trait, established by multiple interacting genetic loci, which makes elucidation of their genetic basis more difficult (Steinmetz et al. 2002; Kroukamp 2015). Additionally, secretion parameters are considered continuous and not all-or-nothing switches (Zahrl et al. 2019), which is attributed to a typical polygenic determinism (Kroukamp et al. 2017). Therefore, the complexity of the secretion machinery and lack of complete understanding of its underlying mechanisms have limited the ability to apply rational engineering techniques for enhanced secretory capacity in yeast strains (Kroukamp et al. 2018). For example, DNA sequence alterations or novel DNA sequences can be identified by directly comparing the modified strain with reference genomes, however, the identification of causal mutations or natural variation in forward genetic screens is hampered by the sheer amount of variation in the genomes.

Before improvements are suggested, it is important to understand the metabolic bottlenecks that play an increasing role in high-yield production of proteins, particularly of cellulolytic enzymes that require complex posttranslational modifications (Den Haan et al. 2013). To date, there have been substantial efforts focusing on alleviating the bottlenecks that occur in the secretory pathway and the most prominent studies are summarised in **Table 2.3**. Here, we review the challenges and progress to enhance heterologous protein secretion levels at each point in the secretion pathway of yeasts, including improvements involved in optimisation of transcription and translation, but also posttranslational modifications, folding and trafficking.

Table 2.3 Native genes involved in secretion enhancement in *S. cerevisiae* summarised according to functional category.

Functional category	Native gene(s)	Reference
Nucleus		
<i>Cell wall maintenance</i>		
	<i>CCW12, CWP2, SED1</i>	Wentz and Shusta 2007
Endogenous cell surface display	<i>KRE1, CWP2, FLO1</i>	Breinig et al. 2006
Actin cytoskeleton organisation	<i>SDA</i>	Davydenko et al. 2004
Chromatin organisation and transcriptional regulation	<i>RGR1</i>	Sakai et al. 1988
<i>Stress response system</i>		
Chaperone binding protein	<i>BIP1</i>	Xu et al. 2005
UPR pathway regulator	<i>HAC1</i>	Gasser et al. 2007, 2006; Wentz and Shusta 2007
Disulphide bond isomerase	<i>PDI</i>	Payne et al. 2008; Robinson, Hines, and Wittrup 1994; Butz, Niebauer, and Robinson 2003; Hayano, Hirose, and Kikuchi 1995; Xu, Raden, Doyle, and Robinson 2005; Hackel et al. 2006; Rakestraw et al. 2009
ATPase cycle of Kar2p	<i>SIL1, JEM1, SCJ1</i>	Payne et al. 2008
Chaperone gene expression	<i>PDI, KAR2, JEM1, KAR2</i>	Payne et al. 2008 Kim et al. 2003; Robinson et al. 1996; Robinson, Hines, and Wittrup 1994; Van Rensburg et al. 2012; Wentz and Shusta 2007; Butz, Niebauer, and Robinson 2003; Hackel et al. 2006
	<i>SSA4, SSE1, LHS1</i>	Wentz and Shusta et al. 2007 Payne et al. 2008
Cytosol		
Export mRNA out the nucleus to cytosol	<i>PSE1</i>	Chow et al. 1992; Kroukamp et al. 2013
Detoxification of reactive oxygen species in the cytosol	<i>SOD1</i>	Kroukamp et al. 2013; Raimondi et al. 2008
Cytoplasm		
<i>Ubiquitin dependent actions</i>		
Multi-catalytic endopeptidase, ubiquitin-dependent protein degradation, Hsp150p	<i>RPN5</i>	Davydenko et al. 2004
Ubiquitin levels, chaperone-like action	<i>UBI4, KISEL1, SEL1</i>	Chen et al. 1994

Table 2.3 (continued)

Functional category	Native gene(s)	Reference
Endoplasmic reticulum		
Molecular chaperones, <i>N</i> -linked glycosylation	<i>SPR</i>	Butz et al. 2003
Calnexin molecular chaperone	<i>CNE1</i>	Arima et al. 1998; Sata et al. 2001
Protein transport	<i>BFR2, BMH2</i>	Gasser et al. 2007
Protein kinase connected to exocytosis	<i>CUP5, KIN2</i> <i>PMT5, MNN10</i>	Gasser et al. 2007 Wang et al. 2013
Golgi to endosome transport	<i>RER2, VPS21</i>	Davydenko et al. 2004, Wang et al. 2013
Protein kinase C	<i>PKC1</i>	Nierras and Warner 1999; Serrano et al. 2006; Nanduri and Tartakoff 2001
Secretory vesicles (SNARE)	<i>SSO1, SS02</i> <i>DDI1</i>	Toikkanen et al. 2004; Ruohonen et al. 1997 White et al. 2011
ER luminal proteins	<i>SCJ1</i>	Payne et al. 2008
ER translocation complex	<i>ERO1</i> <i>SEC61, SSS1</i>	Wentz and Shusta et al. 2007 Toikkanen et al. 2003
Protein translocation	<i>SEB1/SBHI</i> <i>SIL1, LHS1</i>	Toikkanen et al. 2004 Payne et al. 2008
Nuclear import several proteins including ribosomal	<i>SEC18, SEC7, SEC1</i> <i>KAP121/PSE1</i>	Bussey et al. 1983 Hou et al. 2012
Vesicle transport	<i>SEC1, SLY1</i>	Hou et al. 2012
Golgi apparatus		
Glycosyltransferase	<i>MNN1, MNN2, MNN6, MNN9</i> <i>MNN11, MNN10</i> <i>OCH1</i>	Kroukamp 2015 Bartkevičiūtė and Sasnauskas 2004 Kroukamp et al. 2015
Posttranslational processing	<i>KEX2</i>	Zhang et al. 2001
ATPase family	<i>PMR1</i> <i>PMR2</i>	Harmsen et al. 1996; Smith et al. 1985 Rudolph et al. 1989
Golgi enzyme maintenance	<i>GEM3</i>	Wolff et al. 1999
Vesicle formation	<i>MON</i>	Kanjou et al. 2007
Vacuole		
Vacuolar protein sorting	<i>VPS10</i> <i>VPS4, VPS8, VPS13, VPS35, VPS36</i>	Holkeri and Makarow 1998; Hong et al. 1996; Xu et al. 2014 Zhang et al. 2001
Processing of vacuolar precursors	<i>PEP4, PRB1</i>	Tomimoto et al. 2013
Vacuolar proteinase	<i>PEP4</i>	Wolff et al. 1999

2.4.1 Unfolded protein response pathway

High-level overexpression of heterologous proteins (also known as ‘secretion stress’) have continued to show that the activation of cellular stress response pathways, including the UPR and ERAD, can occur (reviewed by Zahrl and co-workers, 2019). Ilmén and co-workers (2011) showed that *Te-CBHI* gene expression, which encodes the same enzyme used in this thesis, elicits a stress response reaction by activating the UPR in *S. cerevisiae*. It is important to note that UPR induction does not only impact the levels of ER resident chaperones and foldases, but also expands ER organelle size (Schuck et al. 2014; Jorg 2016), which proved to be beneficial for complex glycosylated proteins in particular (Koskela et al. 2016). Alleviating improper folding of secretory proteins has become a focal point of recent enzyme expression studies (Kroukamp et al. 2018; Liu et al. 2015). Song and co-workers (2018) overexpressed both the ER chaperone *BiP* and disulfide isomerase *PDI* genes and knocked out the Golgi membrane protein $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Mn}^{2+}$ -ATPase gene to decrease glycosylation of heterologous cellulases. Combining these multiple metabolic engineering strategies resulted in ethanol production from these cellulolytic yeast using Avicel, phosphoric acid swollen cellulose (PASC) and carboxymethyl-cellulose (CMC), producing 3.8 g/L, 4.7 g/L and 5.4 g/L, respectively (Song et al. 2018). These results revealed that engineering the yeast’s secretory pathway was effective in improving cellulosic ethanol production.

Another complication is the complex regulation mechanism of protein secretion. For example, the heat shock response (HSR) is a major regulator of the expression of proteins that assist in protein folding or degradation. Studies have shown that induction of HSR (through the overexpression of the *HSP1* gene) can lead to a reduction in ER stress, thereby improving secretion yields of recombinant proteins (Hou et al. 2013; Davydenko et al. 2004). Utilising a similar mechanism of upregulating protein folding chaperones, the induction of the UPR (through the overexpression of the *HAC1* gene) can also enhance secretion levels in several

yeast strains (Valkonen et al. 2003; Valkonen and Penttila 2003; Gasser et al. 2006; Guerfal et al. 2010; Vogl et al. 2014). In response to the accumulation of unfolded proteins in the ER, the rate of general translation initiation is attenuated, the expression of ER resident protein chaperones and protein foldases is induced, the ER compartment proliferates, and ERAD is activated to eliminate the irreparably misfolded proteins (Kaufman 2004). Ultimately, the process of protein secretion is intimately linked to the rate of proper folding and assembly of secretory proteins (Kaufman 2004).

While less studied, there is an interconnected link between cell wall integrity (CWI) and the secretion stress pathway (Wentz and Shusta 2007; Kroukamp et al. 2013). In fact, UPR induction has been linked to the CWI pathway (Chen 2005; Krysan 2009; Scrimale 2010; Torres-Quiroz et al. 2010). UPR therefore also influences secretion and cell wall homeostasis, which have significant impacts on industrial traits (Malavazi et al. 2014). While modifications to the cell wall are known to be a primary source of enhancement of protein secretion levels (Bartkevičiūtė and Sasnauskas 2004), a key challenge in increasing the recombinant protein secretion capacity of a CBP host strain is increasing productivity without increasing the metabolic burden (Van Rensburg et al. 2012) or lowering tolerance capabilities, which are largely dependent on cell wall integrity.

As demonstrated in **Figure 2.4**, many CBP-specific stresses impact the cellulolytic yeast cell, which can have direct or indirect effects on the protein secretion pathway. The bioethanol production environment has harsh industrial stresses, including ranging substrate loadings, varying sugar and ethanol concentrations, varying temperatures and the presence of lignocellulosic-derived inhibitors (Shima and Nakamura 2015). Since protein production is closely correlated with other traits such as tolerance and ethanol production (Henderson et al. 2013), the genetic basis of this trait is founded in a complex architecture of the genes that affect

not only the trait in question, but also has direct and indirect effects on other polygenic traits (Steinmetz et al. 2002). Further complicating the challenge, is the fact that the recombinant pathways for the production of novel compounds tend to be more sensitive to stress factors than wild type pathways (Deparis et al. 2017). Previous studies have demonstrated that *S. cerevisiae* strains co-expressing exocytic SNARE genes and heterologous cellulase genes resulted in transformed strains exhibiting higher cellulase production, but a compromised tolerance towards ethanol and salts (Van Zyl et al. 2014, 2016). This highlights the need to understand CBP-specific stresses and their impact on protein secretion.

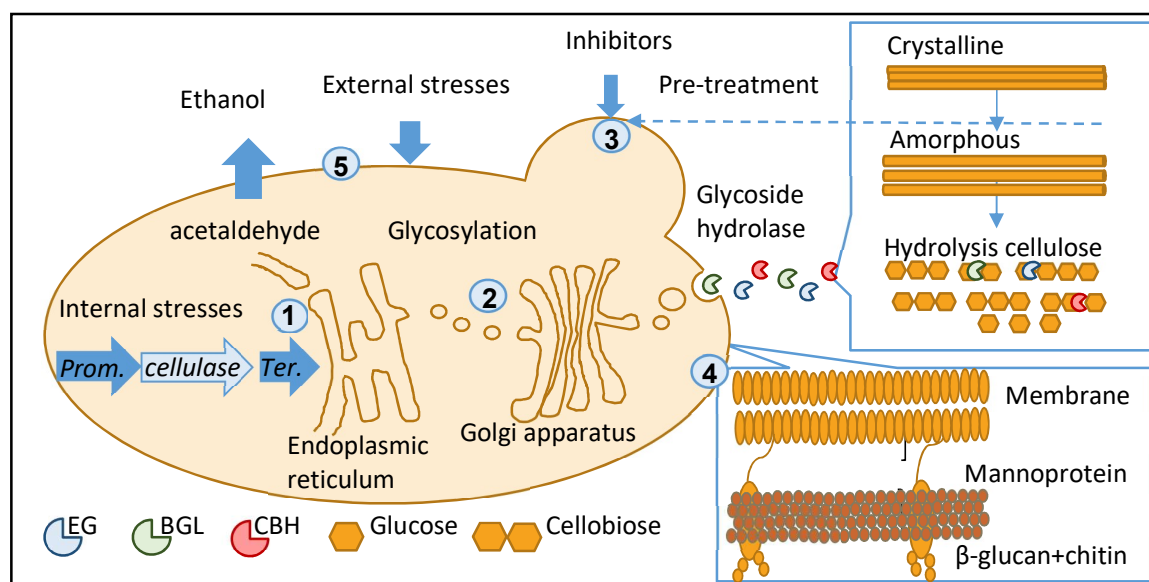


Figure 2.4 Stresses associated with CBP industrial processes as well as the protein secretion pathway in yeast. Stresses include: (1) unfolded protein response; (2) hyperglycosylation; (3) tolerance to inhibitory compounds; (4) cell wall strength; (5) ethanol and temperature tolerance.

2.4.2 Endoplasmic reticulum transport and quality checks

One of the first steps for immature secretory proteins is the translocation across the ER membrane, which is considered a potential roadblock during recombinant protein secretion in both *Pichia pastoris* and *S. cerevisiae* (Fitzgerald and Glick 2014). In some cases, these nascent proteins accumulate before translocation, resulting in a ‘backlogging’ of the translocation

channel (Fitzgerald and Glick 2014). As evidenced by rational engineering strategies, the overexpression of core folding and translocation aiding factors (such as the *SSO1* and *SEB1* genes) improved recombinant protein levels in *Kluyveromyces lactis* (Fitzgerald and Glick, 2014), albeit in a highly protein-specific and signal-peptide specific manner (Tang et al. 2015). The clear disadvantage of these types of strategies is the protein-specific nature of the secretion-enhancing gene alterations (Idiris et al. 2010).

Once inside the ER, the soluble proteins need to undergo protein quality control checks, folding and post-translational modification (Delic et al. 2014). One of the rate-limiting steps include disulfide bond formation, which can be alleviated through the overexpression of the protein disulphide isomerase (*PDII*) gene in isolation or in combination with its oxidase (*ERO1*) (Zahrl et al. 2019; Idiris et al. 2010; Hou et al. 2012a; Delic et al. 2014 and Puxbaum and Mattanovich, 2015). Another popular approach includes co-expression of the *PDII* gene with *KAR2*, which encodes for a binding protein to ER chaperones (Zahrl et al. 2019; Idiris et al. 2010; Hou et al. 2012; Delic et al. 2014; Puxbaum and Mattanovich, 2015). However, in a specific case, no evidence of synergism or additive effects on secretion levels of antibodies were observed when ER genes were co-expressed (De Ruijter et al. 2016). An explanation may be found in the study by Wu and co-workers (2017), where it was shown that the overexpression of the *SNCI* gene in *T. reesei*, resulted in the transcript levels of the *HAC1* gene increasing significantly by 3.3-fold. However, the overexpression of the *BIP1* gene, resulted in transcription of the *SNCI* gene to be upregulated by 4.9-fold, but not the *HAC1* gene. Finally, *HAC1* gene overexpression resulted in increased expression of all three secretion pathway components genes, namely 3.8- (*SNCI*), 4.9- (*BIP1*) and 5.6 (*HAC1*)-fold. This could shed light on explaining why co-expression of two secretory pathway component genes may not usually have an additive effect in stimulating secretion. If one secretory pathway gene is overexpressed, expression of

other secretion genes may also be upregulated. Therefore, when a gene is further for overexpression, its effect could be masked by the simultaneous up-regulation of other genes.

2.4.3 Golgi transport and post-translational modifications

After successful folding and ER quality control checks, the recombinant proteins are moved to the Golgi by the generation of COPII (i.e. coat protein complex II) vesicles. A way to improve the rate of transport is to overexpress components of vesicle formation, including components of the SNARE complex (Van Zyl et al. 2014, 2016) and *SEC16* gene (Bao et al. 2017), which stimulates ER exit and vesicle formation. While the overexpression of core exocytic SNARE components separately and simultaneously (i.e. *SNCI/2*, *SSO1/2* and *SEC9* genes) improved the overall cellulase secretion levels (Van Zyl et al. 2014), it is important to note that the additive differences when the genes were co-expressed suggest protein-specificity and that not all single-gene overexpressions of the exocytotic SNARE complex could improve protein secretion titer, once again suggesting a masking effect.

Once in the Golgi, further post-translational modifications (such as glycosylation) occur and proteins are assessed and sorted towards their final destination (Yan and Wu 2013). In the case of heterologous proteins, the cleavage of the secretion leader has been described as a rate-limiting step, which can be overcome through the overexpression of different versions of the *KEX2* protease gene (Lee et al. 2003; Gasser et al. 2013). Another interesting factor is the role of the *PMRI* gene responsible for producing Golgi $\text{Ca}^{2+}/\text{Mn}^{2+}$ ATPase, identical to the *SSCI* gene (Rudolph et al. 1989). First discovered by Smith and co-workers (1985) and later identified to be *PMRI*, this gene was again used in recent studies to improve heterologous protein secretion (Xu et al. 2014b). Studies surrounding vacuolar protein processing have demonstrated that this system, i.e. vacuolar protein sorting, is a limitation in recombinant protein secretion by causing a missorting of proteins back into the vacuole for subsequent degradation (Agaphonov et al. 2005; Idiris et al. 2010; Jorg 2016; Marsalek et al. 2017). A

study by Kitagawa and co-workers (2011) demonstrated improvement in β -glucosidase and endoglucanase activity in *S. cerevisiae* strains by a strategic deletion of the *VPS3* gene. However, with over 40 vacuolar protein sorting (VPS) genes identified, it is difficult to determine which gene may have the paramount effect (Bonangelino et al. 2002). In recent years, much effort has been devoted to exploring biochemical or physiological determinants for heterologous secretion efficiency (reviewed by Kroukamp and co-workers, 2018) and more direct methods are being used to link protein secretion with a screening phenotype (Rakestraw et al. 2006).

2.5 Strategies for improving recombinant hydrolytic enzyme production and cellulose conversion with *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

During the 1950-1960's, significant discoveries on the induction of fungal cellulases and other hydrolases was the first step to the identification of species with hydrolysing activity on cellulosic carbon sources ; Reese 1957). Continued research on cellulases revealed their biotechnological potential in biomass conversion technologies, leading to the development of the recombinant cellulolytic strategy for CBP. More recently, research has identified the secretion of heterologous cellulases in CBP host strains of *S. cerevisiae* to be one of the rate-limiting steps towards an efficient biomass conversion process (Lynd et al. 2005).

Throughout the last millennium, there have been significant developments in host strain improvements strategies for cellulase production in a CBP concept (summarised in **Figure 2.5**). Consequently, several rational engineering approaches have been used to improve secretion titers, including modifying properties of the target protein or high-throughput screening for secretory pathway mutants (Hou et al. 2012a), while other approaches have overexpressed native genes in the protein secretory pathway (Kroukamp et al. 2015, 2018). As an alternative to rational engineering approaches, reverse engineering approaches have previously been

proven to be a powerful tool for improving desirable traits (Oud et al. 2012; Kliebenstein et al. 2014) and has been suggested as a tool to unravelling high protein secretion (Davison et al. 2016).

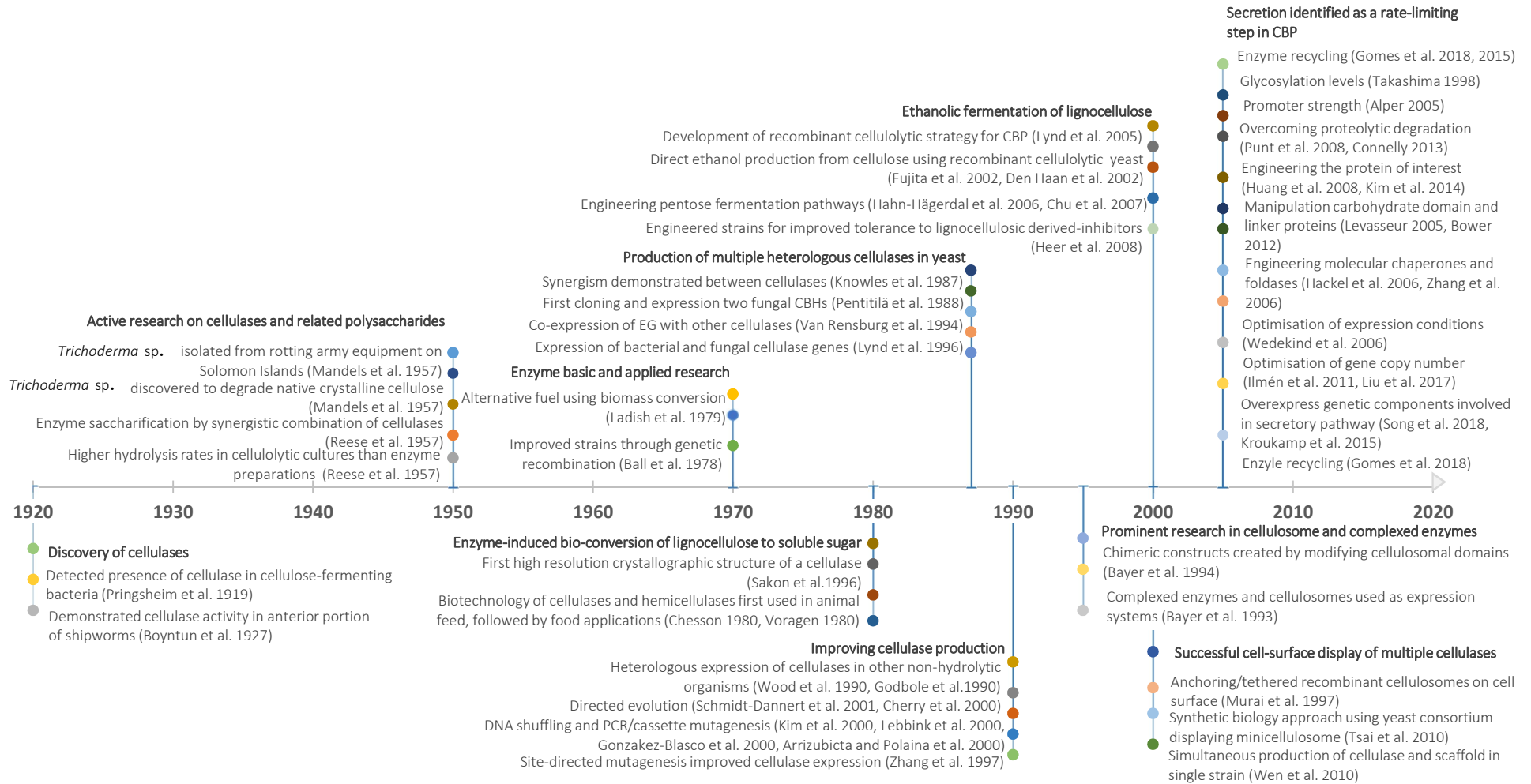


Figure 2.5 Historical and recent overview of strategies to improve native expression and heterologous cellulase expression in non-hydrolytic and further strain improvements leading to the development of biomass conversion technologies.

High-throughput screening techniques have been used to study secretory proteins (Abatemarco et al. 2017; Beneyton et al. 2017, 2015; Gomez et al. 2015), with limited studies combining this technique with a next-generation sequencing (NGS) analysis approach to determine causative genetic elements associated with protein secretion enhancement (Liu et al. 2014; Huang et al. 2015). For example, Liu and co-workers (2014) used an empirical approach of UV-induced random mutagenesis to obtain a mutated *S. cerevisiae* strain that was capable of producing 5-fold more heterologous secreted amylase than the original strain. Unlike the older studies of Smith et al. (1985) and Sakai et al. (1988), Liu and co-workers (2014) were able to discover chromosomal mutations and 328 point mutations in selected strains that revealed genes linked to important secretion processes. Mapping the mutations by their localisation and function, several mutations in the upstream gene sequences were identified that could potentially impact regulatory (transcriptional and translational) elements connected to stress response genes (*CCS1*, *SRX1*, *UBC4*, and *GPD1*). In addition to the stress response genes, single point mutations were discovered in the coding (*TRS31*, *VPS3*, and *VTA1*) and upstream regions of genes (*VPS35*) involved in protein trafficking. In fact, the *VTA1* gene was discovered to be responsible for 35% of the secretion enhancement.

In a complementary study by Huang and co-workers (2015), *S. cerevisiae* clones with an enhanced secretion of recombinant α -amylase were identified through several rounds of UV mutagenesis, screening and sorting. After whole-genome sequencing was performed on eight clones, 330 mutations were identified in total. The over 6-fold improvement in amylase production was attributed to chromosomal mutations (duplications in ChrIII and ChrXI), but the strains were deemed genetically stable and therefore have potential to be used for industrial ethanol production and as platform strains for the production of other recombinant proteins. Gene ontology analysis demonstrated that a high portion of the protein-coding genes selected from the screens were involved in more biological processes than average yeast genes, once

again demonstrating the complexity of the protein secretion pathway. A mutation of a major HSR transcriptional regulator heat shock factor encoding gene *HSF1* was found in a mutant strain (D5), as well as mutated genes in the trafficking pathway (*ERV29*, *COG5*, *SNC2*, *GOS1*, *USO1*) that may also influence limiting steps in secretion. Deletion of the genes, *ERV29* and *COG5*, resulted in defective amylase secretion. Similarly, a recent RNAi expression study by Wang and co-workers (2019) identified genes with functions in cellular metabolism (*YDC1*, *AAD4*, *ADE8* and *SDHI*), protein modification and degradation (*VPS73*, *KTR2*, *CNLI*, and *SSA1*) and cell cycle (*CDC39*) that impacted recombinant GFP production when expressed at differentially down-regulated levels.

Although adaptive laboratory evolution has proven to be successful in accumulating beneficial mutations under selection pressures (Huang et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2014), this approach can be cumbersome when selecting for clones with an enhanced secretion phenotype. Additionally, these strategies have proven to be problematic, resulting in the accumulation of disadvantageous mutations mainly due to the highly focused selection pressure applied (Swinnen et al. 2012). Finally, these strategies do not allow the linking of the phenotypic improvement to the underlying genetic basis due to complex traits being determined by multiple genes with largely unknown regulatory networks. Therefore, these studies do not provide any fundamental knowledge for future strain improvement (Swinnen et al. 2012). Several strategies have been developed, or are being developed, to gain more insights on enhanced secretion. With the availability of high-throughput NGS and increasing computing capacity for large data sets, it is now possible to identify multiple genes linked to a specific phenotype (Swinnen et al. 2012). More recently, studies systematically explore the exact architecture of the number, distribution and interaction of loci affecting the variations of economically and industrially important quantitative traits (Swinnen et al. 2012).

While single gene candidate studies are relatively cheap and quick to perform, focusing on a core selection of genes linked to a polygenic phenotype is challenging. Single gene modifications come with prior knowledge about the gene functionality, i.e. the approach begins with a selection of a putative gene based on its significance in the mechanism of the desired trait. This is usually performed by assessing and selecting polymorphism through tagging SNPs and/or having a functional consequence, either by affecting gene regulation or its protein product (Patnala et al. 2013). Alternatively, up- or down regulation of gene expression can be modified through kinetic characteristics, substrate specificity or regulatory properties of the constituent enzymes (Nevoigt 2008). Generally, the gene variants are verified for a trait association by performing single gene deletion studies and the selected control subjects are evaluated for its association with the trait.

In contrast, reverse engineering seeks to identify the genetic determinants of a phenotypic trait of interest followed by the targeted genetic improvement of an industrial production strain (Bailey et al. 1996). This methodology does not require prior knowledge about phenotype-genotype relationship, which is often required in evolution engineering and global transcription machinery engineering (Swinnen et al. 2012). However, engineering pathways in industrial eukaryotes, such as yeasts, is limited by the lack of knowledge on regulatory factors and their mechanism of action (Hubmann et al. 2013). With the recent development of technologies such as the ‘-omics’ field, efficient mapping and identification of causative genes have been made possible.

2.5.1 Pooled segregant whole genome sequencing analysis

To reduce the list of potentially causal genetic elements, sequencing-based analysis of pools of recombinant genomes can make use of genetic linkages to distinguish between causal and non-causal genetic elements (Swinnen et al. 2012). Similar to mapping induced or natural mutations, a ‘pooled genome approach’ has excelled in uncovering interesting phenotypes

(reviewed by Swinnen et al. 2012). In such a way, genome-wide identification of genetic variants, including single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), insertions and deletions (indels), and large-scale genomic structural variations (e.g. chromosomal or segmental copy number variations, translocations and inversions) have allowed whole genome comparisons (Sun and Schneeberger 2015). As discussed earlier, these genetic variants have been drivers for adaptive evolution and phenotypic diversity of natural populations (Peter et al. 2018). Natural isolates, in particular, have previously been proven to be a powerful tool for studying the genotype-phenotype relationship through linkage mapping (Fay 2013).

Global analysis of strains by NGS or ‘-omics’ technologies are certainly powerful, but they cannot differentiate between trait-relevant and trait-irrelevant molecular differences (Nguyen et al. 2014). As a result, genetic mapping with genomic technologies is a promising approach to identify causative genetic elements amongst high numbers of genetic variation between *S. cerevisiae* strains (Swinnen et al. 2012). The genetic effects of quantitative phenotypes are controlled by genes located in quantitative trait loci (QTL), and these QTLs can therefore be identified by linkage analysis of phenotypes and genotypes of meiotic segregants and chromosomal recombination. Genetic mapping power (i.e. mapping resolution) relies on the number of genotyped segregants, unfortunately the applications for genotyping each individual segregant is still expensive and laborious (Swinnen et al. 2012).

In the age of next-generation DNA sequencing, another approach, termed ‘pooled segregant whole-genome sequencing’ (PSWGS) or ‘bulk segregant analysis’ (BSA), combines bulked segregant techniques with genome capture technology to identify candidate genes and genetic elements (Pais et al. 2014). For example, the SHOREmap method (Sun and Schneeberger 2015; Schneeberger et al. 2009) uses a single NGS reaction to perform genome-wide re-sequencing of a bulk of recombinant mutant F₂-individuals that allows the direct linking of phenotypic traits to a causative SNP in a gene of interest. Swinnen and co-workers (2012)

proposed a modified version of this approach, which requires a smaller F population than SHOREmap and uses a statistical measure to qualitatively characterise SNP frequencies. In another method, Pulido-Tamayo and co-workers (2016) facilitated the analysis of data generated by the PSWGS approach by designing EXPLoRa-web, a web service that exploits linkage disequilibrium to increase the power and accuracy of QTL detection in PSWGS analyses. These three methods highlight the power of NGS and how different approaches can be combined to accelerate fine-mapping of genes in *S. cerevisiae*, which has a complete genome sequence and a detailed SNP catalogue available.

Pooled segregant whole-genome sequencing has advantages such as a reduction in time and working costs, as well as a higher mapping resolution resulting from the numerous recombinations present in a relatively large pool of segregants (Parts et al. 2011). The BSA technique relies on the construction of pools of segregates that are referred to as the selective pool and control pool (Swinnen et al. 2012) (**Figure 2.6**). The selective pool contains a large number of segregants that express the desired trait (thus an overrepresentation of genetic regions from the superior parent), while the control pool contains a similar number of unselected/random segregants. Once the pools are made, the genomic DNA from each pool is extracted and genotyped for each marker. Thus, the overrepresentation of genetic markers (in this case SNPs) originating from the parental strains in the selective pool in contrast to the control pool represent the location of a potential QTL. Therefore, the allocation of the genetic determinants to regions in the genome relies on their co-segregation with genetic loci of known positions (markers) (Swinnen et al. 2012). In this thesis, the markers are DNA polymorphisms i.e. SNPs, which are plentiful in number and thus enable complete genome coverage. These markers demonstrate the order and relative distances between markers along each chromosome.

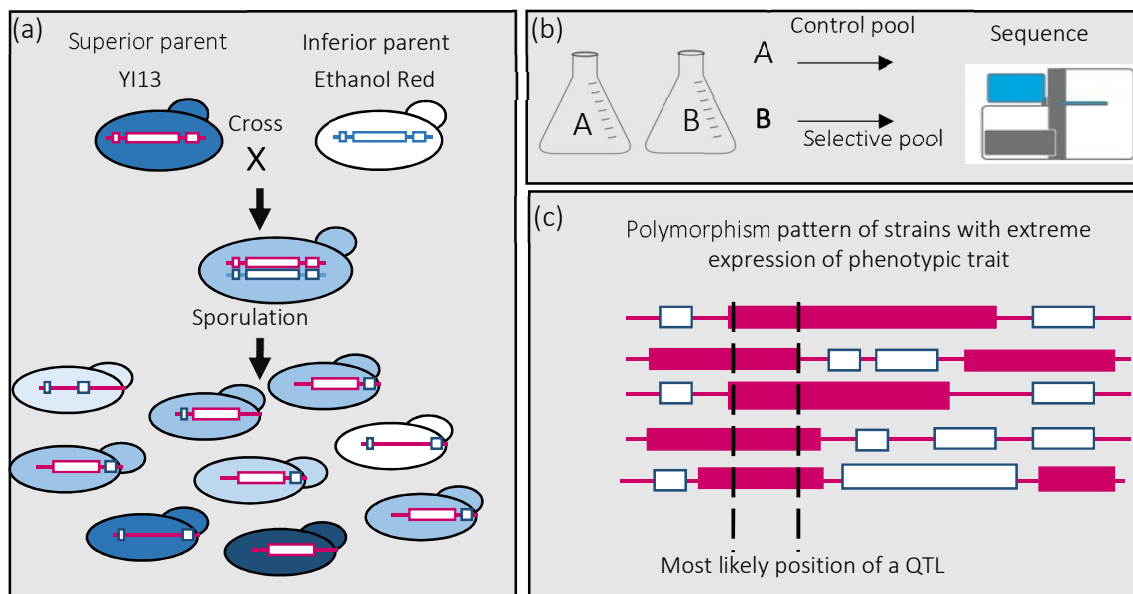


Figure 2.6 Schematic overview of genetic mapping in *S. cerevisiae* used in this thesis which include (a) crossing strains to create hybrid strains, (b) pooling segregants for sequencing and (c) QTL detection.

As indicated in **Figure 2.6**, the unknown position of the QTL can be inferred from the common presence of genetic markers in the segregants, provided that a minimal number of segregants with a comparable phenotypic expression as the superior parent have been selected. Meiotic recombination is responsible for the relative distances between two loci on a chromosome and their tendency to co-segregate in a cross (Swinnen et al. 2012). When loci are located a distance from each other on a single chromosome, there is a significant probability that one or more crossovers will occur between them, therefore separating them in a meiotic cross. Consequently, the recombinant reference between the loci will be 50%, the same frequency obtained for two loci on different chromosomes. However, when loci are located close to each other, the probability of a crossover is unlikely, resulting in the increased chance that the loci will segregate together in a cross. Therefore, the recombinant frequency will approach 0% for loci located close to each other. This phenomenon therefore suggests that any enrichment in genetic determinants crucial for the phenotypic trait under study in the selected segregants can

be inferred from the enrichment of the genetic markers that co-segregate with them (Ehrenreich et al. 2010).

A theoretical study by Ehrenreich and co-workers (2010) used computer simulations of BSA experiments to show that by using very large pools of F₂-population (>105 individuals), this approach provides sufficient power to detect even several small-effect loci. As a result of accurate allele frequency from large pools of *S. cerevisiae*, authors identified 14 loci associated with resistance against a DNA damaging agent (which accounted for 59% of the phenotypic variance). However, additional BSA approaches have used moderate F₂-pooled sample sizes (20 to 40 segregants) and successfully identified and functionally validated genes that are responsible for non-selectable, industrially relevant traits including glycerol yield (Hubmann et al. 2013) and ethyl acetate production (Abt et al. 2016). A study by Fen and co-workers (2018) mapped the major QTLs using the BSA approach in the F₂-segregant population (selecting pools of 20 segregants from a mass screen of 50 segregants) of two Chinese indigenous *S. cerevisiae* strains with divergent tolerance around 4°C. This strategy, however, is contingent on the capacity to screen large numbers of individuals and relies on a large genetic diversity within an available population. Unlike an induced mutations approach, the mapped variants are naturally occurring alleles that affect the phenotype of interest, rather than induced mutations.

A myriad of studies used reverse engineering by exploiting phenotypic diversity and targeting gene identification by genetic analyses of natural and industrial strains with interconnected, complex industrial traits (Bailey et al. 1996; Nevoigt 2008; Hubmann et al. 2013). However, as parental strains can differ genetically at several potentially causal loci, mapping the natural genetic variation is considerably more challenging than mapping one or two induced causal mutations. Moreover, genetic determinants involved in metabolic pathways can contain novel genetic elements in natural and industrial yeast strains, which create large phenotypic diversity,

further complicating the understanding of the interplay between the functioning of the structural pathway and its regulatory system (Hubmann et al. 2013).

2.6 Concluding remarks

Considering the peculiarities and complexities surrounding heterologous protein secretion discussed in this review, this dissertation presents research on uncovering genetic control of variation in the secretion of recombinant cellulases by screening hybridised segregants of *S. cerevisiae* natural isolates for both superior and inferior secretion capacities (**Chapter 3**), the application of recombinant strains in an industrial context (**Chapter 4**), as well as performing pooled-segregants whole-genome sequencing and genomic analysis to identify QTLs and perform gene ontology (**Chapter 5**). This is a preliminary effort in a series of studies aimed toward the ultimate goal of dissecting the genetic architecture of the quantitative, industrial traits desirable in CBP by exploiting natural isolates and studying them at a genetic level.

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CHAPTER 3

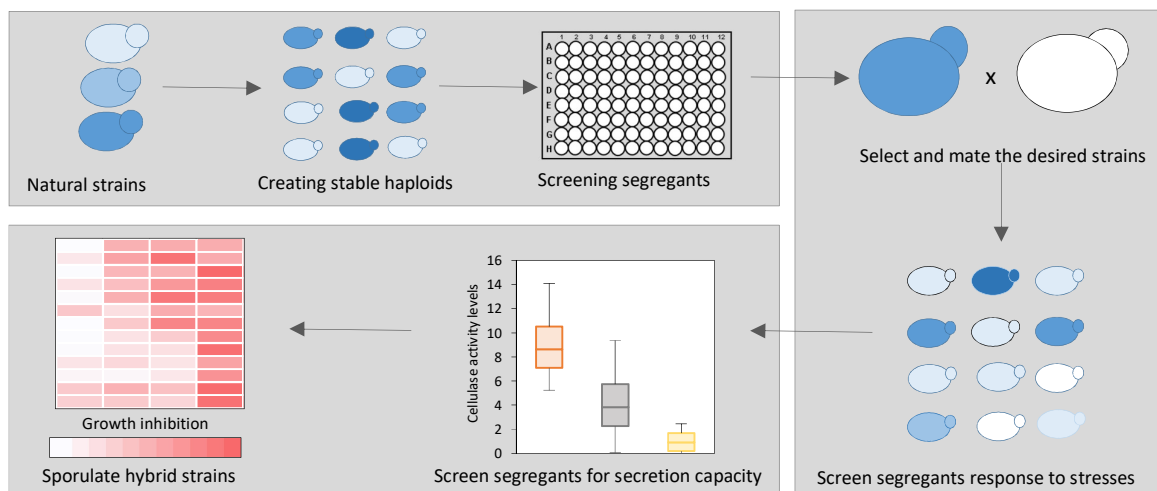
IDENTIFICATION OF SUPERIOR CELLULASE SECRETION PHENOTYPES IN HAPLOIDS DERIVED FROM NATURAL *S. CEREVISIAE* ISOLATES

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3.1 Abstract

The yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is considered an important host for consolidated bioprocessing and the production of high titres of recombinant cellulases are required for efficient hydrolysis of lignocellulosic substrates to fermentable sugars. Since recombinant protein secretion profiles vary highly among different strain backgrounds, careful selection of robust strains with optimal secretion profiles are of crucial importance. Here, this study constructed and screened sets of haploid derivatives, isolated from natural isolates YI13, FINI and YI59, for improved general cellulase secretion. This report details a novel approach that combines secretion profiles of strains and phenotypic responses to stresses known to influence the secretion pathway for the development of a phenotypic screen to isolate strains with distinct secretory capacities. Our results demonstrate that screening of yeast biodiversity combined with targeted mating approach can provide a pool of novel strains capable of high cellulase secretion.

Graphical abstract



3.2 Introduction

During consolidated bioprocessing (CBP), the production of heterologous cellulolytic enzymes, including exoglucanases i.e. cellobiohydrolases (CBHs), endoglucanases (EGs) and β -glucosidases (BGLs), from a fermentative host like *S. cerevisiae* are required for the hydrolysis of recalcitrant lignocellulosic biomass. Several techno-economic analysis reports suggest cellulolytic enzyme production to be the limiting step in CBP biomass conversion technologies (Zhuang et al. 2007; Wingren et al. 2003; Khajeeram and Unrean 2017; Olofsson et al. 2017). This highlights the importance of studying heterologous cellulolytic enzyme secretion, which is highly dependent on the genetic background of the host yeast strain as well as highly protein-specific in nature (Kroukamp et al. 2013; Van Zyl et al. 2016; Ilmén et al. 2011; Davison et al. 2016; Den Haan et al. 2013). Therefore, selection of novel hybrid strains with increased secretion profiles is crucial for the development of suitable industrial CBP yeasts.

Recent studies have broadened the search to include trait analysis of strains of *S. cerevisiae*, which have demonstrated high phenotypic variance in different yeast subgroups (Warringer et al. 2011). Other industrially relevant traits from natural isolates have also been selected for, including tolerance to high temperatures (Mukherjee et al. 2014; Ruyters et al. 2014), microbial inhibitory compounds (Mukherjee et al. 2014; Ruyters et al. 2014; Davison et al. 2016; Jansen et al. 2018) as well as high ethanol productivity, concentrations and yields (Jin et al. 2013; Ruyters et al. 2014; Jansen et al. 2018). These results described the relationship between phenotype and genetic background, which provided insights into how genetic variants are known to influence phenotypes and functional variances occur in different strains of the same species. In particular, past research suggested that natural isolates outcompeted laboratory and industrial derivatives for the secretion of heterologous cellulolytic enzymes (Warringer et al. 2011; Davison et al. 2016).

As with any industrially relevant trait, improving the phenotype of heterologous protein secretion of yeast is not straightforward. Firstly, this phenotype is complex and shares the common features of quantitative traits, i.e. polygenic control and environmental influence (Kroukamp et al. 2017; Liu et al. 2014). Due to this complexity of protein secretion, rational engineering methods for strain development have yielded limited success to improve general protein secretion capacities. Therefore, the genetic basis of superior recombinant protein secretion must be investigated as a complex architecture of genes that affects this phenotype through direct and interactive effects (Steinmetz et al. 2002).

Approaches that generate genetic variation in a non-targeted fashion, for instance intra-species hybridisation of genetically stable haploid strains, have proven successful for other desired characteristics (as demonstrated in Jansen et al. 2017 and Kroukamp et al. 2018). Sexual hybridisation studies generally consists of three steps. Firstly, screening a diverse population of strains i.e. the rich, natural genetic diversity displayed by *S. cerevisiae* strains. Secondly, the screening and selection to identify best performing strains. Lastly, genomes of superior cells are reshuffled by means of sexual hybridisation (mating and sporulation). In this way, novel combinations of beneficial genetic elements can be generated. The approach of sexual hybridisation strategies using phenotypically characterised haploid segregants of carefully selected parental strains (cell-to-cell mating) is thus an appealing strategy.

While large sets of strains have previously been generated for the genetic mapping of other industrially relevant traits from glycerol yield to ethanol tolerance and yield (Cubillos et al. 2009, Cubillos et al. 2011; Parts et al. 2011; Salinas et al. 2012; Coi et al. 2016; Liti and Louis 2012; Meijnen et al. 2016), there is a lack of stable haploid strains for research on heterologous enzyme secretion. One of the most important factors in determining the success of these studies is the availability of an easy screen to identify the few superior cells among a large pool of inferior variants. However, quantifying the recombinant protein secretory capacity of strains,

especially in different genetic backgrounds, can be challenging. While studies have attempted to overcome this challenge through the use of small, easy-to-screen enzymes (Huang et al. 2015, Liu et al. 2013), screening strains for a range of recombinant cellulolytic enzymes have proven to be laborious, expensive and time-consuming (Den Haan et al. 2014). Thus, an easy, indirect method to evaluate innate secretion capacity is desired and can be achieved through the analysis of secretion stress.

In the last decade, it has become obvious that many heterologous protein products exert severe stress on the host cells when being overexpressed, limiting the potential secretion yield. Likewise, intimate connection of unfolded protein response (UPR) to recombinant protein production (Mattanovich et al. 2004), cell wall integrity (Allester 1997) and membrane lipid balance (Travers et al. 2000) is well documented. An earlier indicator of UPRs importance in cellular homeostasis was derived from transcriptional profiling experiments that identified UPR target genes in *S. cerevisiae*, including the elevated expression of ER chaperones, protein trafficking and quality control, metabolism and cell wall synthesis (Travers et al. 2000). Since then, research has shown the UPR program to be adaptable, not just in signal amplitude, but through differential gene expression depending on the stress type (Wu et al. 2014). This differential regulation of UPR in response to different stresses, suggests the involvement of additional undefined regulatory factors (Thibault et al. 2011). As such, evaluating biological phenotypic responses to stresses can potentially lead to the discovery of a more sophisticated targeted selection system for a desired phenotype.

A survey of the published literature failed to return any previous studies on phenotypic screening using a combination of stress tolerances for the isolation of strains with innate, distinct secretory capacity. The current study therefore proposes to investigate the diversity of secretion stress and cell wall tolerance among different strains of *S. cerevisiae* to determine whether it could serve as a useful selection agent to evaluate strains' capacity for recombinant

protein secretion. This study set out to generate and screen a set of haploid strains derived from natural *S. cerevisiae* strains available for genetic research towards improved cellulolytic secretion. This chapter describes the technical approaches used for the generation of genetically stable haploid derivatives from three *S. cerevisiae* strains varying in secretory phenotypes in order to understand the phenotypic differences linked to a range of secretory capacities. Our efforts resulted in several hybrids showing vigour (also known as heterosis) for heterologous protein secretion. Considering the peculiarities and complexities of the enhanced secretion protein phenotype, the construction of haploid strains representative of a range of secretion phenotypes that are amendable to genetic studies and phenotypic studies is of great importance.

3.3 Materials and methods

3.3.1 Yeast strains and media

In this study, three diploid, homothallic strains previously described by Davison and co-workers (2016) (listed in **Table 3.1**), as well as their haploid derivatives (**Table 3.2**) were used. Strains were obtained from the Agricultural Research Council (ARC) Infruitec - Nietvoorbij Wine Research Centre (Westhuizen, Augustyn and Pretorius 2000) and deposited in the Culture Collection of Plant Protection Research Institute (PPRI-ARC, Queenswood, Pretoria). The industrial strain derivatives of Ethanol Red[®] were obtained from Johan Thevelein at Katholieke Universiteit Leuven whereas the industrial benchmark strain MH1000 (distillery yeast) and HOEG (brewing yeast) were obtained from Stellenbosch University, South Africa. Laboratory strains, namely S288c (ATCC 204508) and Y294 (ATCC 20116) were included for a comparison of relatively diverse backgrounds. The strains M0341 (Kroukamp et al. 2015) and H3M28 (Kroukamp et al. 2017) were included for a comparison of *T.e.-CBHI* expression in diverse backgrounds. The native *Saccharomyces* strains were identified at the species level by sequencing the variable D1/D2 portion of the eukaryotic 26S rDNA as described previously by Davison and co-workers (2016). After species identification, sequences were aligned using

MUSCLE version 3.70 (Edgar 2004). The phylogenetic dendrogram was prepared using Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis (MEGA) software version 5.0 (Tamura et al. 2011).

Table 3.1 List of strains and plasmids used in this study.

Strain/ plasmid	Relevant features	Reference / collection number
<i>E.coli</i> DH5 α	<i>deoR endA1 gyrA96 hsdR17 6[lac]U169 recA1 supE44 thi-1 [q80 lacZ6M15]</i>	Life Technologies, Rockville, Md.
Superior secreting strains		
YI13	<i>MATa/MATa</i>	KX428528
YI13_HO	<i>MATa/a;ho::GALp kanMX4</i>	This work
Moderate secreting strains		
FIN1	<i>MATa/MATa</i>	KX428522
FIN1_HO	<i>MATa/a;ho::GALp kanMX4</i>	This work
Low secreting strains		
YI59	<i>MATa/MATa</i>	Davison et al. 2016
YI59_HO	<i>MATa/a;GALp ho::kanMX4</i>	This work
Industrial strains		
ER12	<i>MATa; ho::</i>	JT 22739.12
ER16	<i>MATa; ho::</i>	JT 22739.16
ER17	<i>MATa; ho::</i>	JT 22739.17
ER19	<i>MATa; ho::</i>	JT 22739.19
ER19x12	<i>MATa/MATa</i>	This work
ER17x12	<i>MATa/MATa</i>	This work
Reference strains		
S288c a/a	<i>MATa/a mal gal2 sal1-1 MKT1-30D CAT5-91I MIP1-661A-UCC1166</i>	This work
S288c a	<i>MATa mal gal2 sal1-1 MKT1-30D CAT5-91I MIP1-661A-UCC1166</i>	ATCC204508
Y294	<i>MATa</i>	ATCC201160
Hoeg	<i>MATa/MATa</i>	KX428523.1
MH1000	<i>MATa/MATa</i>	KX428525
M0341	<i>MH1000,MATa;gre3::KanMX4,ENOp-T.e.cel7A-ENOt</i>	Kroukamp et al. 2015
H3M28	<i>MATa;his3Δgre3::KanMX4/gre3, leu2, ura3, URA3, sh ble; ENO1p-T.e.cel7A-ENO1t</i>	Kroukamp et al. 2017
Plasmids		
pHK301.1	<i>bla URA3 HO site: GALp KanMX4 tef1t</i>	This study
pHKHO.gal	<i>bla URA3 HO:GALp kanMX4:ho</i>	This study
pHK212_SD1	<i>bla URA3 PGKp:T.e.cel7A:PGKt;NatMX4</i>	This work
pHK212_SD2	<i>bla URA3 PGKp:T.e.cel5A:PGKt;NatMX4</i>	This work
pHK212_SD3	<i>bla URA3 PGKp:T.e.cel3A:PGKt;NatMX4</i>	This work

Table 3.2 Constructed *S. cerevisiae* haploid derivative strains.

Strain	Derivative strain	Genotype
YI13	YI13_C2	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_6C	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_E1	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_9D	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_G1	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_9B	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_8B	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_D2	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_E4	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_3A	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_A1	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_D3	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_E10	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_J1	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_7C	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI13_9D	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	YI59	YI59_E1
YI59_F2		<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
YI59_E3		<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
YI59_D4		<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
YI59_L4		<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
YI59_G4		<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
YI59_G2		<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
YI59_D2		<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
YI59_L1		<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
YI59_D3		<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
YI59_F4	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>	
FIN1	FINI_E3	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	FINI_B4	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	FINI_H3	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp- kanMX4</i>
	FINI_G4	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	FINI_B3	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	FINI_G1	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	FINI_C1	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	FINI_C3	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	FINI_C2	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	FINI_C59	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	FINI_G3	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	FINI_B2	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>
	FINI_E1	<i>MATα</i> ; <i>ho::GALp kanMX4</i>

Yeast cells were routinely cultivated at 30°C in YPD media (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% glucose) (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and synthetic complete (SC) media (1.7% yeast nitrogen base [Becton, Dickinson and Company, New Jersey, United States], 2% glucose, complete amino acid mix, ammonium sulphate [Merck] supplemented) with the appropriate antibiotics and solidified with 2% agar [Merck] to make plates. For long-term storage, strains were stored at –80°C in 15% glycerol-based standard storage medium. Putative strains were screened in 1 mL antibiotic-selective YPD or SC media in 96 deep well culture plates (Greiner Bio-one, Kremsmunster, Austria), covered with AeraSeal™ breathable film (Sigma-Aldrich, Missouri, USA) in an adapted Titramax 101 incubator 1000 (Heidolph, Schwabach, Germany) at 30°C, shaking at 600 rpm. Unless stated otherwise, confirmation screening rounds were performed in 10 mL SC medium in 100 mL Erlenmeyer flasks shaking at 200 rpm at 30 °C. *Escherichia coli* DH5 α was grown in either Terrific Broth (1.2% tryptone, 2.4% yeast extract and 0.4% glycerol) (Merck) or on Luria-Bertani agar plates (0.5% yeast extract, 1% tryptone, 1% sodium chloride and 2% agar) (Merck), supplemented with appropriate antibiotics for selecting plasmid-containing cells.

3.3.2. Strain construction, sporulation and transformation

A flow-diagram of the steps followed in this work is shown in **Figure 3.1**. Stable, haploid strains were constructed by disrupting one *HO* gene allele from native yeast strains with the KanMX4 marker under the control of a galactose-inducible promoter to allow genetic stability in haploid state, followed by sporulation to identify heterothallic, haploid progeny (Van Zyl et al. 1993). The deletion cassette containing the KanMX4 marker was amplified from plasmid pHK301.3 (**Table 3.1**) by PCR primers listed in **Table 3.3** and using KAPA Biosystems polymerase (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) as per the manufacturers' instructions. The PCR product was isolated on a gel, extracted using Zymogen Gel clean-up kit (Zymo Research, California, USA) and used to transform the strains YI13, FINI and YI59, using the protocol

described in Davison and co-workers (2016). Confirmation of *HO* gene deletion was performed by PCR using *Taq* DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs, Massachusetts, USA), using primers that amplify the 3 kb entire *HO* gene, including upstream and downstream regulatory elements, as per manufacturer's instructions. Sporulation was induced on minimal sporulation agar medium (1% potassium acetate, 2% agar) (Merck) supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics. Asci were digested with a solution of 5% lyticase (Melford) for 8 min and spores were separated using a micromanipulator (MSM300 Singer Instrument, Watchet, UK). MAT α and MAT α were genotyped by PCR (**Table 3.3**).

Plasmid constructions were done according to standard molecular biology techniques previously (Sambrook and Russel 2001). Initial PCR products were amplified using *Taq* DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs) as instructed by the manufacturer, using forward and reverse primers listed in **Table 3.3**. Restriction endonucleases and T4 DNA ligases were purchased from New England Biolabs). PCR products and DNA fragments were routinely separated on 1% agarose (Lonza, Rockland, ME, USA) gels and fragments of appropriate sizes were isolated using the Zymoclean™ Gel DNA Recovery kit (Zymo Research). All plasmids constructed and utilised in this study are summarised in **Table 3.1**.

Table 3.3 PCR primers used to construct and confirm haploid strains.

Primer	Sequence 5'-3'	Reference
Mating type determination		
MAT α -L	ACTCCACTTCAAGTAAGAGTTTG	Davison et al. 2016
MAT α -L	GCACGGAATATGGGACTACTTCG	
MATlocus-R	GCACGGAATATGGGACTACTTCG	
<i>HO</i> knockout		
galG418HO-L	GTGCGCAGATGGCTCCGCTG	This study
galG418HO-R	CCGCCACATTTATACACTCTGGTCC	
<i>HO</i> confirmation		
HO-L	AGAAAGGGTTCGCAAGTCCT	This study
HO-R	CTACGTTGCCTCCATCGAAC	
Cellulase gene determination		
CBHI-L	GACTTTAATTTAAAATGCTAAGAAGAGCTTTACTATTG	Davison et al. 2016
CBHI-R	GACTGGCGCGCCTTACAACATTGAGAGTAGTATGGG	
EGII-L	GTTAACAACAATTTGGGTGG	Davison et al. 2016
ERII-R	CAATGGAGAAAAAGCACC	
BGL-L	GACTCGCGAGTCCCAATTCAAAACACTATAACC	Davison et al. 2016
BGL-R	CCGCTCGAGCGGTCAAATAGTAAACAGGACAGATG	

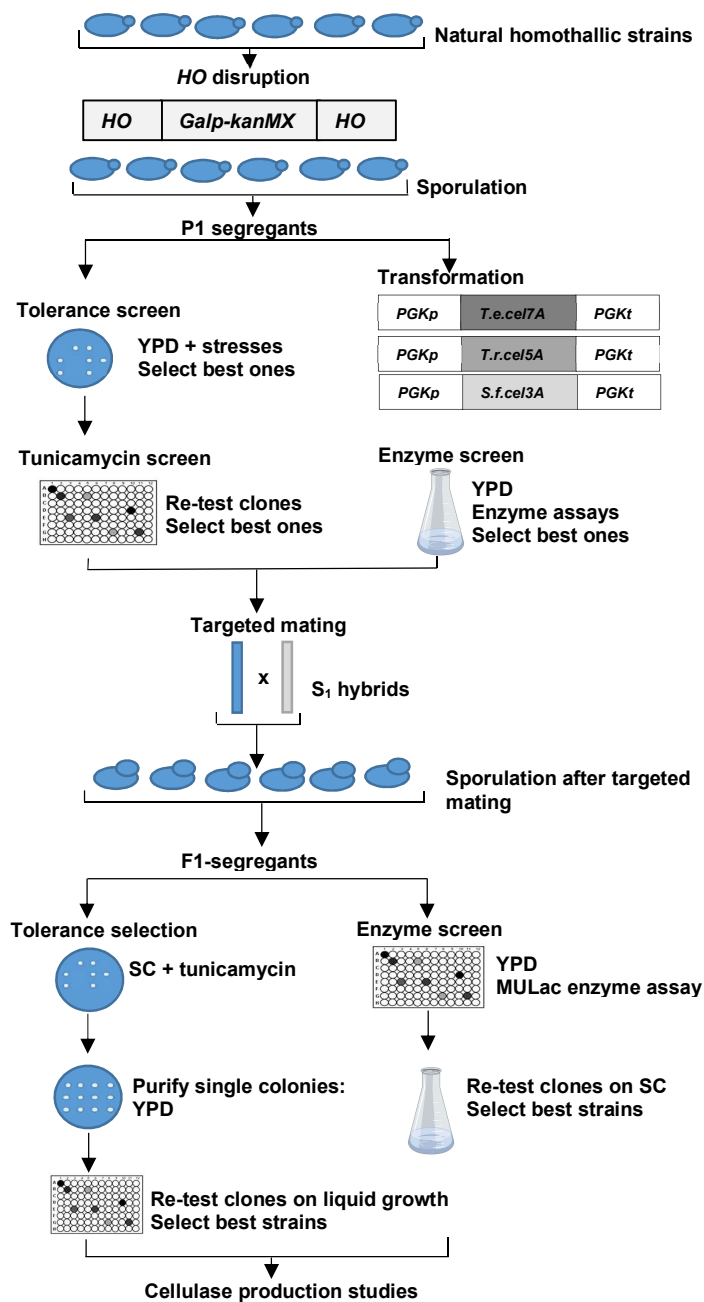


Figure 3.1 Overview of haploid and diploid strain generations, illustrating the steps followed for the generation of strains containing *HO* deletion, *T.e.cel7A*, *T.e.cel5A* and *T.e.cel3A*. The KanMX4 cassette inserted (light grey box) is flanked by 40 bp *HO* homologous sites and under the control of a galactose inducible promoter. Strains were disrupted for the *HO* gene and sporulated. Four viable spores were obtained from tetrad dissection, and haploid spores were selected on geneticin (G418) and galactose-supplemented plates. MAT α and MAT a were genotyped by PCR and confirmed by a mating test. The haploid strains were transformed with pCEN6/ARS4 plasmids individually expressing *T.e.cel7A*, *T.r.cel5A* and *S.f.cel3A* gene cassettes (grey boxes). Alternatively, segregants were screened for survival in multiple stresses, including the secretion stressor tunicamycin. In parallel to these two approaches, we also performed targeted mating by outcrossing the best performing segregant with an Ethanol Red[®] strain, as well as inbreeding the best performing isolates to produce novel hybrid strains. These hybrid strains were sporulated to produce F1-segregants utilised for the next round of screening.

Preliminary screening was performed with the reporter cellobiohydrolase protein *T.e.Cel7A* on a low-copy CEN6-containing plasmid, pHK212_SD1, before further screening with low-copy plasmids pHK212_SD2 and pHK212_SD3 expressing *T.r.cel5A* (endoglucanase) and *S.f.cel3A* (β -glucosidase), respectively. For the construction of the plasmids pHK_SD1/2/3, open reading frames of cellulase genes (*T.e.cel7A*, *T.r.cel5A* and *S.f.cel3A*) were extracted from their respective plasmids pMUSD3, 2 and 1 by digesting with *PacI* and *AscI*, and subsequently inserting the individual fragments into corresponding restriction sites on the yeast expression vector, pHK212. In this way, three distinct plasmids encoding different reporter proteins were constructed under the control of *PGK1* promoter and terminator (listed in **Table 3.1**). Plasmid isolations were carried out using the cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method (Sambrook and Russel 2001). Yeast transformations were carried out as previously described (Davison et al. 2016) and the presence of the cellulase genes in strains was confirmed through PCR using primers specified in **Table 3.3**.

3.3.3 Determination of efficiency of transformation, mating and sporulation

To determine transformation efficiency, cells were grown to mid-logarithmic growth phase at 30°C in YPD medium ($AD_{600} \approx 0.4$) and transformed with 1 μg of plasmid DNA by electroporation (Sambrook and Russel 2001). The transformants were serially diluted and plated onto YPD agar media supplemented with the appropriate antibiotic marker. After 24, 48, 72 and 96 h incubation, the colonies were counted and colony-forming units per micrograms of plasmid (CFU/ μg) were calculated. Cell matings were performed according to a protocol focused on stimulation of \mathbf{a}/α -factor expression and optimised cell-cell contact during mating (Soellick et al. 2001). Mating and sporulation efficiency was determined as described by Chinen and co-workers (2011). The spore viability for each cross was scored after each tetrad dissection.

3.3.4 Phenotypic screening

To obtain a global view of the landscape of stress tolerance profiles in *S. cerevisiae*, three strains ranging in secretory phenotypes, namely YI13, FIN1 and YI59, were chosen based on their innate general secretion capacities (Davison et al. 2016). These three homothallic, diploid strains with an identified range of secretory capacities (Davison et al. 2016), namely YI13 (high), FIN1 (medium) and YI59 (low secretor), serve as potential strains for future genetic studies (**Table 3.1**). This study utilises a phenotypic characterisation technique, with secretion and industrial stress tolerance as underlying factors, to assist with the screening of a set of strains for their applicability in a mating study towards improved heterologous cellulase secretion.

3.3.4.1 Environmental and secretion stresses

Environmental stresses included a range in temperatures (30, 37 and 40°C), ethanol concentrations (7.8-9% w/v) and a range of inhibitory cocktail concentrations (25-40%), as previously described in Davison and co-workers (2016). To evaluate inhibitor tolerance, a concentrated inhibitor cocktail was prepared as described by Martin and Jönsson (2003) containing inhibitors commonly found in lignocellulosic hydrolysates. These were: hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF) (Sigma), cinnamic acid (Sigma), and coniferyl aldehyde (Sigma) dissolved in redistilled water, as well as formic acid (Sigma), acetic acid (Sigma), and finally furfural (Sigma), resulting in a pH range 2–4.

Strains evaluated include the three isolated strains, namely FIN1, YI13 and YI59, and reference strains, namely Ethanol Red[®] derivatives ER12, ER16, ER17 and ER19, and laboratory reference strains S288c and Y294. In order to evaluate the strains' resistance to endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress and detoxifying abilities, two antibiotics namely tunicamycin, which inhibits glycosylation (Bull and Thiede 2012), and sodium orthovanadate, which inhibits activity of phosphate metabolism (Kanik-Ennulat et al. 1995) were used, respectively. Congo

Red is a well-known chemical compound known to induce the cell wall integrity pathway by stressing the cell wall (Herth 1980, Ram et al. 2006). These compounds can be used to evaluate direct stresses found in the secretory pathway and their respective concentration ranges include 0.5-2.0 µg/mL for tunicamycin (Sigma), 0.4-1 mg/mL for sodium orthovanadate (Sigma) and 400-800 µg/mL Congo Red (Sigma) were utilised.

For these stress experiments, cells were grown to mid-exponential phase at 30°C, collected and spotted onto to fresh solid medium containing the corresponding stress as described previously (Davison et al. 2016). Spot plates were made by diluting the cultures to $AD_{600}=0.5$ and spotting (3 µL) 10-fold serial dilutions. Cells were grown for 2–3 days at 30 °C, unless otherwise noted, and viability of each dilution was scored relative to the unchallenged control for each strain.

Inhibition (%) assay were performed by inoculating the cultures to $AD_{600}=0.5$ in YPD or SC medium (96 deep well plate filled with 250 µl/well), supplemented with tunicamycin (range of 1.0-3.0 µg/mL), and cell growth (AD_{600}) was measured at 24 h intervals at an incubation at 30°C for a period of 48 h. Control assays containing 1µl/mL of 100% DMSO (Merck) were included to negate the specific effect of the solvent.

Final resistance scores were summed over the three serial dilutions then averaged over replicates and stress doses (data not shown), providing a score ranging from no growth, initial growth, medium growth to complete growth for each strain and for each stress factor (Kvitek et al. 2008). The scores were colour-scale coded to create a growth inhibition map as demonstrated by Kvitek et al. (2008).

3.3.4.2 Enzyme assays

Each of the pMUSD1/2/3 plasmid-containing strains were cultured separately and enzyme activities subsequently assayed in triplicate. Transformants were inoculated to an $AD_{600} = 1$ into 20 mL YPD in 125-mL Erlenmeyer flasks and were grown up separately for 72 h, in order

to assay three individual, extracellular enzyme activities namely *S.f.Cel3A*, *T.r.Cel5A*, and *T.e.Cel7A*.

Enzyme activity assays were performed as described in Davison and co-workers (2016), whereby cellobiohydrolase activity from transformants expressing *T.e.cel7A* was evaluated using methylumbiferin- β -lactopyranoside (MULac) (Sigma) as a substrate. To evaluate endoglucanase activity from transformants expressing *T.e.cel5A*, enzyme assays were performed using the CMC/DNS method. Finally, to evaluate β -glucosidase activity from *S.f.cel3A* expressing transformants, enzyme assays were performed with *p*-nitrophenyl β -D-glucopyranoside (*p*NPG) (Sigma) as substrate.

To evaluate β -glucosidase activities produced by transformants expressing the gene *S.f.cel3A*, enzyme assays were performed in triplicate at 24-h intervals with *p*-nitrophenyl β -D-glucopyranoside (*p*NPG) (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) as a substrate, with reaction times of 5 min at 50 °C (Kroukamp et al. 2013). Cellobiohydrolase activity from transformants expressing the gene *T.e.cel7A* was evaluated at 24 h intervals according to an adapted method described by Ilmén et al. (2011), using methylumbiferin β -D-lactopyranoside (MULac) (Sigma) as a substrate, with reactions carried out for 15 min at 50 °C. To evaluate the endoglucanase activity from transformants expressing the gene *T.e.cel5A*, enzyme assays were performed at 24 h intervals using the substrate Cellazyme C (Megazyme, Bray, Ireland) (according to manufacturer's instructions) and an adapted CMC/DNS method for 15 min at 50°C (Den Haan et al. 2007).

For the *p*NPG assays, a *p*NP standard curve in the range of 1.5–3 mM was used. The DNS standard curve ranged between 0.5–1.5 mM glucose and the MU standard curve ranged between 0.63–20 μ M. Enzyme activities were expressed as units/mg or units/g DCW, where one unit was defined as the amount of enzyme required to release 1 μ mol of reducing sugar or equivalent per minute. All volumetric values were normalized with dry cell weight (DCW) of

the corresponding yeast cultures in milligram per milliliter (Meinander et al. 1996).

3.3.4.3 Ploidy determination

Flow cytometry was used to verify the ploidy of the top-performing strains in terms of *T.e.Cel7A* secretion, namely YI13 and its derivatives (C2, E4 and 3B), as well as the parental reference control strain ER12 (Davison et al. 2016). The ER12 strain was selected due to its genomic stability and prior use in a genetic study (Hubmann et al. 2013). DNA histograms were recorded with a FACS Diva Version 6.1.3 flow cytometer (BD BioSciences, Franklin Lakes, New Jersey, USA).

3.3.5 Targeted mating, mass sporulation and selection strategies

To create an F1-pool with targeted mating, each parental strain was sporulated and screened individually (see earlier). As shown in **Figure 3.1**, transformation with either *T.e.cel7A*, *T.r.cel5A* or *S.f.cel3A* expressing pCEN6/ARS4 plasmids allowed the identification of top-performing isolates, which in turn was outcrossed to an Ethanol Red[®] strain and inbred to another top-performing haploid isolate to produce hybrid strains. For the mating, each parental haploid containing pHK212_SD1 was utilised and confirmed to retain the plasmids after sporulation and germination (data not shown). After the targeted mating, the diploid hybrid strains were sporulated, and the tetrads were digested using random spore isolation (Ausubel et al. 1987).

The F1-hybrid segregants from the outcrossed (n=200) and inbred lines (n=60) were cultured in liquid medium YPD (96 deep well plate filled with 1 mL/well) and incubated the cells for 48 h before enzyme quantification assays. After quantification, hybrid pools (n=20) containing F1-outcrossed segregants were selected based on their distinct secretory capacities and cultured for 72 h in 10 mL minimal media in 100 mL Erlenmeyer flasks at a starting $AD_{600}=0.1$ for

enzyme quantification assays. In parallel, inhibition (%) assays were performed on the hybrid pools.

3.3.6 Statistical analysis

The significance of the differences in physiological properties of yeast strains was assessed by one-way ANOVA, unpaired *t*-tests and Mann Whitney U-tests ($p>0.05$).

3.4 Results and discussion

3.4.1 Large-scale screening of strain lines for stresses impacting secretory pathway

This study exploited the natural variation that exists among strains to create novel hybrids with enhanced innate secretory capacity. Previously, Davison and co-workers (2016) screened three natural strains identified from inland and coastal winery regions of Western Cape, South Africa. Thus, it was hypothesised that mating genetically divergent strains would increase the chance of obtaining hybrids demonstrating hybrid vigour (heterosis) for industrial traits since each strain contributes different beneficial genetic components. To estimate the evolutionary relatedness of different strains to commercially available wine, brewing and industrial strains, an alignment of DNA sequences of the D1/D2 region of the rDNA of selected strains was performed and constructed a phylogenetic tree (**Figure S3.1**). The commercial strain MH1000 and laboratory strain S288c appeared to be closely related to the Y11, V3, MF15, YI59, YI19 and FIN1 isolates, whereas the brewing strain HOEG appears to be closely related to YI13 isolate, suggesting that the isolated strain potentially evolved from commercial contaminants. Three genetically divergent, homothallic strains showing distinct secretory capacities, namely YI13 (high secretor), FIN1 (median secretor) and YI59 (low secretor) (Davison et al. 2016), and industrial derivative Ethanol Red[®] strains (ER12, ER19, ER17 and ER16) were chosen for further analysis. Given its widespread application in bioethanol industries, Ethanol Red[®] was used as a reference strain throughout this study.

Since many natural and industrial *S. cerevisiae* strains are known to demonstrate poor sexual reproduction and transformation efficiency (often hindrances in studies involving heterologous protein production and hybrid generation), the strains' capacity for genetic transformation and the ability to generate viable spores was tested. The strains demonstrated a range of transformation efficiencies from 2.0×10^3 to 1.6×10^5 (**Figure S3.2a**), however, the strains of importance, namely YI13, YI59, FIN1 and Ethanol Red[®], displayed sufficient transformation, as well as mating and sporulation efficiencies required for mating studies (**Figure S3.2**). Strains demonstrated average sporulation capabilities (**Figure S3.2b**), with prominent strains YI13, FIN1 and YI59 demonstrating tetrad (%) values of 46.6%, 54.4% and 50.0%, respectively. Low sporulation efficiency in both wine and laboratory strains are notoriously reported by Gerke, Chen and Cohen (2006), and cucumber mating analysis. As a result, cross breeding strains with highly sporulating Ethanol Red[®] strains, producing more than 80% viable tetrads (**Figure S3.2b**) is desired. All strains were confirmed to be homothallic (data not shown); to obtain stable *MATa* and *MAT α* haploid derivatives, a single *HO* gene knockout was therefore performed in the strains FIN1, YI13 and YI59. After these strains were sporulated, only tetrads with four viable spores were taken into account (listed in **Table 3.2**). Strains were confirmed to be genetically stable after multiple rounds of sub-cultivation (data not shown). The mating type ratios of segregants derived from YI13, FIN1 and YI59 did not significantly deviate from the expected 2 α :2 a segregation ratio of the mating type locus, indicative of true diploid yeast strains (**Table 3. 2**).

It is hypothesised that the impact of uniform stress responses linked to the secretory pathway can lead to various reactions in different genetic backgrounds, namely YI13, FIN1 and YI59 as well as their haploid derivatives; reference strains S288 α , S288 α/a , Y294 and Ethanol Red[®] strains ER19, ER19, ER17, ER12; and newly constructed diploid strains ER19x12 and ER17x12. A range of phenotypic variance was observed between the strains (**Figure 3.2a** and

b), as expected when haploids are compared with heterozygotes (Szafraniec et al. 2003; Wu et al. 2014). Interestingly, the natural isolates and derivatives displayed a wider phenotypic variance for specific traits, including the tolerance profiles for ethanol, inhibitor and sodium orthovanadate, when compared to other stresses (**Figure 3.2a**). This supports the claim that background-specific effects can create phenotypic expression variation as summarised by Fournier and co-workers (2017). As a result, even uniform stress responses can lead to various reactions, especially in different genetic backgrounds. This is supported by Szafraniec and co-workers (2003), who suggested that heterozygous genetic backgrounds could have small, interfering effects that result in the displayed significant variation of the trait phenotype.

In contrast, more homogenous behaviour was observed between isolate derivatives for the traits of sensitivity to Congo Red, temperature and tunicamycin (**Figure 3.2a**). Congo Red sensitivity was shown here to be a feature of diploid strains, with the haploid derivatives demonstrating higher tolerance (**Figure 3.2a**). This is potentially associated with the presence of a higher chitin content at increased ploidy states of cells (Schekman and Brawley 1979). Unexpectedly, the Ethanol Red[®] derivative lines also displayed extreme sensitivity to Congo Red compared to the other strain derivatives (**Figure 3.2a**), with growth inhibited at 400 µg/mL (data not shown). In contrast to the Congo Red phenotypes, an inverse relationship was observed between tunicamycin tolerance and ploidy, whereby the diploid strains' tolerance were similar to or outranked the strain derivatives (**Figure 2.2a**). Haploid derivatives had pointedly reduced tunicamycin tolerance compared to the diploid strains (namely YI13, FIN1 and YI59). One possible explanation is a multi-gene phenotype, which, when halved unmasks weaker tolerance (or whereby loci can interact antagonistically), it could result in a multiplicative action of effects (Szafraniec et al. 2003). Diploidy provides the immediate benefit of masking deleterious mutations if only their negative effects are reduced in heterozygotes. However, this suggested feature of haploid derivatives warrants further investigation. This not only highlights the degree

of phenotypic behaviour that exist between derivatives of different genetic backgrounds and the allelic distribution of genes for different tolerance profiles, but also the highly interrelated yeast stress response pathways (Kawakami et al. 2016).

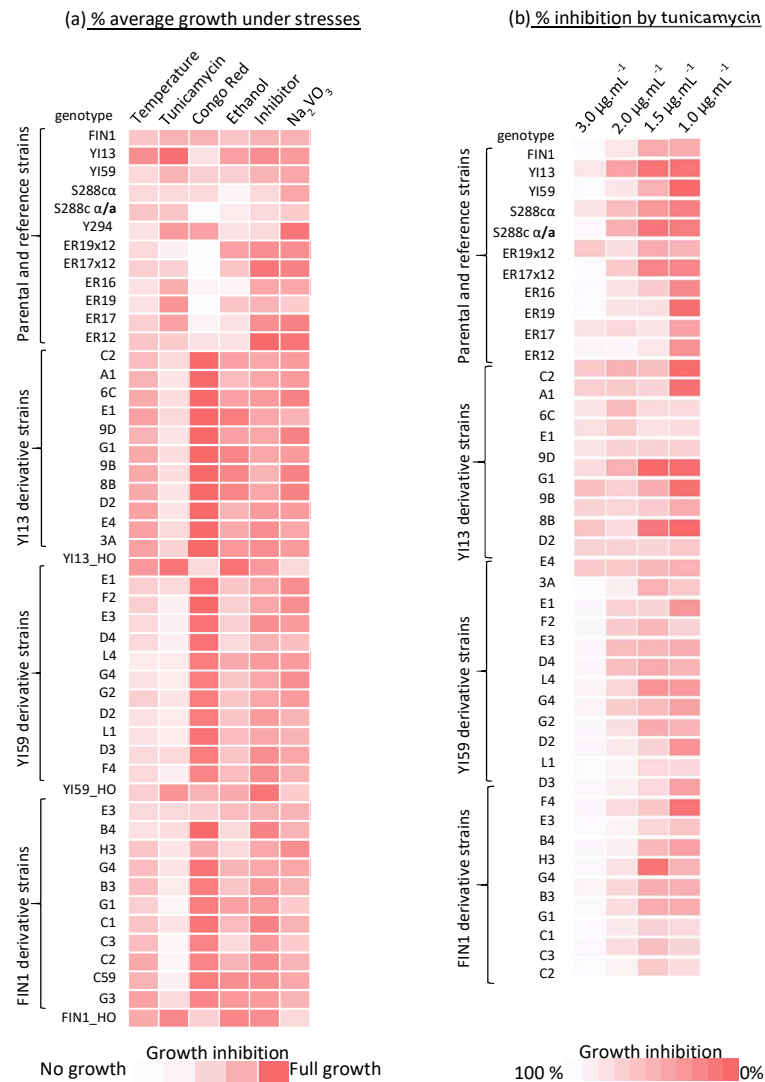


Figure 3.2 Summarised phenotypic response of three yeast strains, YI13, FIN1 and YI59, as well as parental and reference strains, to specific stresses known to influence the secretory stress response system. This includes (a) average growth inhibition of strains spotted onto YPD plates in a 10-fold serial dilution range starting at $AD_{600}=0.5$. Plates were either supplemented with or incubated under specific stresses. (b) Inhibition (%) by the ER stressor, tunicamycin, was determined by the average growth score of each strain cultivated under stressed and non-stressed conditions. Cultures were incubated at 30°C in 250 µl YPD medium in 96 deep-well culture plates with measurements taken after 48 h, with the control supplemented with 1 µl/mL 100% DMSO (data not shown). Each row on both plots represents a different strain or derivative and each column indicates a given environment according to the keys shown at the bottom. Colour-scale boxes beneath the respective figures represent the average growth score of each strain. Values represent the mean of three repeats.

It is worthy to note that the high-secretor strain, YI13, demonstrated high tolerance to cell membrane stressors (such as high ethanol concentrations and high temperature), and secretion stressor (tunicamycin) (**Figure 3.2a**). It has been hypothesised that a regulatory relationship exists between the cell wall integrity (CWI) and the secretion pathway (Scrimale 2010; Torres-Quiroz et al. 2010; Chen et al. 2005), although further evidence of this needs to be provided. Both Scrimale and co-workers (2010) and Torres-Quiroz and co-workers (2010) suggested that tunicamycin, a chemical that activates UPR (Wimalasena et al. 2008), can also activate the yeast mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase Mpk1p, an important component of the CWI. Chen and co-workers (2005) proved that mitogen-activated protein kinases signalling pathways were activated under ER stress, which was further regulated in a manner independent of the *IRE1/HAC1* pathway. More recently, Tang and co-workers (2016) demonstrated that strains with deletions of key Golgi mannosyltransferases genes could up-regulate components in the secretory pathway and affect the CWI. Taking into account the results of this study, the pathways elicited by tunicamycin and Congo Red are not independent of each other, and a potentially regulatory relationship may exist between the stress responses of the secretion pathway and cell wall integrity.

3.4.2 Growth tolerance in the presence of chemical stresses associated to secretion performance and ploidy state

During a previous study, the tolerance profiles of a variety of natural *S. cerevisiae* strains were assessed to a chemical stressor, tunicamycin, and identified a top performing secretory strain YI13 (Davison et al. 2016). In this current paper, the connection between secretion capacity and the ability to grow in the presence of low concentrations of secretion stressor, tunicamycin, was assessed. Furthermore, the association between the ploidy state of a strain and the ability to tolerate high concentrations of the cell wall stressor, Congo Red, was explored. Initially, the growth capacity of each strain was measured on solid YPD medium supplemented with

different concentrations of the chemical stressors, and subsequently tested tunicamycin tolerance.

The current study completed the analysis of tunicamycin tolerance of three yeast strains with ranging secretory phenotypes through parallel measurement of the growth response (AD_{600}) for both diploid and haploid derivatives under a chosen stress condition (**Figure 3.2b**). Using tunicamycin, it was demonstrated that various forms of secretion stress could potentially be used to identify strains with higher secretory capacity. Lower concentrations of tunicamycin (1.0-1.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$), the majority of the haploid strains demonstrated higher inhibition than the diploid strains (**Figure 3.2b**), similar to the results displayed in **Figure 3.2a**. From **Figure 3.2b**, the superior secretor YI13 derivatives demonstrated significantly lower inhibition at tunicamycin concentrations of 3.0 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ than other strain derivatives (p value=8.7E-5). Only the YI13 haploid derivatives survived concentrations up to 3.0 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (**Figure 3.2b**), which resulted in a clear distinction between YI13 haploid derivatives and other strain derivatives.

In parallel to the tunicamycin tolerance assay, the secretion phenotypes were evaluated using a low-copy centromeric plasmid containing the *Talaromyces emersonii cel7A* (CBHI) gene with a carbohydrate-binding module from *Trichoderma reesei* Cel7A (Ilmén et al. 2011). The YI13 derivative strains, Ethanol Red[®] strains and laboratory strain S288c were transformed with plasmid pHK212_SD1. A range of secretory capacities was demonstrated for the strains (**Figure 3.3a**), reinforcing the hypothesis that differences in the genetic background of host yeast strains have profound effects on the expression of recombinant proteins (Szafraniec et al. 2003), especially with respect to heterologous protein secretion levels. The YI13 transformants had the highest activity per DCW (dry cell weight) for the time monitored, achieving up to 1.28 U/mgDCW (**Figure 3.3a**). Furthermore, activity levels among the YI13 segregants ranged from 0.81 to 1.10 U/mg DCW (**Figure 3.3a**), with the best segregant displaying activity that was 10-fold higher than the best performing Ethanol Red[®] derivative. In particular, the six

YI13 haploid transformants secreted significantly more *T.e.Cel7A* (CBHI) compared to the respective S288c (p value=0.004) and Ethanol Red[®] transformants (p value=0.008; **Figure 3.3a**). No significant difference was observed in *T.e.Cel7A* activities between the Ethanol Red[®] derivative strains (p value=0.85; **Figure 3.3a**). Upscaling the experiments to flasks demonstrated no difference in the ranking of the strains (**Figure 3.3a and b**). The strain ER12 was chosen for mating analysis because previous studies identified weak strains as contributors for beneficial genetic variation that is often absent from superior strains (Hu et al. 2007; Swinnen et al. 2012).

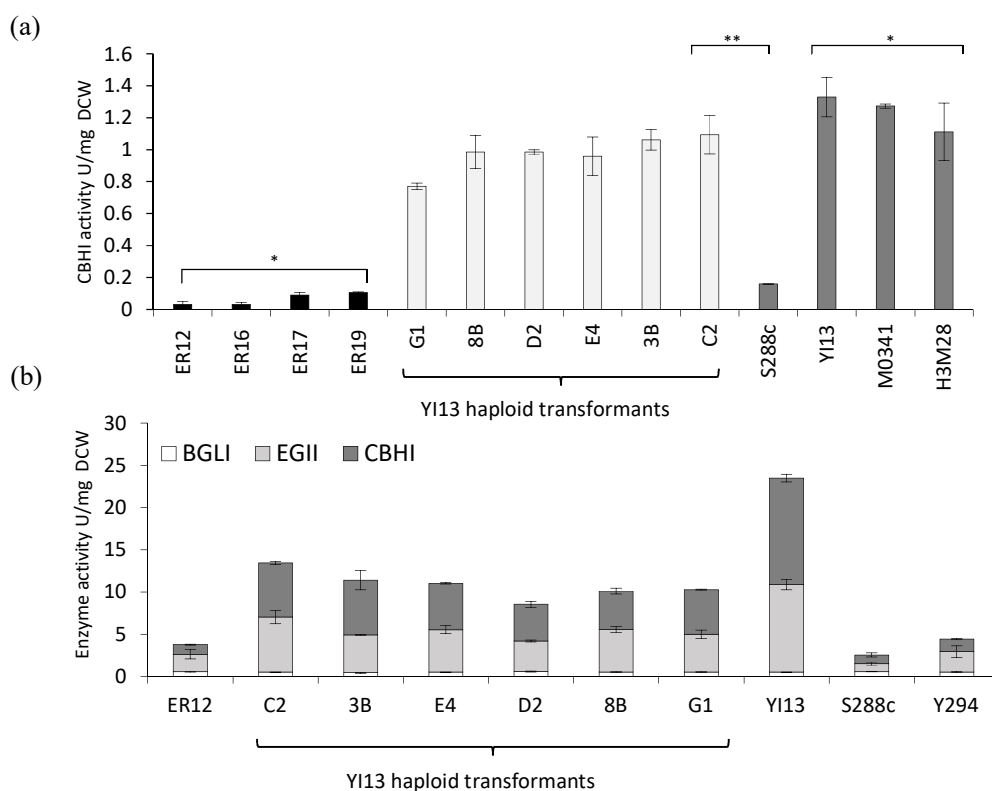


Figure 3.3 Relative extracellular enzyme activity levels of strains displaying a range of secretion profiles, expressing the *T.e.cel7A* (CBH), *T.r.cel5A* (EGII) and *S.f.cel3A* (BGL) genes, respectively. (a) Represents *T.e.cel7A* extracellular activity levels when transformants were cultured in 1 mL media in 96 well microplate. (b) Represents *T.e.cel7A* (CBH) (dark grey), *T.r.cel5A* (EGII) (light grey) and *S.f.cel3A* (BGL) (white) extracellular activity levels when transformants were cultured in 10 mL Erlenmeyer flasks. All values represent the mean of three repeats and error bar indicates standard deviation from the mean. ANOVA test: *ns, not significant; $p \leq 0.01$. Unpaired t -tests: ** $p \leq 0.05$.

In addition to selection for higher secretory capacity, selection strategy based on survival in medium containing low levels of the secretion stressor, tunicamycin, was explored. Interestingly, the tunicamycin tolerance ranking of the strains (**Figure 3.2b**) remained similar to that exhibited by the secretion profiles of the *T.e.Cel7A* (CBHI; **Figure 3.3a**). Furthermore, a large range of activities (2.1–10.4 U/mg DCW) was observed between the strains expressing another reporter cellulase gene, namely *T.r.cel5A* (EGII; **Figure 3.3b**). In the latter case, a 3.1-fold difference existed between control ER12 and the highest performing haploid YI13 derivative for *T.e.Cel7A* activity, namely C2 (**Figure 3.3b**). This may be indicative of a potential ‘general secretion’ enhancing effect being observed in the overall highest performing haploid, namely C2. However, the lack of variance between the haploids expressing *S.f.cel3A* (**Figure 3.3b**), suggested preferential pathways for specific heterologous reporter proteins. Comparing the highly glycosylated protein of *S.f.Cel3A* with the physically smaller cellulases *T.e.Cel7A* and *T.r.Cel5A*, this enzyme was secreted at poor extracellular activity levels across all strain backgrounds (**Figure 3.3b**). The observed variations in **Figure 3.3b** can be attributed to general protein properties such as protein size, number of di-sulphide bonds, protein hydrophobicity, etc. Furthermore, the cell wall-associated nature of *S.f.Cel3A*, as described by Gurgu and co-workers (2011), may explain the discrepancies regarding the extracellular activity levels displayed among the strains. Based on these results, the *T.e.Cel7A* was used as a reporter protein for subsequent screening of the F1-segregants.

3.4.3 Targeted mating generates improved F1-segregants

The parental reference strains for hybridisation were chosen based on the clear distinction in *T.e.Cel7A* activity observed between the best performing YI13 haploid derivatives C2 and 3B, and the parental reference haploid strain ER12 (**Figure 3.3a-b**). In addition to outcrossing the C2 segregant to ER12, an inbreeding experiment was performed on the best-performing segregants C2 and 3B using a targeted mating approach. Flow cytometric analysis was

performed on the top-performing YI13 derivatives, in respect to *T.e.cel7A* and *T.r.cel5A* secretion levels, namely C2, E4 and 3B, and confirmed the strains to be true haploids containing half the DNA content of diploid strains (**Figure S3.3**). The F1-segregants from both crosses incorporated two initial genomes, with F1-segregants demonstrating a mosaic of genomes. Sixty outcrossed and inbred F1-pools of hybrid segregants were assayed and the extracellular *T.e.Cel7A* activity of these pools is illustrated in **Figure 3.4a**.

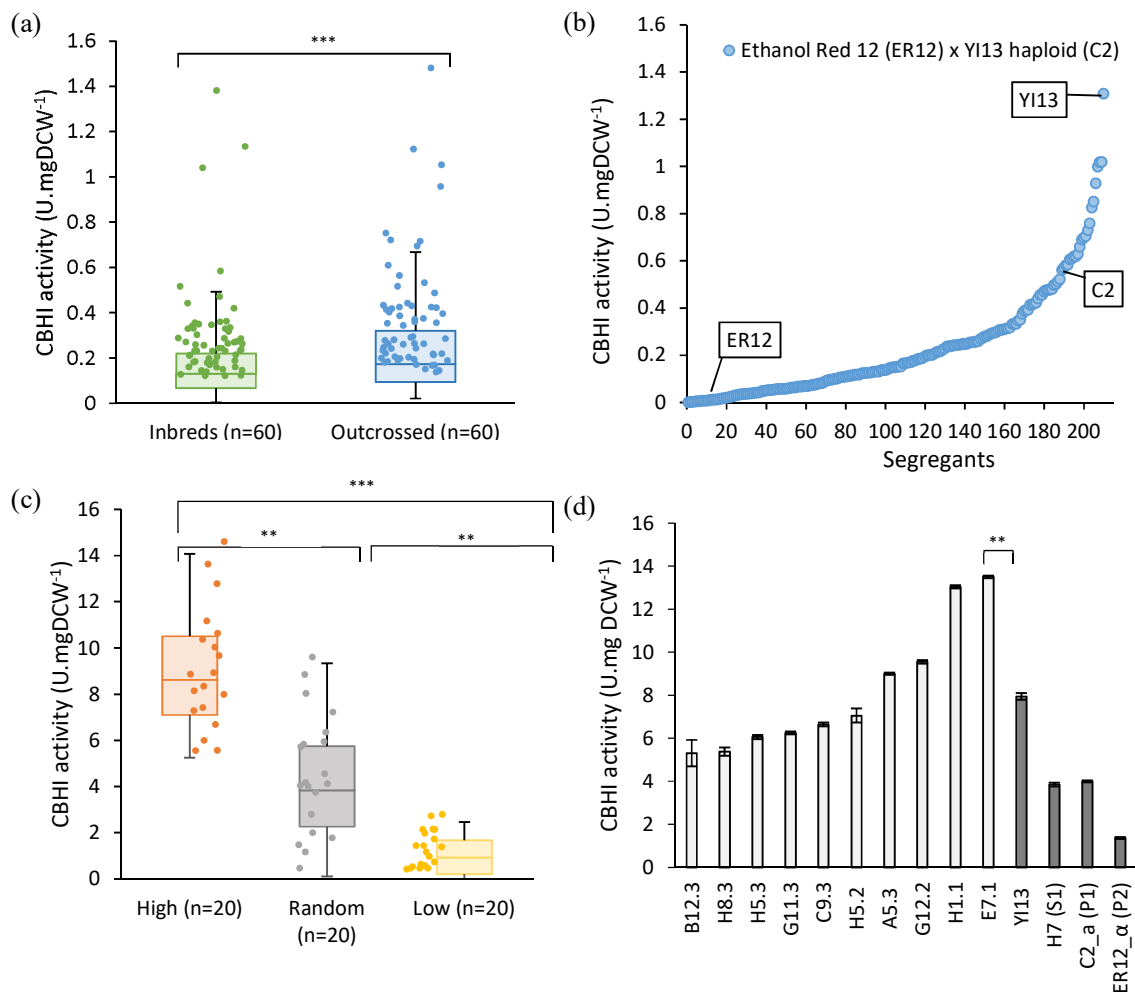


Figure 3.4 Targeted mating yielded hybrids with increased *T.e.Cel7A* secretion capability. (a) Outcrossed F1-hybrids display higher yields of extracellular *T.e.Cel7A* than F1-inbreds cultivated in 1 mL YPD media in 96 deep well plates (Mann-Whitney test:*** $p \leq 0.05$). (b) Outcrossed F1-segregants display a gradual increase in extracellular *T.e.Cel7A* activity in 1 mL YPD in 96 deep well plates. (c) Distinct pools of isolated F1-outcrossed segregants demonstrate a range of significant secretory capacities cultivated in 10 mL minimal media in Erlenmeyer flasks (Mann-Whitney test:*** $p \leq 0.05$, unpaired *t*-test: ** $p \leq 0.05$). (d) Relative enzyme activity profiles of the top-performing F1-generation segregants displayed a range of secretion profiles when cultivated in 10 mL YPD media in Erlenmeyer flasks (unpaired *t*-test: ** $p \leq 0.05$).

An interesting result was that the average concentration of secreted *T.e.Cel7A* activity of outcrossed segregants was significantly higher than that of the inbreds (p value=0.0006) (**Figure 3.4a**). This can partly be explained by the specific genetic combination of parents that may provide a superior genetic basis, and that inbreeding can often result in weaker hybrids as demonstrated by hybridisation studies to improve ethanol tolerance by Snoek and co-workers (2015). It is important to note that alleles have been exposed to natural selection and that awhile it may increase the chance of introducing alleles that are beneficial for the desired trait, it could potentially be detrimental for other phenotypes of interest. Another factor to consider is epistasis, whereby two alleles that are beneficial in a specific genetic background can have a disadvantageous effects when combined in the same strain. Therefore, the effect of epistasis is more pronounced in the outbred pools due to more complex, mosaic genetic backgrounds with alleles combined from different strains.

Based on the previous analyses, 210 segregants from the outcrossing of C2 with ER12 segregants (known as H7 hybrids) were isolated, sporulated and screened for extracellular *T.e.Cel7A* activity (**Figure 3.4b**). Interestingly, some of the transformants showed peculiar behaviour as they secreted *T.e.Cel7A* poorly or not at all, similar to Ethanol Red[®] and the reference laboratory strains (**Figure 3.4b**). The secretory performance in the mosaic segregants was higher in the parental haploid (C2) and hybrid strain (H7) for 20 out of the 210 strains (**Figure 3.4b**). Approximately 9.0%–9.5% of the total haploid derivatives screened displayed less extracellular *T.e.Cel7A* activity than the ER12 parental strain and more than the C2 parental strain (**Figure 3.4b**). As a next step, the pools of outbred F1-segregants that showed distinct secretory capacities (i.e. lowest and highest relative to the pool of randomly selected segregants) in 10 mL minimal media in Erlenmeyer flasks were re-tested. Significant differences between the ‘superior’ (p value=7.4E-06) and ‘inferior’ pools p value=1.7E-05)

compared to the ‘random’ pool were found, thus confirming our screening approaches (**Figure 3.4c**).

Ten of the best-performing haploid derivatives were re-cultivated in 10 mL YPD media in Erlenmeyer flasks and assayed. Under these conditions, the E7.1 haploid had the best performance for extracellular *T.e.Cel7A* activity and significantly outperformed the parental diploid strain YI13 by 1.7-fold (p value=3.1E-06) and ER12 parental haploid strain by 4.9-fold (p value=2.6E-05; **Figure 3.4d**). Such extremes for secreted activity (i.e. continuous and normally distributed) suggested a Gaussian-distributed trait and distinctly typifies this as a quantitative trait with multiple alleles being responsible for high *T.e.Cel7A* secretion. This further demonstrated that more than one allele is conferring the high secretion phenotype. Furthermore, past research suggested that multiple alleles are responsible for the high secretion phenotype and that the combination of small enhancements can contribute to a superior secretion phenotype as described by Brookfield and co-workers (1996), and specifically hypothesised for *T.e.Cel7A* secretion by Kroukamp and co-workers (2017).

To confirm that some of the hybrids obtained in our outcrossed hybridisation strategy outperformed the commonly used bioethanol strain and initial parental strains, ten hybrids from the high secretion pool were re-tested in triplicate and upscaled to Erlenmeyer flasks. The results show that some selected outcrossed F1-segregants demonstrated heterosis (hybrid vigour) and outperformed both their parental strains. Heterosis has been previously demonstrated for cellulase production by Kroukamp and co-workers (2017). While the precise mechanisms underlying heterosis remain unknown, future work to characterise the novel strains generated (in this study) with increased secretion capacity at a genetic and phenotypic level would be of interest, for example using a quantitative trait loci (QTL) mapping approach as described by Hubmann and co-workers (2013).

In addition to selection for superior secretory capacities, an additional selection strategy based on survival in minimal medium containing a range of concentrations of tunicamycin was explored. To ascertain the degree of secretion stress variation between outcrossed F1-segregants, stress tolerance analysis was performed on the selected strains from pools of segregants. In this way, the strain differences that may physiologically activate the UPR were exploited. It was noted that the stress tolerance distribution of the F1-segregants was less broad than that of the parental strains (**Figure 3.5**). Nevertheless, some of the segregants in the ‘inferior’ pool, displaying low extracellular *T.e.Cel7A* activity, performed worse in tunicamycin-induced stress compared to the ‘superior’ pool displaying high extracellular *T.e.Cel7A* activity (**Figure 3.5**). This evidence correlates with the hypothesis that a highly reactive secretory stress response exhibited by these strains potentially results in superior protein-folding capabilities, which had been suggested by previous studies (Ilmén et al. 2011; Davison et al. 2016).

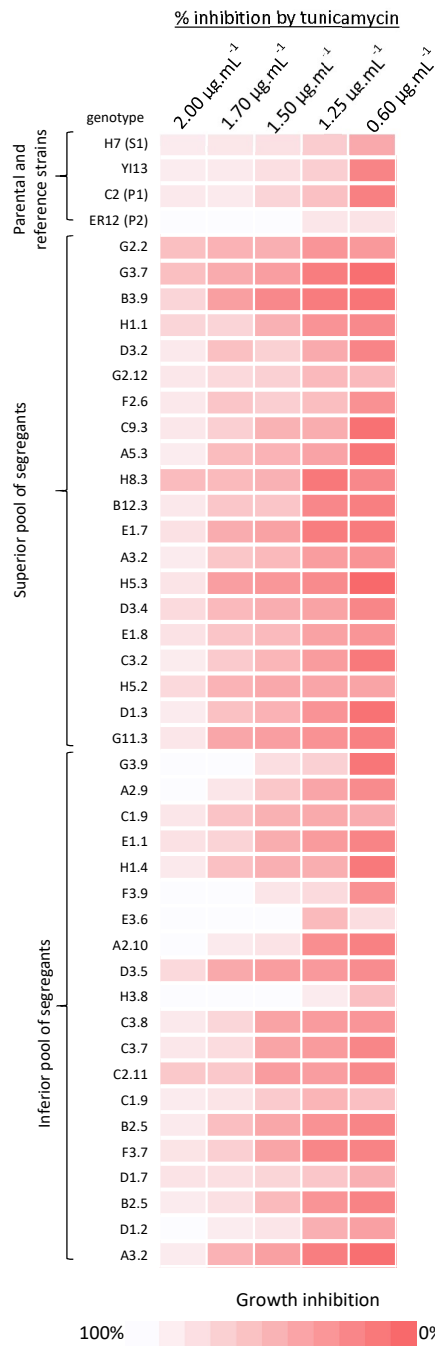


Figure 3.5 Summarised phenotypic response of yeast strain lines to tunicamycin. Each row represents growth in medium with different concentrations of the chemical stressor tunicamycin for F1-segregants from the outcrossed hybrid population, as well as the parental strains. Colour boxes represent the inhibition (%) determined by the average growth score of each strain cultivated under stresses and non-stresses conditions in triplicate repeats, according to the key shown at bottom. Cultures were incubated at 30°C in 250 μl minimal medium in 96 deep well culture plates with measurements taken every 24h for 48h. Values represent the average of three repeats.

Nevertheless, strains that grow well in the presence of tunicamycin are not always the best secretor strains, which was also demonstrated by the parental and hybrid strains: the best performing strain out of the collection, namely E7.1 (**Figure 3.4d**), grows well in the presence of tunicamycin, but not as good as some of the segregants in the ‘inferior’ pool (**Figure 3.5**). Therefore, it is important to note that this method is only suitable when scoring of the ultimate strain is not a necessity. However, when screening large numbers of recombinant strains, this method presents a way to screen the first selection of candidates, likely resulting in a much smaller pool of recombinant strains to analyse. Hence, the presented method is a suitable way for the first selection of high-secreting strains, but a second test remains necessary to identify the best-performing strain. Furthermore, the diversity of functions contributing to ER integrity presents an obstacle in efforts to use this stress as a selection tool due to the complexity surrounding how unexpected factors function together to support protein folding in the ER (Jonikas et al. 2009). The advantage in a selectable trait such as tolerance to chemical stresses, including tunicamycin, is the ability to screen large numbers of segregants, which should increase the chances of selecting the best candidate for ER stress and, indirectly, secretion stress. It is recommended to include a combination of chemical stresses in a comprehensive screen, followed by systematic analysis of secretory phenotype in order to fully understand a complex cellular process such as heterologous protein secretion.

3.5 Conclusions

In this work, a set of stable genetic yeast strains suitable for genetic studies in recombinant protein production and tolerance to fermentation stress factors was obtained. By analysing phenotypic traits directly and indirectly linked to secretory stress, a standardised screening procedure suitable for recombinant protein production and potentially other traits, including inhibitor tolerance as created. A main factor in large-scale segregant screening for genetic and mating studies involves the large amounts of material, costs, time and effort required. A screening protocol applicable to large-scale haploid screening through the use of the

antimicrobial compounds tunicamycin and Congo Red was used to substantially reduce the number of strains that have to be assayed quantitatively. This protocol is appropriate for multi-parallel screenings at relatively low cost and effort and without the need for highly specialised equipment. With further development, this method could be a basis for an automated screening procedure to facilitate the high-throughput applications needed to analyse QTLs linked to a desired trait. In conclusion, evaluating and characterising the natural, intra-species hybridisation of genetically stable haploid strains allows for the selection of improved hybrids for industrial traits, as well as allowing for the easy genetic manipulation required for research on heterologous enzyme secretion.

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CHAPTER 4

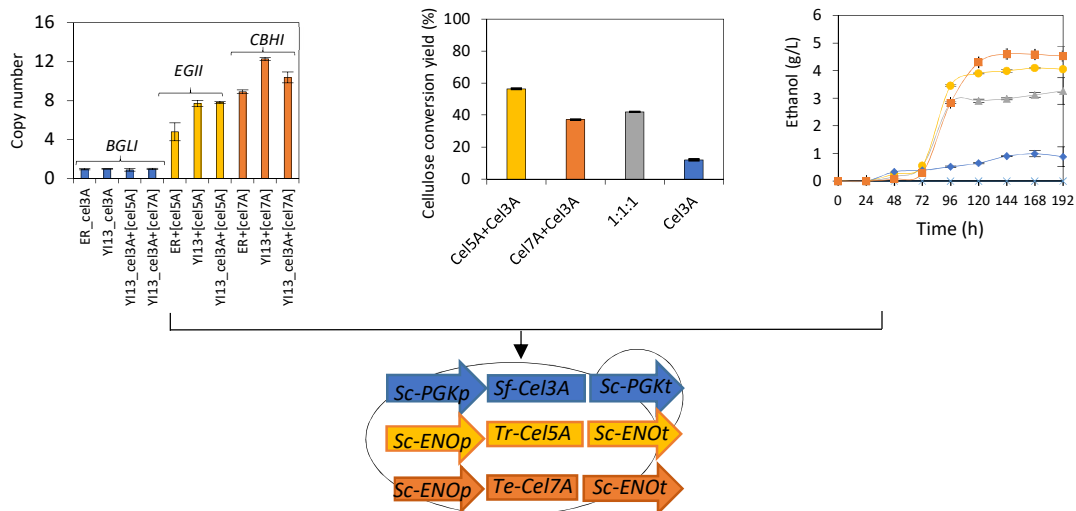
IMPROVED CELLULASE EXPRESSION IN YEAST STRAINS ENHANCED CONSOLIDATED BIOPROCESSING OF PRETREATED CORN RESIDUES

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4.1 Abstract

In an effort to find a suitable genetic background for efficient cellulolytic secretion, genetically diverse strains were transformed to produce core fungal cellulases, namely β -glucosidase (BGLI), endoglucanase (EGII) and cellobiohydrolase (CBHI), in various combinations and expression configurations. The secreted enzyme activity levels, gene copy number, substrate specificities, as well as hydrolysis and fermentation yields of the transformants were analysed. The effectiveness of the partially cellulolytic yeast transformants to convert two different pre-treated corn residues, namely corn cob and corn husk, was then explored. Higher secretion titers were achieved by cellulolytic strains with the Y113 genetic background and cellulolytic transformants produced up to 1.34-fold higher glucose concentrations (g/L) than a control containing of equal amounts of each enzyme type. The transformant co-producing BGLI and EGII in a ratio of 1:15 (extracellular activity cellulase per gram dry cell weight) converted 56.5% of the cellulose in corn cob to glucose in hydrolysis experiments and yielded 4.05 g/L ethanol in fermentations.

Graphical abstract



4.2 Introduction

Utilisation of cellulosic feedstocks for the production of bioethanol is gaining attention for its potential advantages in a global market, including balance of trade, rural employment benefits and meaningful energy security (Kim and Dale 2004). Annually, about 1.5 tonnes of dry lignocellulosic biomass from global agricultural crops is available for conversion to bioethanol (Zhao et al. 2017). Corn residues, in particular, are considered a favorable feedstock for industrial cellulosic ethanol production and contain a high cellulose content (32-36% dry weight) and low lignin content (16-17% dry weight) (Zhao et al. 2017). However, due to variation in cell wall composition (Sindelar et al. 2015), it is important to determine conversion efficiencies on different pretreated corn residues such as corn cob and corn husk with any methodology used. Current commercial cellulosic ethanol plants employ separate hydrolysis and fermentation or simultaneous saccharification and fermentation conversion methods (Lynd et al. 2017). However, a consolidated bioprocess (CBP) configuration, defined as the combination of saccharolytic enzyme production and secretion, hydrolysis of polysaccharides and fermentation of available sugars within a single unit, is envisaged for improved process economics.

One favored strategy for CBP organism development is engineering *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* with the ability to utilise cellulose by expressing heterologous cellulase encoding genes (as reviewed by Den Haan and co-workers (2015)). A minimal or 'core' combination of cellulases needs to be produced to achieve significant hydrolysis of cellulosic substrates. Several combinations of genes such as the *Saccharomycopsis fibuligera* β -glucosidase (*Sf-BGLI*), *Trichoderma reesei* endoglucanase (*Tr-EGII*) and *Talaromyces emersonii* cellobiohydrolase (*Te-CBHI*),s have been expressed in yeast and shown to partially hydrolyse lignocellulose (Lambertz et al. 2014; McBride et al. 2005; Olson et al. 2012). In addition, engineered strains

with genetically different backgrounds have demonstrated ranging cellulolytic secretion capabilities (De Baetselier et al. 1991; Davison et al. 2016; 2019; Gurgu et al. 2011).

Past research has demonstrated that excessively high cellulase (20 FPU/g biomass) and β -glucosidase (20 U/g biomass) loadings significantly decrease glucose concentrations (Banerjee et al. 2010; Olofsson et al. 2008; Pallapolu et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2013), suggesting that a fine balance of cellulase activity (or “cellulase ratio”) is required. The efficient conversion of lignocellulosic feedstocks (such as pretreated corn residues) to fermentable sugars and subsequently ethanol, thus requires an in depth understanding of the relationship between the recalcitrant, complex substrate and the combinations of cellulases that need to be secreted at specific enzyme ratios (Den Haan et al. 2013).

In the biotechnological industry, increased expression cassette stability and copy number serve as an important means of maintaining consistently high production levels of heterologous proteins in *S. cerevisiae* (Den Haan et al. 2013). With the advancement of techniques that allow stable, high copy numbers in yeasts such as *POT*-mediated delta (δ) integration (Song et al. 2017), it is important to understand the effect of copy number on protein production ratios and the influence this has on hydrolysis and fermentation. In nature, the genome of cellulolytic organisms encode a wide array of catalytic subunits that evolved to address the challenges presented by chemical heterogeneity and structural complexity of natural lignocellulosic substrates. Furthermore, the ratio of each of the cellulases are fine-tuned via regulated expression of the cellulase-encoding genes to achieve the maximum hydrolysis in response to the environment (reviewed by Kunitake and co-workers, 2017).

A combination of genetic background, transcription efficiency, selecting the optimal cellulase encoding gene and gene copy number have been shown to be the most significant factors influencing the conversion of cellulosic substrates by recombinant strains (Davison et al. 2016, Zhang et al. 2012, Li et al. 2017). It has proved challenging to adjust the specific concentration

and ratio of each cellulase in a heterologous system in order to achieve a more efficient hydrolysis process utilising lower enzyme dosages (Li et al. 2017; Zhang and Lynd 2004). As a result, improving the efficiency of cellulolytic enzymes has been an active area of research, with efforts dedicated towards understanding the synergy displayed by different combinations of cellulases and optimisation of the respective cellulase ratios (Den Haan et al. 2013; Olofsson et al. 2008). All of these elements are aimed at reducing the enzyme loading for efficient cellulose hydrolysis, and ultimately reducing the production cost.

It is clear that variation in cellulase secretion capabilities of *S. cerevisiae* can be explained in terms of many factors, including impact of the genetic background (Davison et al. 2016, 2019, Gurgu et al. 2011, De Baetselier et al. 1991, Marin-Navarro et al. 2011, Wang, Li, and Wang 2016). Other studies identified *S. cerevisiae* strains capable of effectively fermenting glucose from pretreated biomass (Wang et al. 2013, Fujita et al. 2004; Den Haan et al. 2007; Yarbrough et al. 2015). However, no work has been published reporting the engineering of an *S. cerevisiae* strain with a native genetic background, with partial cellulolytic capabilities that can ferment glucose from pretreated biomass, a requirement for a CBP process. Since external and internal stresses can impact the yield of secreted recombinant protein in *S. cerevisiae* (Gasser et al. 2008; Marin-Navarro et al. 2011; Mattanovich et al. 2004; Wang et al. 2016), utilising a stress-tolerant strain as a host may make a significant difference in the feasibility and profitability of the cellulosic bioethanol production process.

Previously, thirty natural *S. cerevisiae* isolates were screened for superior secretion activity and other industrially relevant characteristics needed during the process of lignocellulosic ethanol production (Davison et al. 2016). The natural strain YI13 was identified to have a high secretory phenotype, demonstrating a 3.7- and 3.5-fold higher Cel7A (CBHI) and Cel5A (EGII) secreted enzyme activity, respectively, compared to a reference laboratory strain. The YI13 strain also demonstrated other industrially relevant characteristics such as growth vigor,

high ethanol titer, tolerance to high temperatures (37°C and 40°C), ethanol (10% w/v) and various concentrations of a cocktail of inhibitory compounds commonly found in lignocellulose hydrolysates. To evaluate inhibitor tolerance, a concentrated inhibitor cocktail was prepared as described by Martin and Jönsson (2003) containing inhibitors commonly found in lignocellulosic hydrolysates. These were: hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF) (Sigma), cinnamic acid (Sigma), and coniferyl aldehyde (Sigma) dissolved in redistilled water, as well as formic acid (Sigma), acetic acid (Sigma), and finally furfural (Sigma), resulting in a pH range 2–4 (Davison et al. 2016).

In this study, the expression of a combination of cellulases in different genetic backgrounds were tested namely the natural strain isolate Y113, a diploid version of the laboratory strain S288c α/α and the industrial strain Ethanol Red[®], and investigated different configurations of partially cellulolytic *S. cerevisiae* strains using a combined strategy of δ -integration of the *Sf-BGLI* (*cel3A*) and subsequent transformation with high-copy number plasmids containing either *Tr-EGII* (*cel5A*) or *Te-CBHI* (*cel7A*). The hydrolysis activity of the cellulolytic strains were compared to a control containing equal activity units (U/g DCW) of each enzyme type. The efficiency of these strains for enzymatic hydrolysis on different corn residues were evaluated for the release of fermentable sugars and the importance of different cellulases ratios. Furthermore, the fermentation ability of cellulolytic strains were compared to control fermentations that were supplemented with a commercial cellulase Cellic[®] CTec2 (Novozymes, Bagsværd, Denmark). This study therefore combined the advantages of a robust fermentative yeast strain with improved cellulase ratios to convert corn residues to bioethanol, demonstrating a reduced requirement for externally supplied enzyme. Furthermore, this study explored how the heterogeneity of agricultural feedstocks influenced ethanol yields in a CBP.

4.3 Materials and Methods

4.3.1 DNA manipulation and construction of recombinant strains

Standard molecular biology techniques were used as described by Sambrook and Russel (2001). *Escherichia coli* was grown in LB medium (0.5% yeast extract, 1% tryptone, 1% sodium chloride; Merck, Darmstadt) containing 100 µg/mL ampicillin. Techniques for manipulation of *S. cerevisiae* were described previously (Cho et al. 1999a, 1999b). *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strains Ethanol Red[®] (Fermentis, a division of S.I. Lesaffre, Lille, <http://www.fermentis.com>), natural strain YI13 (KX428528.1) and the diploid version of S288c (ATCC 204508) were used as host strains for the expression of multiple cellulase genes, namely *S. fibuligera cel3A* (called *Sf-BGL*), *T. reesei cel5A* (called *Tr-EGII*) and *T. emersonii cel7A* (called *Te-CBHI*) (**Table 4.1**).

Table 4.1 Primers used in this study for amplification of different cellulases.

Primer name	GenBank accession no.	Primers used for verification (5'-3')
<i>Sf-cel3A</i>	[GenBank:AEV40916.1]	F-GACTCGCGAGTCCCAATTCAAAACACTATACC R-CCGCTCGAGCGGTCAAATAGTAAACAGGACAGATG
<i>Te-cel7A</i>	[GenBank:AAL89553]	F-GACTTTAATTAATAATGCTAAGAAGAGCTTTACTATTG R-GACTGGCGCGCCTTACAAACATTGAGAGTAGTATGGG
<i>Tr-cel5A</i>	[GenBank:KX255673]	F-GTTAACAACAATTTGGGTGG R-CAATGGAGAAAAAGCACC
<i>Qcel3A</i>	[GenBank:AEV40916.1]	F-TTTGGTAAAGCGAACCCATC R-AGGTTCACTACTCGATGGAC
<i>Qcel7A</i>	[GenBank:AAL89553]	F-CTGACGTCGAATCCCAATCT R-GACCTGGAGGGTTAGAAGCA
<i>Qcel5A</i>	[GenBank:KX255673]	F-TCAATGTATTCCAGGTGCT R-GGTGGAGTAGAAGAAGATG
<i>Sc-ALG9</i>	[GenBank: Z7149.1]	F-TGCATTTGCTGTGATTGTCA R-GCCAGATTCCTCACTTGCAT

High-copy plasmids namely pMUSD1, pMUSD2 and pMUSD3 were previously constructed in this laboratory (Davison et al. 2016) (**Figure S4.1**) and plasmid isolations were carried out

using the cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method (Sambrook and Russel 2001). PCR products were amplified from pMUSD1 using the Phusion High Fidelity DNA polymerase (Thermo Scientific-Waltham, USA) used on an Applied Biosystems 2720 thermocycler (Life Technologies-CA, USA) as instructed by the manufacturer, using forward and reverse primers (**Table 4.1**) that included *PacI* and *AscI* restriction sites for subsequent directional cloning of *Sf-BGLI* from pMUSD1 (Davison et al. 2016) into the pBCD1 (McBride et al. 2005) to create the pRDH234 yeast integration vector (**Table 4.2**). PCR products and DNA fragments were routinely separated on 1% (w/v) agarose (Lonza, Rockland, ME, USA) gels and fragments of appropriate sizes were isolated using the Zymoclean™ Gel DNA Recovery Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA).

Table 4.2 Plasmid and strain constructs used in this study.

Components	Genotype	Reference
<i>S. cerevisiae</i> strains		
S288c	<i>MATa/α, α leu2-3,112 ura3-52 his3 trp1-289LEU3</i>	ATCC 204508
S288c[cel3A]	<i>MATa/α, α leu2-3,112 ura3-52 his3 trp1-289LEU3, ENOp-cel3A-ENOt-kanMX</i>	Davison et al. 2016
S288c[cel7A]	<i>MATa/α, α leu2-3,112 ura3-52 his3 trp1-289LEU3, ENOp-cel7A-ENOt-kanMX</i>	Davison et al. 2016
S288c[cel5A]	<i>MATa/α, α leu2-3,112 ura3-52 his3 trp1-289LEU3, ENOp-cel5A-ENOt-kanMX</i>	Davison et al. 2016
Ethanol Red®	<i>MATa/α</i>	This study
YI13	<i>MATa/α</i>	KX428528
YI13[cel3A]	<i>MATa/α, ENOp-cel3A-ENOt-kanMX</i>	Davison et al. 2016
YI13[cel7A]	<i>MATa/α, ENOp-cel7A-ENOt-kanMX</i>	Davison et al. 2016
YI13[cel5A]	<i>MATa/α, ENOp-cel5A-ENOt-kanMX</i>	Davison et al. 2016
Ethanol Red[cel3A]	<i>MATa/α, ENOp-cel3A-ENOt-kanMX</i>	This study
Ethanol Red[cel7A]	<i>MATa/α, ENOp-cel7A-ENOt-kanMX</i>	This study
Ethanol Red[cel5A]	<i>MATa/α, ENOp-cel5A-ENOt-kanMX</i>	This study
YI13_cel3A	<i>MATa/α, δ-site PGKp-cel3A-PGKt-natMX δ-site</i>	This study
YI13_cel3A[cel7A]	<i>MATa/α, δ-site PGKp-cel3A-PGKt-natMX δ-site/ ENOp-cel7A-ENOt-kanMX</i>	This study
YI13_cel3A[cel5A]	<i>MATa/α, δ-site PGKp-cel3A-PGKt-natMX δ-site/ ENOp-cel5A-ENOt-kanMX</i>	This study
<i>Plasmids</i>		
pRDH234	<i>bla URA3, δ-site PGKp-cel3A-PGKt-natMX δ-site</i>	This study
pBCD1	<i>bla URA3, δ-site PGKp-PGKt-natMX δ-site</i>	McBride et al. 2005
pMUSD1	<i>bla URA3, ENO1p-cel3A-ENO1t-kanMX</i>	Davison et al. 2016
pMUSD2	<i>bla URA3, ENO1p-cel5A-ENO1t-kanMX</i>	Davison et al. 2016
pMUSD3	<i>bla URA3, ENO1p-cel7A-ENO1t-kanMX</i>	Davison et al. 2016

For yeast transformation, an electroporation method was used (Cho et al. 1999). After an expression step of 2 h in YPD medium, the transformants were plated out on YPD agar plates with the respective antibiotic (50 µg/mL cloNAT [Werner BioAgents, Jena, Germany] and 200 µg/mL G418 [Merck]). The transformed yeast strains used for enzyme assays and fermentations were cultured at 30°C and 200 rpm in YPD (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% glucose; Merck, Darmstadt) supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics. Recombinant strains were created through δ -integration with gene cassettes containing *Sf-BGLI* under control of the *S. cerevisiae* *PGK1* promoter and terminator sequences, creating the cellulolytic yeast strains listed in **Table 4.2**. High-copy plasmids pMUSD2 and pMUSD3, containing the

Tr-EGII and *Te-CBHI* genes, respectively, under the control of the *S. cerevisiae* *ENO1* promoter and terminator sequences, were transformed into *Sf-BGLI*-integrated strains to create co-expressing strains (**Table 4.2**). Different promoters and terminators were utilised in the co-expression cassettes to relieve metabolic burden (Görgens et al. 2000). The presence of the respective cellulase genes in the transformants were confirmed through colony PCR using enzyme-specific primers (**Table 4.1**) and with esculin and carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) plate assays (data not shown) (Njokweni et al. 2012).

4.3.2 Enzyme liquid assays

The enzyme activity profiles of three Ethanol Red[®] transformants were compared to best-performing Y113 and S288c transformants constructed in an earlier study (Davison et al. 2016). Yeast cells were grown in 100 mL Erlenmeyer flasks with 10 mL YPD media for 72 h at 30°C at 200 rpm. Cellulase activity assays for β -glucosidase (Cel3A) and cellobiohydrolase (Cel7A) were performed as described by Davison and co-workers (2016). All liquid enzyme activity plate assays were performed in 96-well plate formats. The β -glucosidase and cellobiohydrolase activities were monitored using *p*-nitrophenyl- β -D-glucoside (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) and the fluorescent substrate 4-methylumbelliferyl β -D-lactoside (MULac) (Sigma-Aldrich) as substrates, respectively.

Endoglucanase activity of the samples was measured using AZO-CM cellulose (Megazyme, Wicklow, Ireland) as a substrate. The substrate solution contained 1 g AZO-CM-cellulose mixed with 100 mL 50 mM sodium acetate buffer, pH 4.8. The precipitation solution contained 40 g sodium acetate trihydrate and 4 g zinc acetate in 200 mL of deionised water, which was mixed with 800 ml 96 % ethanol (v/v) as described by Megazyme. A total of 100 μ l of either diluted sample or standard was added to a 1.5-ml Eppendorf tube and pre-equilibrated to 50°C. A 100 μ l amount of substrate solution was added to the tubes and mixed well. After 10 min of incubation, the reaction was terminated by the addition of

500 µl precipitation solution. Samples were cooled for 5 min before centrifugation for 10 min, 3,300 rpm, $1,000 \times g$. Absorbance was measured at 595 nm.

Plate activity screenings were done for a qualitative evaluation of enzyme activity (data not shown). Cultures were spot-inoculated to screen for endoglucanase and β -glucosidase enzyme activity. The endoglucanase activity was monitored on 2% agar plates containing 1% (w/v) carboxymethylcellulose (Sigma-Aldrich) as the only carbohydrate source (Liu et al. 2018). Plates were incubated for 72 h at 30°C and zone formation was visualised by staining with 0.1% (w/v) Congo red (Sigma-Aldrich) for 15 min and destaining with 1 M NaCl for 30 min. The β -glucosidase activity was measured on esculin screening plates that contained 0.1% (w/v) esculin (Sigma-Aldrich) and 0.05% (w/v) ferric citrate (Sigma-Aldrich) (Njokweni et al. 2012). Plates were incubated for 72 h at 30°C after which they were observed for black zone formation.

4.3.3 Quantitative PCR

Gene copy number was quantified for the best performing transformants based on enzyme activity by comparing the cycle threshold (*Ct*) values of target and reference genes using a previously described method (Davison et al. 2016). Plasmids pMUSD1, pMUSD2 and pMUSD3 (described in **Table 4.2**), containing one copy of each cellulase gene, was used as template for the *Sf-BGL1*, *Tr-EGII* and *Te-CBHI* quantitative PCR (qPCR) standard curve analysis. The *ALG9* gene was selected to normalise the copy number of the gene of interest, as it is present as a single copy in the haploid complement of the *S. cerevisiae* genome (Teste et al. 2009). The target genes were amplified using the primer pairs Qcel3A-F/Qcel3A-R, Qcel5A-F/Qcel5A-R and Qcel7A-F/Qcel7A-R, and reference gene, *ALG9*, was amplified using primer pair ALG9-F/ALG9-R (**Table 4.1**). Cycling conditions were set up according to the manufacturer's instructions using KAPA™ HRM Fast PCR kit (Sigma-Aldrich) and the Applied Biosystems StepOne™ Real-Time PCR system was used for the melting curve and qPCR analysis.

4.3.4 Pretreatment methods

Corn residues were kindly provided by Dr. Danie la Grange (North-West University, Potchefstroom, South Africa). In brief, corn cobs and husks were milled using a Model 4 Wiley mill and sieved with a 0.5 mm screen to obtain particles ranging in size from 250 to 850 μm . The feedstock was pretreated with an alkali and autoclaving method developed by Latif and Rajoka (2001). The fiber material was treated with 2% sodium hydroxide (Merck) in a ratio of 1:5 (w/v) and autoclaved at 120°C for 15min. The pretreated corn residue was washed with water and the solids were used for fermentation and chemical composition analysis. Corn stover hydrolysates were stored at 4°C.

4.3.5 Substrate and chemical analysis

The composition of the substrates is detailed in **Table 4.3**. The carbohydrate, lignin and protein contents were determined according to the analytical procedure recommended by the National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL) (Colorado, USA). Analysis was performed in triplicate. Fermentation and hydrolysis products were determined by HPLC as previously described in Davison and co-workers (2016). The concentrations of ethanol, glucose, cellobiose, xylose, lactic acid, acetic acid and glycerol were determined by HPLC (Finnigan Survey UV–VIS Plus detector, Thermo-Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) consisting of a LC pump (Thermo-Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), autosampler (Thermo-Scientific), and Refractive Index Detector (Thermo-Scientific). The compounds were separated on a Rezex RHM Monosaccharide 7.8 \times 300 mm column (00H0132-K0, Phenomenex, Torrance, CA, USA) at 60 °C with 5 mM H₂SO₄ as mobile phase at a flow rate of 0.6 ml min⁻¹. Prior to HPLC analysis, samples were centrifuged at 4000 rpm and the supernatant was filtered through a 0.22 μm filter.

Table 4.3 Chemical composition (% w/v) of the untreated and pre-treated (PT) corn residues.

Substrate	Hemicellulose	Cellulose	Xyl ¹	AIL ²	ASL ³	Ash
Corn Husk	47±2.290	36±3.858	11±3.299	0.5±0.001	5.7±0.074	1.0±0.056
PT Husk	43±2.372	44±7.250	7±1.1450	0.4±0.002	5.0±0.020	0.5±0.024
Corn Cob	51±4.241	32±4.242	11±5.3201	1.0±0.267	4.7±0.303	2.6±0.012
PT Corn cob	45±4.776	43±2.297	5±1.8201	1.0±0.009	4.3±0.075	1.0±0.051

¹Xyl, xylose, ²AIL, acid-insoluble lignin, ³ASL, acid-soluble lignin

4.3.6 Enzymatic hydrolysis

Enzymatic hydrolysis experiments were conducted in 100 mL total volume in sealed serum bottles (with adequate headspace) at a 4% (w/v) substrate loading at 30°C with magnetic stirrers at 200 rpm. The enzyme hydrolysis medium contained corn stover, consisting of either corn cob or corn husk. Serum bottles with substrate were pre-incubated at 30°C for 20 min before the addition of the supernatant from cellulolytic yeast transformants or the control enzyme (equal enzyme units for each enzyme type). The enzyme activity ratio was reported as the ratio of extracellular enzyme activity levels (U) per dry cell weight (DCW) for each enzyme type. Strains were cultured for 72 h at 30°C and 200rpm with magnetic stirrers in YPD media supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics. The supernatant of each sample was collected by first centrifuging, then filtering samples using 0.45 µm filters (Millipore, Sigma-Aldrich). Three different enzyme applications were examined using the single and co-expression strains producing the following enzymes: i) only Cel3A (BGLI); ii) Cel3A (BGLI) co-expressed with Cel5A (EGII); or iii) Cel3A (BGLI) co-expressed with Cel7A (CBHI). A control enzyme contained equal enzyme activities (in U/g DCW) of all three enzymes (1:1:1).

4.3.7 Fermentation of the pretreated corn

The yeast seed culture for the fermentation inoculum was prepared by culturing cells for 72 h under aerobic conditions in 50 mL YPD supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics in 200 mL flasks at 30°C and 200 rpm. Fermentation analysis was performed under oxygen-limited conditions. The fermentation medium contained pretreated corn stover, consisting of either corn cob or corn husk. The fermentations were conducted with a final volume of 50 mL

in 100 mL sealed serum bottles at 2% (w/v) substrate loading at pH 7.0 and supplemented with 100 µg/mL of both streptomycin and ampicillin to suppress bacterial growth. Serum bottles with substrates were pre-incubated at 30°C for 20 min before the addition of the strain inoculums at A₆₀₀ 0.5. Fermentations were performed at 30°C on a magnetic stirrer set 200 rpm. A syringe needle was used to act as a CO₂ outlet. Aliquots of 1 mL were taken at various times points and analysed with HPLC. Control fermentations were supplemented with 5 FPU/g Cellic® CTec2 (Novozymes) and Novozyme-188 (Novozymes).

4.3.8 Data analysis

The conversion yields were reported as a percentage of the theoretical yield. The theoretical yields were calculated assuming that 1 g of cellulose in the solid fraction yields 1.11 g of glucose and that 1 g glucose would theoretically yield 0.511 g ethanol as shown in equations as (Eq.1) and (Eq.2), respectively:

$$\text{Cellulose conversion yield (\%)} = \frac{\text{glucose (g)}}{1.111 \times \text{cellulose in substrate (g)}} \times 100\% \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

$$\text{Ethanol conversion yield (\%)} = \frac{\text{ethanol (g)}}{0.511 \times \text{cellulose in substrate (g)} \times 1.111} \times 100\% \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

The method for quantifying the yield was performed according to García-Aparicio and co-workers (2007). A correction factor of 0.9 was used to compensate for the addition of a water molecule during hydrolysis according to the following equation as Equation 3 (Eq.3):

$$\text{Glucose yield (\%)} = \frac{\text{glucose (g)} \times 0.9}{\text{cellulose} + \text{hemicellulose (polysaccharide)} \text{ in substrate (g)}} \times 100\% \quad \text{Eq. 3.}$$

The data sets for enzyme and fermentation activities were tested for statistical significance using ANOVA and Student's T test. Only *p* values <0.05 were deemed significant.

4.4 Results and Discussion

4.4.1 Comparison of the expression of individual and multiple recombinant cellulases in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strains

Despite a number of reports on cellulolytic *S. cerevisiae* development (reviewed by Den Haan and co-workers [2015]), studies on the heterologous expression of cellulases and cellulosic ethanol fermentations in native yeast isolates are limited. It is well known that the phenotypic expression of desirable traits is impacted by the genetic background and a range of recombinant cellulase secretory capacities in natural and industrial *S. cerevisiae* strains has been demonstrated (De Baetselier et al. 1991; Davison et al. 2016, 2019; Gurgu et al. 2011). In this study, yeast strains with diverse genetic backgrounds, namely the industrial strain Ethanol Red[®], laboratory strain S288c and natural strain YI13 were engineered to produce core cellulases, namely BGLI (Cel3A), EGII (Cel5A) and CBHI (Cel7A). The recombinant strains, expressing different combinations of the *Sf-BGLI*, *Tr-EGII* and *Te-CBHI* genes under different promoter and terminators, were used to compare the variation in enzyme secretion phenotypes between transformants, as well as to obtain as near complete hydrolysis of a lignocellulosic substrate as possible.

The heterologous enzyme activities of three transformants per strain with different yeast genetic backgrounds were evaluated, individually expressing the *Sf-BGLI*, *Tr-EGII* or *Te-CBHI* genes in different expression configurations by using a combination of high-copy number plasmids and integration cassettes (**Table 4.2**) (**Figure 4.1**). A range of secreted enzyme activity was observed for the cellulolytic yeast transformants. As expected, all the *Sf-BGLI* transformants displayed low activity, ranging from 7.23 to 16.0 U/g DCW (**Figure 4.1a**). However, it is important to highlight that no significant differences (p value > 0.05) in extracellular activity levels of *Sf-BGLI* were observed between the different genetic backgrounds, aligned with previous findings regarding the difficulty to secrete this particular enzyme (Gurgu et al. 2011; McBride et al. 2005). The YI13[Cel7A] continued to demonstrate

significantly higher secreted activity for *Te*-CBHI (**Figure 4.1c**) (p value<0.05) compared to the Ethanol Red[®] transformants. In contrast, the three Ethanol Red[®] transformants from the strain demonstrated low *Te*-CBHI activity (2.33 to 7.32 U/mg DCW) after 72 h (**Figure 4.1c**). Although the YI13[*Cel5A*] strains also demonstrated higher *Tr*-EGII extracellular activity (3.87 U/mg DCW) than the Ethanol Red[®] transformants (2.66 to 3.32 U/mg DCW), the difference was less than observed for the *Te*-CBHI secreted activity.

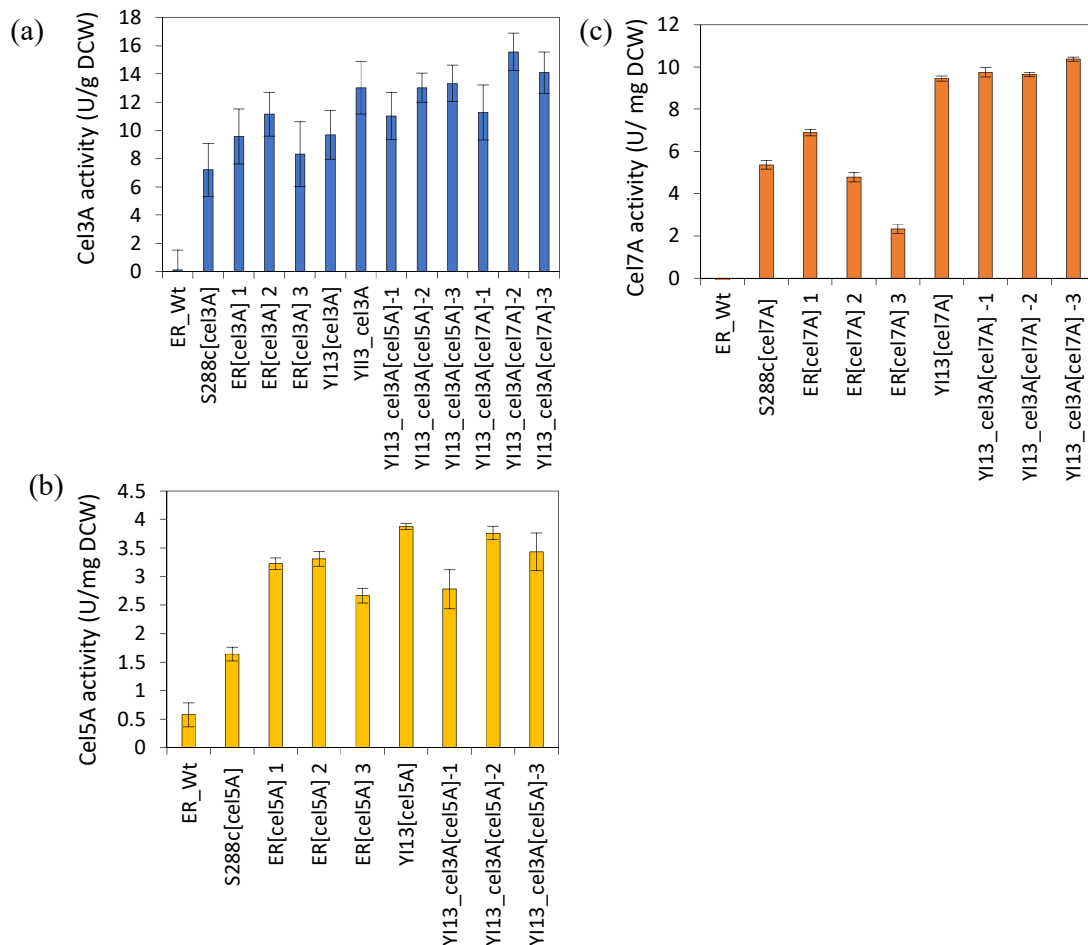


Figure 4.1 Extracellular enzyme activity yeast transformations in different genetic backgrounds, namely Ethanol Red[®], YI13 and S288c expressing individual cellulases. Three clonal variants were examined from each transformation performed in this study. (a) β -Glucosidase (*Cel3A*) activity of single-copy integrated *Sf-BGL* transformants. (b) Endoglucanase (*Cel5A*) and (c) cellobiohydrolase (*Cel7A*) activity of *Tr*-EGII and *Te*-CBHI high-copy expressing transformants, respectively. Data presented as means and standard deviations of biological triplicates.

The YI13 strain not only displayed a good secretory phenotype as shown in **Figure 4.1c** and previous studies (Davison et al. 2016, 2019), but also exhibited marked tolerance to various environmental stressors (Davison et al. 2016). As a result, a base strain of YI13 with a single copy δ -integrated *Sf-BGLI* gene cassette (called strain YI13_cel3A) was utilised to build a more efficient cellulolytic, fermentative host strains. For this purpose, YI13_cel3A was co-transformed with either pMUSD2 or pMUSD3, expressing either *Tr-EGII* or *Te-CBHI* genes from episomal plasmids, respectively. Enzyme activity measurements presented in **Figure 4.1a** showed that there was no significant difference in the *Sf-BGLI* secreted enzyme activity levels between the single gene expressing strain YI13_cel3A and the best performing co-expression transformants namely YI13_cel3A[cel5A]-3 and YI13_cel3A[cel7A]-3. Similarly, the three transformant strains YI13_cel3A[cel7A] demonstrated no significant difference in extracellular CBHI activity compared to the control YI13 strain expressing the high copy plasmid with *Te-CBHI* (namely YI13[cel7A]) (**Figure 4.1c**).

The best performing transformant in terms of EGII activity, namely YI13_cel3A[cel5A]-2 demonstrated no significant difference in EGII activity levels compared to the control YI13[cel5A] (**Figure 4.1b**). Furthermore, no significant variation in secreted *Te-CBHI* and *Tr-EGII* activity levels was observed between the three YI13 transformants co-expressing cellulase genes *Sf-BGLI* and *Te-CBHI*, or between transformants expressing the genes *Sf-BGLI* and *Tr-EGII*, respectively. Therefore, it is speculated that the adverse effects of additional cellulase gene expression was negligible on extracellular enzyme activity levels. This is contrasted with previous research that indicated that extracellular endoglucanase activities were generally lower when co-expressed with an integrated *Sf-BGLI* in a haploid laboratory yeast strain (Du Plessis et al. 2010). However, clonal variation in terms of plasmid copy number differences may account for the range of enzyme activities observed between transformants.

Quantitative PCR revealed differences in plasmid copy number between the different genetic backgrounds (**Figure 4.2**). Only one copy of *Sf-BGLI* was integrated into the genome of YI13 and ER12, with minimal fold difference being observed in plasmid copy number between the single and co-expression configurations in a YI13 background (no more than 1.18-fold) (**Figure 4.2**). In contrast, a difference of 5 to 8 copies for the *Tr-EGII* gene and 9 and 12 copies for the *Te-CBHI* gene between the ER and YI13 strains was significant (**Figure 4.2**) and could account for the observed higher activities in the latter strain (**Figure 4.1**).

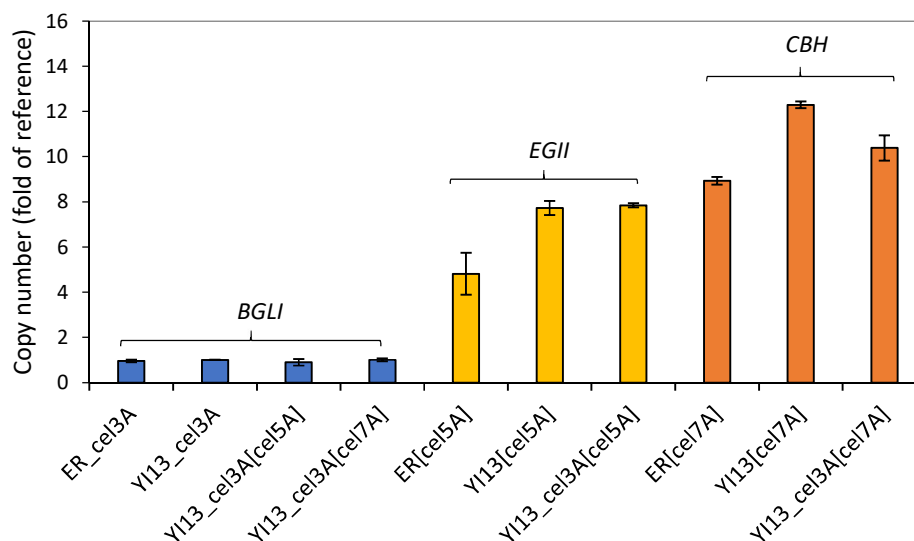


Figure 4.2 Copy number determination of cellulase genes in the cellulolytic yeast strains as determined by quantitative PCR. Data presented as means and standard deviations of biological triplicates.

Previously, it was demonstrated that the YI13 strain could tolerate high levels of tunicamycin (Davison et al. 2016, 2019), a chemical stressor known to elicit endoplasmic reticulum stress and activate the conserved unfolded protein response pathway, which is intimately linked to the secretion pathway (Davison et al. 2019; Mattanovich et al. 2004). Therefore, the innate high endoplasmic reticulum stress tolerance demonstrated by the natural strain isolate YI13 compared to industrial and laboratory strains (Davison et al. 2016, 2019), potentially allowed this strain to maintain higher plasmid copy numbers under cellulase co-expression compared to the industrial strain Ethanol Red® (**Figure 4.2**). This is supported by the results shown here,

where higher plasmid copy numbers were observed in the YI13 strain. This study hypothesised that the YI13 strain is better adapted to secretion stress and therefore does not need to downregulate plasmid copy number as seen in previous cellulase expression studies (Van Rensburg et al. 2012; Ilmén et al. 2011), therefore resulting in higher secreted enzyme activity. A study by Ilmén and co-workers (2011) evaluated the burden of maintaining a multicopy gene plasmid and reported that *T. emersonii* CBHI, the same enzyme used in this study, displayed an increased in intracellular protein production which correlated to an increase in secretion stress, suggesting a correlation between stress burden and plasmid number.

4.4.2 Enzymatic hydrolysis of corn residues by cellulolytic yeast strains

Agricultural waste such as corn residues could provide a cheap and sustainable alternative substrate for the production of bioethanol and value-added products (Saini et al. 2015). However, the recalcitrance and heterogeneity of lignocellulosic feedstocks are key challenges in their enzymatic hydrolysis and fermentation (Lei et al. 2014). However, several pretreatment methods for corn residues, including the combination of dilute alkaline treatment and milling used in this study, have been reported to increase the amount of amorphous cellulose created from crystalline cellulose in the substrate, thus lowering overall substrate recalcitrance (Karimi and Zamani 2013; Sharma et al. 2017). Therefore, the applicability of cellulolytic yeast strains to converting pretreated corn residues to ethanol was studied through the hydrolysis of two different corn residues with a high cellulose content, namely pretreated corn cob and corn husk (42.6% and 44.5% cellulose [w/w]) respectively (**Table 4.3**). It is speculated that factors relating to the type of raw material and solid content affect the enzyme activity and hydrolysis during the fermentation period. For example, the higher lignin content observed in corn husk (**Table 4.3**) could contribute to a higher loss of enzyme activity due to the irreversible binding of cellulases to lignin (Yarbrough et al. 2015).

In this study, the effective enzymatic saccharification of alkali-treated corn cob and corn husk without supplementation with commercial cellulase cocktails by a natural *S. cerevisiae* isolate engineered with different cellulase expression configurations, was demonstrated for the first time. From **Figure 4.3a** and **Figure 4.3b**, it is observed that the amount of sugars released from both residues by the enzymes in the supernatants of transformants increased over time (24 h to 168 h). In the saccharification of corn cob residue, the enzyme activities from the co-expression of *Sf-BGLI* and *Tr-EGII* demonstrated higher glucose concentrations and yields (10.8 g/L, equivalent to 56.5% cellulose conversion) compared to the expression of *Sf-BGL* and *Te-CBHI* (7.08 g/L, equivalent to 37.1% conversion) and was significantly higher than the 1:1:1 cellulase ratio activity levels (8.03 g/L, equivalent to 42.0% cellulose conversion) after 168 h incubation (**Table 4.4**). These results demonstrate that multicopy expression of both *Te-CBHI* and *Tr-EGII* genes resulted in plasmid copy numbers of ten and eight respectively, in a *S. cerevisiae* host containing one δ -integrated *Sf-BGLI* gene cassette, could efficiently promote saccharification of different corn residue substrates.

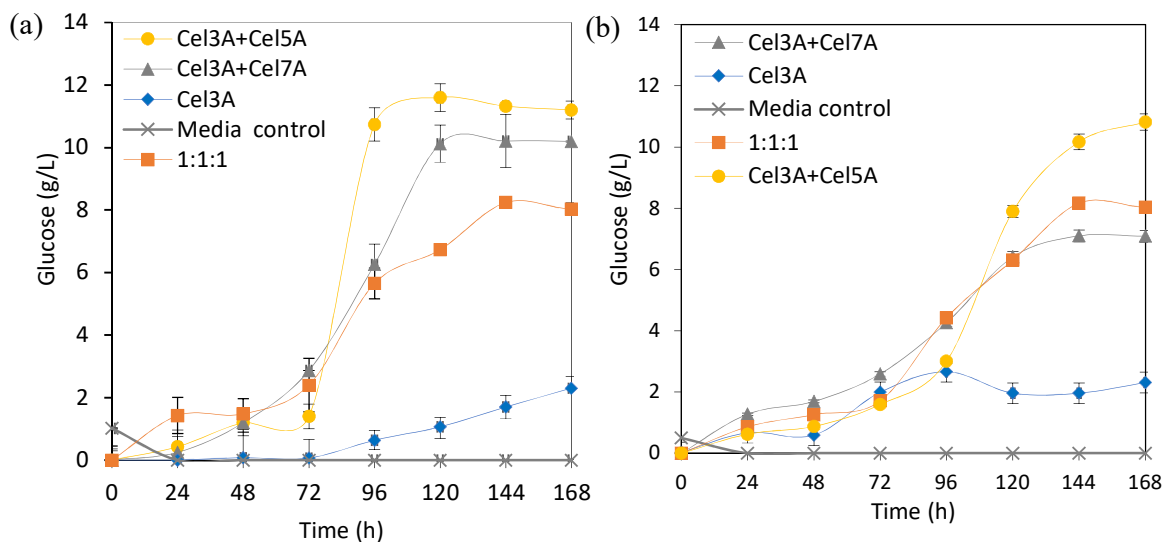


Figure 4.3 Time-course hydrolysis assay of (a) corn husk and (b) corn cob using supernatant of cellulolytic Y113 yeast strains and a control made by mixing the supernatants of strains producing one cellulase (BGL, EG or CBH), resulting in an equal enzyme activity ratio of 1:1:1 based on U/mg DCW. Glucose concentrations after 168 h from 4% alkaline pre-treated corn residues are presented. Data presented are means and standard deviations of biological triplicates.

While many reports have suggested that amorphous cellulose such as β -glucan or PASC can be degraded into glucose by BGL and EG activity in the absence of CBHI (Fujita et al. 2004; Den Haan et al. 2007), our study suggests that the optimum recombinant expression ratio of cellulases required may also be dependent on the fraction of solids loadings of the corn residue used. For efficient degradation of crystalline cellulose such as Avicel, CBH activity is considered paramount, while for degradation of amorphous cellulose such as PASC, the activity of EG is considered more important (Kostylev and Wilson 2012). This has implications on all the different lignocellulose sources and different pretreatment methodologies applied. However, both substrates in this study demonstrated that co-expression with the *Te-EGII* and *Sf-BGLI* genes from a single strain produced higher glucose yields and thus higher cellulose conversion yields, potentially due to large amorphous regions contained within the cellulose component that allow the endoglucanase to have such a large impact.

The transformants that co-expressed the genes *Te-EGII* with *Sf-BGLI*, which produced an enzyme activity ratio (U/g DCW) of 15:1, demonstrated higher hydrolysis yields on both substrates compared to the transformants co-expressing the *Te-CBHI* and *Sf-BGLI* genes, as well as the control enzymes (**Table 4.4**). This aligned with previous observations where lower ratios of β -glucosidase to the total cellulase activity generated higher glucose yields from cellulosic substrates (Feng et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2013), and that the specific enzyme activities of cellulases can have different hydrolysis effects on pretreated corn stover (Pribowo et al. 2012). These results also align with a study by Yamada and co-workers (2010), whereby the best performing strain (based on degradation activity of PASC) contained the *BGLI*, *EGII* and *CBHI* genes in the copy numbers 1:8:2 and outperformed the conventional control strain that contained one copy of each gene.

Table 4.4 The product yields of substrate-enzyme hydrolysis assays on 4% corn residues after 168 h using supernatants of cellulolytic YI13 yeast strains and a control with a 1:1:1 ratio of enzyme activity on a U/g DCW basis. Data are presented as means and standard deviations of biological triplicates.

Substrate	Glucose (g/L)	Acetic acid (g/L)	Glucose yield (%)	Cellulose conversion (%)
<i>Corn cob</i>				
[cel3A]	2.31±0.598	Not detected	5.88±0.301	12.0±0.498
cel7A+cel3A	7.08±0.728	0.780±0.336	25.8±1.19	37.1±0.238
cel5A+cel3A	10.8±0.356	2.50±0.897	27.6±1.98	56.5±0.298
1:1:1	8.03±0.256	0.201±0.279	20.5±2.59	42.0±0.138
<i>Corn husk</i>				
[cel3A]	1.89±0.269	Not detected	4.88±3.870	9.69±0.289
cel7A+cel3A	10.2±0.598	0.521±0.087	26.4±1.28	52.2±0.398
cel5A+cel3A	11.5±0.953	1.62±0.199	29.7±2.89	58.8±0.897
1:1:1	8.64±0.295	1.50±0.308	22.3±3.98	44.2±0.597

4.4.3 Fermentation of corn residues

Fermentations were performed on both corn residues substrates using the wildtype strain with added commercial enzyme, Cellic[®] CTec2 (Novozymes), and partially cellulolytic strains YI13_cel3A, YI13_cel3A[cel5A] and YI13_cel3A[cel7A] in order to investigate the effect of different combinations of cellulases and the effect of different corn residues substrates (**Table 4.5**). High ethanol yields were achieved by control fermentations with wildtype YI13 supplemented with 5 FPU/g Cellic[®] CTec2 (Novozymes), which resulted in 5.12 g/L ethanol from the corn husk fermentation and 4.53 g/L ethanol from corn cob fermentation after 168h

Table 4.5 Fermentation product yields of wild type YI13 supplemented with Cellic[®] CTec2 (Novozymes) and the cellulolytic YI13 yeast strains after 168 h on 2% corn residue substrates. Data presented as means and standard deviations of biological triplicates.

Components	Enzyme activity levels (U/mg DCW)			Glucose (g/L)	Ethanol (g/L)	Ethanol conversion (%)
	cel3A	cel5A	cel7A			
<i>Corn husk</i>						
YI13+ Cellic [®] CTec2		5 ¹		0.21±0.187	5.12±0.063	99.5±5.82
YI13_cel3A[cel7A]	0.28±0.0	ND ²	9.37±1.01	1.20±0.007	3.38±0.022	66.9±4.48
YI13_cel3A[cel5A]	0.25±0.0	3.76±0.32	ND ²	1.99±0.029	3.00±0.150	59.5±1.70
YI13_cel3A	0.27±0.0	ND ²	ND ²	0.08±0.026	0.50±0.072	9.90±9.66
<i>Corn cob</i>						
YI13+ Cellic [®] CTec2		5 ¹		0.19±0.034	4.53±0.182	93.5±3.49
YI13_cel3A[cel7A]	0.28±0.0	ND ²	9.37±1.01	2.10±0.006	3.26±0.066	67.4±14.1
YI13_cel3A[cel5A]	0.25±0.0	3.76±0.32	ND ²	1.10±0.017	4.05±0.139	83.7±2.12
YI13_cel3A	0.27±0.0	ND ²	ND ²	1.12±0.033	0.88±0.095	18.2±7.16
YI13wt	ND ²	ND ²	ND ²	0.058±0.029	5.746±0.387	n/a ³
YI13_cel3A[cel7A]	0.28±0.0	ND ²	9.37±1.01	0.041±0.016	5.103±0.525	n/a ³
YI13_cel3A[cel5A]	0.25±0.0	3.76±0.32	ND ²	0.011±0.012	4.878±0.332	n/a ³

¹FPU/g CTec2, ², not detected, ³, not applicable

As expected for the single *Sf-BGLI* expression strain YI13-cel3A, minimal ethanol production of less than 18.2% ethanol conversion yields was observed on both substrates after 168 h. During corn cob fermentations, YI13_cel3A[cel5A] outcompeted the other cellulase-producing strains by yielding significantly higher ethanol levels (4.05 g/L) and conversion yield (83.7%) after 168 h, with only a small difference in ethanol yield compared to the control fermentation of YI13 supplemented with Cellic[®] CTec2 (Novozymes), which reached conversion yields of 93.5% (**Figure 4.4** and **Table 4.5**). Furthermore, the results of the fermentation of corn cob residues (**Figure 4.4b**) corresponded to the enzymatic hydrolysis results in **Figure 4.3b**.

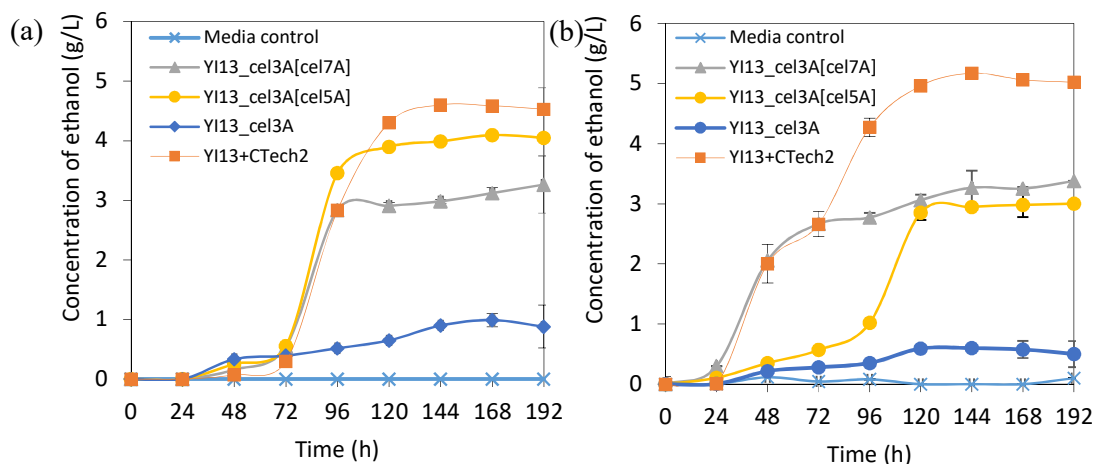


Figure 4.4 Fermentation performance of the Y113 cellulolytic yeast strains on different corn residue substrates. Time course of ethanol concentrations from fermentation of 2% (a) corn cob and (b) corn husk by cellulolytic yeast strains. Data presented as means and standard deviations of biological triplicates.

To date, few cellulolytic yeast strains have been shown to significantly degrade a ‘real world’ cellulosic substrate to ethanol without the additional of exogenous enzymes (Fujita et al. 2004; Den Haan et al. 2007; Khramtsov et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2017). While Lee and co-workers (2017) demonstrated high ethanol conversion yields of ~71% from 3% (w/v) rice straw using a mixed culture of four strains individually expressing essential cellulases, this was with supplementation with the commercial cocktail mix of 10 FPU Cellic® CTec2 mix/g glucan. In contrast, Khramtsov and co-workers (2011) demonstrated lower ethanol conversion yields of ~36.15% (albeit at a higher substrate loading of 10% w/v) of the cellulose fraction of corn residues by utilising *S. cerevisiae* with delta-integrated *T. reesei EG*, *Aspergillus aculeatus BGLI* and *T. reesei CBH*, without supplementation. It is important to note that at higher substrate loadings (10%), similar high substrate conversion levels were not obtained by the cellulolytic transformants in this study (data not shown). Inefficient mixing and inactivation of enzymes at higher substrate loadings may play a pivotal role in this, highlighting the challenges that still exist in developing recombinant host strains with optimal cellulase secretion capacity, to effectively hydrolyse cellulosic biomass at higher loadings. Here, this study reported a range

of ethanol conversion yields, between 59.5% and 83.7%, from 2% (w/v) corn husk and corn cob (**Table 4.5**) by simultaneously utilising high and low gene copy expression methods in a secretion stress-tolerant strain that resulted in higher hydrolysis and fermentation performance on corn residues.

4.5 Conclusion

In this study, the choice of strain background was identified to be among the most important considerations when developing CBP yeasts and the natural strain YI13 demonstrated higher heterologous cellulase secretion compared to industrial and laboratory counterparts. The recombinant YI13 cellulolytic strains successfully hydrolysed and fermented alkali-pretreated corn cob and corn husk, without the addition of exogenous enzymes, potentially due to improved ratio of enzymes secreted by the constructed cellulolytic yeast strains. This study presents a novel comparison of various cellulolytic strain configurations in different yeast backgrounds, as well as comparisons of subsequent hydrolysis efficiency and fermentation yields on different corn residues. Although the current strains can be used to partially displace commercial cellulase in substrate conversions, understanding the genetic background and genetic determinants involved in good secretion phenotypes complemented with good tolerance capabilities, will be required for engineering improved industrial strains for biomass degradation in future. Furthermore, future studies expressing all three enzymes would be of great interest.

4.6 References

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CHAPTER 5

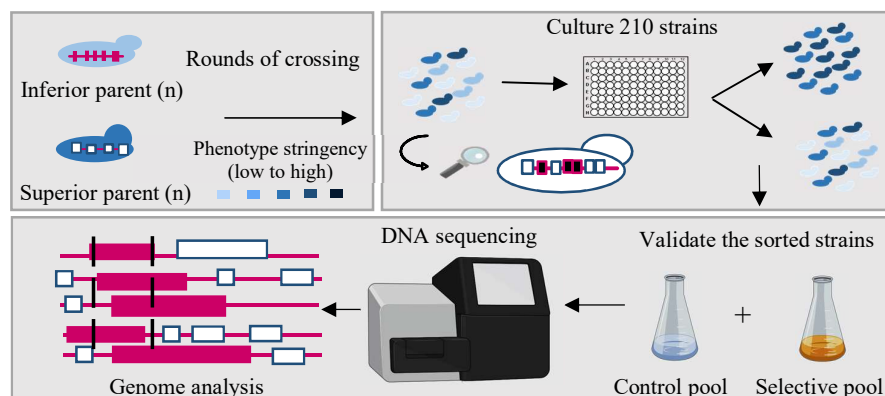
GENOME ARCHITECTURE OF ENHANCED HETEROLOGOUS CELLULASE SECRETION IN A NATURAL *SACCHAROMYCES CEREVISIAE* STRAIN

*This chapter is in preparation for submission to FEMS Yeast.

5.1 Abstract

Industrially important traits such as ethanol tolerance, nitrogen uptake, glycerol production, volatile metabolite production, tolerance to lignocellulosic inhibitors and heterologous protein secretion, are usually complex traits defined by multiple quantitative trait loci (QTL). Mapping chromosomal regions harboring genetic polymorphisms that regulate complex traits, such as recombinant protein secretion in this study, is usually followed by a search for causative genetic elements underlying the observed effects. Here, several QTLs were mapped in an F1-intercross between a natural strain and an industrial strain. The QTL regions where the largest genetic divergence between the extreme trait pools (namely superior and inferior) and control pool were analysed. Such regions were identified by comparing single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) frequencies of the pools using individual SNPs from genome re-sequencing of DNA pools. Based on a number of criteria, including SNP frequency difference between pools, gene information relevant to protein secretion and predicted functional annotations of identified candidate genes, a subset of candidate genes of highest priority were recommended for further evaluation in functional cellulase secretion studies.

Graphical abstract



5.2 Introduction

A majority of yeast genetic studies view genetic variability between yeast strains as a problem, which is minimised by using isogenic strains (Nogami et al. 2007). In contrast, natural *S. cerevisiae* isolates have previously proven to be a powerful tool for investigating the genotype-phenotype relationship via linkage mapping (Gerke et al. 2006; Salinas et al. 2012). Several studies have dissected the relationship between genetic variants and phenotypes by exploiting divergent backgrounds to identify regulators of specific phenotypes, including fermentative industry traits such as tolerance to bioethanol-specific stresses (Mukherjee et al. 2014) and oenological traits (Salinas et al. 2012). This is especially true in the search for desirable characteristics for industry, more specifically bioethanol production, in natural isolates (Fournier and Schacherer 2017). The Agricultural Research Council (ARC, Stellenbosch, South Africa) of South Africa maintains a large number of *S. cerevisiae* isolates from a variety of natural and industrial environments. From this ARC collection, the diploid YI13 isolate was identified to be a good secretor of *Talaromyces emersonii* CBHI (*Te*-CBHI) and was extensively used in this thesis and other research projects (**Chapter 3**, Jansen et al. 2018).

Heterologous protein secretion is a desired trait among many industries, with glycosylated enzymes in particular of substantial interest to industrial processes otherwise limited by cellulose catabolic processes (Lynd et al. 2005). Despite the advantages of recombinant protein production in *S. cerevisiae*, its main limitations include endoplasmic reticulum (ER) misfolding, hyperglycosylation and inefficient trafficking, leading to lower secretion titers than other ascomycetous yeasts (Mattanovich et al. 2004). During heterologous protein secretion, internal stress is induced by the accumulation of misfolded proteins in the ER, which triggers the activation of adaptive mechanisms that restore protein homeostasis (Schröder and Kaufman 2005). One mechanism that eukaryotic cells use to respond to stress is the activation of the

unfolded protein response (UPR) signaling pathway, which initiates increased expression of chaperone proteins and oxidative folding components, as well as the pathway for degradation of misfolded proteins. In order to ultimately lower ER stress, a wide range of studies have engineered the host strain through overexpression of core genes in the secretory pathway that have been linked to improved protein secretion (Idiris et al. 2010; Kroukamp et al. 2017, 2018; Liu et al. 2013, Gasser et al. 2007a; Kvittek et al. 2008; Ho and Gasch, 2015). However, other core responses in natural isolates may have been optimised by a myriad of environmental stresses, resulting in a high phenotypic plasticity (Kvittek et al. 2008) that may indirectly influence protein secretions.

Heterologous protein secretion has widespread effects on the metabolic fitness and growth (De Ruijter et al. 2018, Van Rensburg et al. 2012, Liu et al. 2013). For example, under secretion stress induced during heterologous protein production, metabolic activities are lowered, which in turn lead to a reduction in maximum specific growth rate (Liu et al. 2013), decreased biomass yield and lower respiratory capacity (Görgens et al. 2001), as well as significant changes in the metabolism of amino acid and redox balance (De Ruijter et al. 2018). Additionally, in an industrial context, environmental pressures on *S. cerevisiae* can impose a stress response, which may directly or indirectly influence protein secretion efficiency. Fluctuations in pH (O'Donnell et al. 2001), osmolarity (Kubiak et al. 2019), temperature (Hou et al. 2013), ethanol accumulation (Van de Laar et al. 2007), nutrient stress (Kauffman et al. 2002; Görgens et al. 2005), the presence of inhibitors from pretreatment and hydrolysis or fermentation can cause redox imbalances (Malhotra et al. 2008, Delic et al. 2012, Mattanovich et al. 2014, Ask et al. 2013). Individually or in combination, these parameters impact core processes in the protein secretion pathway, resulting in even lower protein yields. Recently, Lamour and co-workers (2019) demonstrated that the overexpression of stress-tolerance genes *YHB1* or *SET5* enhanced the strain's tolerance to a variety of environmental stresses and improved the production and

secretion of *Te*-CBHI, the same reporter enzyme used in this study. Therefore, it is worthwhile identifying secretion-enhancing genes in a genetically diverse, stress-tolerant yeast strain such as YI13 (described in **Chapter 3**).

Previous research utilised screening techniques to identify genes that increase secretion of specific heterologous proteins i.e. T-cell receptors, Fab fragment and α -amylase in yeast (Gasser et al. 2007b; Wentz and Shusta 2007; Huang et al. 2015). Successful approaches include mutagenesis and selection to increase protein production and secretion (Huang et al. 2015). However, identification of the actual genetic alterations leading to an increase in protein secretion levels is challenging, even with the use of next generation sequencing (NGS). Traits of industrial value such as ethanol tolerance (Swinnen et al. 2012), nitrogen uptake (Cubillos et al. 2017), glycerol production (Hubmann et al. 2013), volatile metabolite production (Eder et al. 2018), tolerance to lignocellulosic inhibitors (De Witt et al. 2019) and heterologous protein secretion (Kroukamp 2015) are usually complex traits defined by multiple quantitative trait loci (QTL). Moreover, high-throughput genotyping and phenotyping technologies have greatly enhanced the power to dissect the genetic complexity obscured by traits in model and non-model organisms (Baxter et al. 2011). Such mechanisms can be elucidated by QTL analysis, which is particularly suited to the investigation of complex traits.

In order to identify causative loci and QTL–QTL interactions, high-throughput methodologies, such as intercrossed yeast lineages to generate large numbers of segregants or pools of F1- segregants, have been developed (Ehrenreich et al. 2010a; Cubillos et al. 2013; Pais et al. 2014; Wilkening et al. 2014, De Witt et al. 2019). These methodologies aid the development of a statistical link between phenotype and genetic markers of segregant strains. While a number of natural yeasts have been utilised to determine the genetic elements linked to promising industrial characteristics, i.e. QTL analysis (Swinnen et al. 2012), few studies have utilised this approach to dissect the genetic complexity of enhanced heterologous protein

secretion in naturally diverse *S. cerevisiae* strains. This study aimed to identify and understand the genetic determinants linked to heterologous *Te*-CBHI secretion in the natural *S. cerevisiae* YI13-C2 (derivative of YI13). Firstly, pooled segregant whole genome sequencing (PSWGS) was performed to identify QTL regions potentially linked to the trait. Secondly, variants with coding regions and prioritised non-synonymous amino acid substitutions were mapped, which could have a radical effect on the structure and/or function of the protein (Ehrenreich et al. 2009; Liti and Louis 2012). Thirdly, the potential functional impact of the genes located within the target regions were bioinformatically evaluated to identify a set of candidate genes to be tested and potentially evaluated in future functional analysis studies. In regions containing a large number of candidate genes (above 100), the use of combined and objective selection criteria helped to localise the most promising candidate genes with their respective genetic divergence.

5.3 Materials and Methods

5.3.1 Strain selection and construction of F1-mapping populations

All parental *S. cerevisiae* strains used in this study are listed in **Table 5.1** and previously described in **Chapter 3**. The haploid segregant YI13-C2 derived from natural diploid isolate YI13 (known as the ‘superior’ parent) was crossed with a haploid Ethanol Red[®] strain, ER12 (known as the ‘inferior’ parent), which was previously deposited into National Centre for Biotechnology Information (accession number: SRX155389). In brief, a total of 210 F1-segregants from the H7 diploid strain (crossing of YI13-C2 with ER12 described in **Chapter 3**) were screened for extracellular recombinant *Te*-CBHI activity (Davison et al. 2016). Twenty segregants that displayed high *Te*-CBHI secretion capacities were pooled (referred to as the ‘superior’ pool). For a comprehensive analysis, 20 segregants displaying low *Te*-CBHI secretion capabilities were also pooled (referred to as the ‘inferior’ pool) and analysed. A total

of 20 unselected segregants from the same cross were also pooled and sequenced as the control experiment (referred to as the ‘control’ pool).

Table 5.1 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strains used in this work.

Strain	Genotype	Source
ER12	<i>Inferior parent, segregant 7A of Ethanol Red[®], Mata</i>	Hubmann et al. 2013
Y113	<i>Natural strain, wine isolate, Mata/a</i>	Davison et al. 2016
Y113-C2	<i>Superior parent, segregant of Y113 strain isolate, Mata</i>	Davison et al. 2019
H7	<i>Hybrid from crossing ER7AxY113_C2, Mata/a</i>	Davison et al. 2019

Specific growth rates were determined by culturing strains overnight in 96-well microtiter plates in 1 mL YPD media (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone and 2% glucose [Merck, New Jersey, USA]) in xMark™ Microplate Spectrophotometer (Bio-Rad, California, USA) with settings at 30°C and medium orbital shaking speed. Strains were inoculated to equal initial densities of $A_{600}=0.01$, thereafter OD_{600} levels were taken every 30 min for a 24 h time period.

5.3.2 Flow cytometry

The workflow of ploidy determination of strains used in this study was similar to the technique described by Davison and co-workers (2016). Strains were supplemented with EDTA (Merck) to a final concentration of 2 mM to alleviate cell aggregation (or flocculation) before performing flow cytometry analysis.

5.3.3 DNA extraction, whole genome sequencing and genome analysis

The workflow for pooled segregant whole genome sequence (PSWGS) used in this study was similar to the techniques described by Swinnen and co-workers (2012) and De Witt and co-workers (2019). Twenty F1-segregants displaying enhanced *Te*-CBHI enzyme activity secretion capabilities were individually grown in YPD media and genomic DNA was extracted (Swinnen et al. 2012). DNA was pooled based on equal DNA concentrations, of which at least 3 µg were provided to Novogene Co. (Hong Kong) for whole genome fungal re-sequencing

analysis using an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 next generation sequencing technology platform. The same was done for the inferior pool and the control pool. The superior parental strain YI13-C2 was also sequenced using this platform, whereas the inferior parental ER12 strain genome was previously sequenced by Hubmann and co-workers (2013) using Illumina HiSeq 2000, and data was kindly provided by Prof. Johan Thevelein (KU Leuven, Belgium).

Raw reads produced with Illumina HiSeq 2000 and Illumina NovaSeq 6000 technology for ER12 and YI13-C2, respectively, were assembled ‘*de novo*’ using SPades (Nurk et al. 2013) and viewed in the Bandage program (Wick et al. 2015). The results derived from parental genomes’ and pooled samples’ features were summarised and plotted for global visualisation using Circos software version 0.69-4 (Jones et al. 2009). Furthermore, contigs were scaffolded to produce psuedochromosomes using the S288c genome as a reference (sacCer3, released April 2013 from *Saccharomyces* Genome Database) and visualised in the Bandage program (data not shown). Thereafter, plasmid copy numbers were determined according to plasmidSPades, using the SPades program (Nurk et al. 2013).

5.3.4 SNP detection and genetic divergence analysis

The sequence reads were aligned to the *S. cerevisiae* S288c reference genome, allowing the genotyping of the SNP as well as short insertions/deletions (indels). Using custom scripts previously described by De Witt and co-workers (2019), the SNPs per individual chromosomes were determined and the pooled samples were matched against the parental SNPs, to determine the SNP frequency. In short, reads were quality filtered and trimmed followed by mapping to the S288c reference genome using Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (Li and Durbin 2010). Duplicates were removed and indels re-aligned through Genome Analysis Tool Kit (GATK) (McKenna et al. 2010) and Picard (<http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/>) using the recommended best practices approach. SNP variants were detected with Freebayes (Li and Durbin 2010) under

the parameter of haploids. The resulting variants were subsequently filtered to only select SNPs covered by 20 or more observations.

For mapping populations, repetitive sequences and copy number variation (CNV) regions that potentially originated from repetitive genome regions were excluded from the subsequent analysis. SNP markers were filtered using snpEff (Cingolani et al. 2013) and snpSift (Cingolani et al. 2013) for quality, requiring genotype called at each SNP to have a depth of coverage of at least 20 reads. The alleles belonging to each SNP marker were evaluated to determine the SNP frequency per chromosome. The QTL analysis method (De Witt et al. 2019) was applied to the re-sequenced data from the ‘superior’, ‘inferior’ and ‘control’ pools across the selected QTL regions. In most cases, the regions were selected above QTL significance (0.8). Copy number variation was estimated with R package cn.MOPS (Klambauer et al. 2012), which supports normal-pooled sample analysis (Schridder, Begun and Hahn 2012). A normalised copy number above 1.3 was considered as amplified with those with a copy number below 0.9, considered to be deleted.

5.3.5 Identification of candidate genes in QTL regions

Genes in the prioritised regions, i.e. the QTLs on Chromosomes XV, VII, X, XII, IV and II in the superior parental strain, were identified using the Ensembl database (version 67; Hunt et al. 2018). Genes were filtered to coding genes containing variants within upstream and downstream elements, stop codons, frameshifts and non-synonymous SNPs. The general functions and gene annotations for each gene were compiled using information from the Database for Annotation, Visualisation and Integrated Discovery (DAVID, Huang et al. 2009a; 2009b). DAVID integrates annotations for genes from different omics databases including, for instance, Gene Ontology (GO), KEGG and PANTHER. However, to narrow down the target regions and identify the most plausible selected genes, several independent sources were used,

including the SNP frequency difference between pools, gene information relevant to protein secretion and predicted functional annotations of identified candidate genes.

Enrichment (overrepresentation) of GO terms, preferably based on multiple QTL regions for a given trait, allows the association of the trait-of-interest with specific biological processes. Overrepresented GO terms were used to prioritise the candidate genes from the QTL gene lists that are most likely to be the underlying causal genes responsible for the variation in the trait-of-interest, as previously done by Bargsten and co-workers (2014). Gene ontology enrichment analysis was performed with DAVID (version 2.4.24) using Overrepresentation Test (release 2016/07/15) with default settings. This test uses the GO database, version 11.0 (Ashburner et al. 2011; release date July 15, 2016), which is directly imported from the GO database, version 1.2 (Carbon et al. 2019, release date 27 October 2016). Based on a reference gene list from *S. cerevisiae* and Mann-Whitney *U* tests (Fischer exact), the GO terms over- and under-represented were identified. Statistical analysis was conducted in R (R Core Team, <https://www.R-project.org/>) and figures were produced using the package ggplot2 (Wickham et al. 2009).

Thereafter, analysis of the open reading frames of allele gene variants in each selected parental strain were characterised with respect to their cellular component as well as biological process and molecular function. DAVID annotated a gene list that was filtered to identify the most likely candidate genes for a trait of interest, i.e. good protein secretion levels in this study, in each QTL region. This was done by highlighting genes that had been associated with any of the following secretion related keywords ‘secreted’, ‘protein transport’, ‘post-translational glycosylation’ and ‘cell wall organisation’. This set of terms was selected arbitrarily from ontology literature. The whole annotated gene list description was also reviewed to ensure no obvious candidates for enhanced protein secretion were omitted.

5.4 Results and Discussion

In this chapter, a number of analyses was performed, including genetic characterisation of parental strains, enzymatic screening of the secretory capacity of selected F1-segregants, copy number variation detection, SNP frequency analysis and functional annotation of candidate genes linked to the superior trait. This workflow is highlighted in **Figure 5.1**.

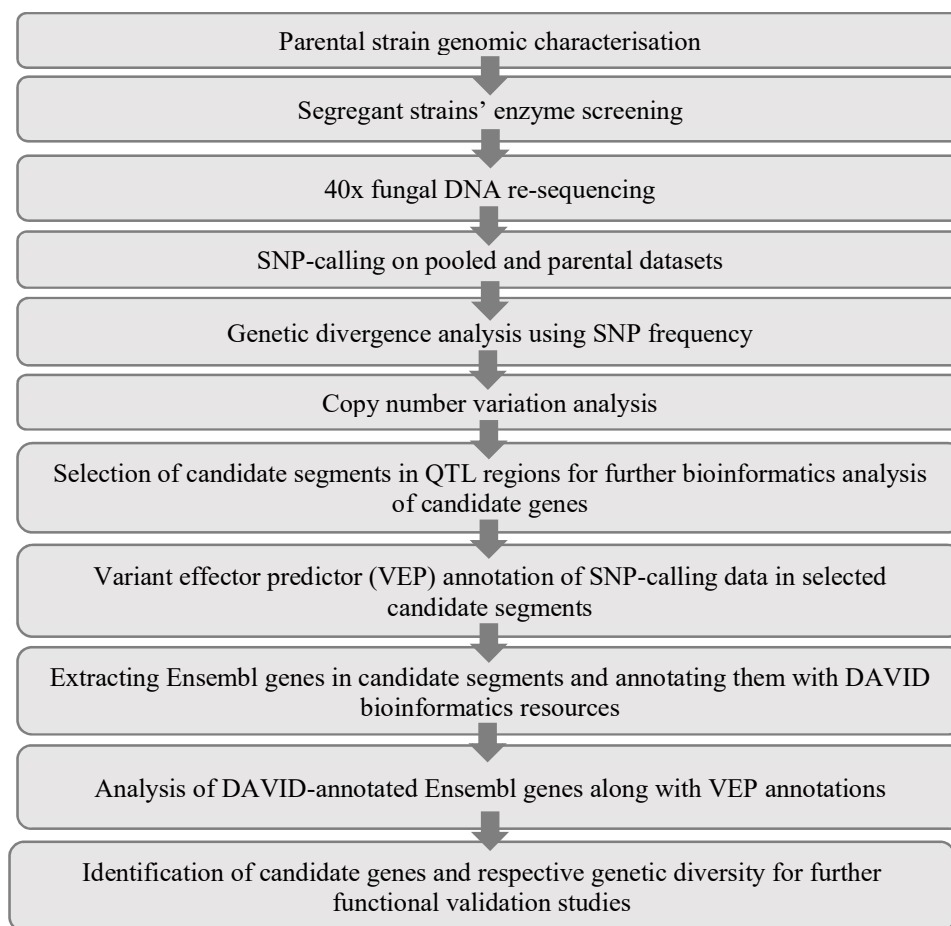


Figure 5.1 Flow diagram of the bioinformatics methods applied to identify candidate genes associated with the superior secretion phenotype of strain YI13.

5.4.1 Genetic characterisation of parental strains

In this work, the genomes of two parental strains, namely a reference industrial strain ER12 and a natural strain isolate YI13-C2 (listed in **Table 5.1**) were analysed and described previously in **Chapter 3**. Strain ER12 derived from an initial industrial lineage (originally

named ER7A, Hubmann et al. 2013) had low spore viability and low *Te*-CBHI secretion capacity (**Chapter 3**), and was previously re-sequenced by Hubmann and co-workers (2013). In addition, the genome of the segregant YI13-C2 with high spore viability and good *Te*-CBHI secretion capacity was analysed (**Chapter 3**). This haploid prototroph was selected and bred with the inferior parental strain ER12, creating a hybrid H7 diploid strain that gave rise to the core part of this genetic collection.

Genomes of these strains were of particular interest for a number of reasons. The genome sequences of both parental strains were instrumental in validating the quality of the NGS results at different platforms and sequencing depths (**Figure 5.2a**). A sequencing depth of 30x was deemed sufficient to estimate the SNP frequency differences between the strains. The genome coverage was exploited to estimate the relative sequencing depth of each chromosome (**Figure 5.2a**), and detected no CNV of the genomic regions between both parental strains, highlighting uniformity of coverage for strains ER12 and YI13-C2 (**Figure 5.2b**). These two strains were shown to be stable haploids by flow cytometry analysis (**Figure S5.1**) and could therefore serve as a control for CNV analysis. Finally, these strains had a number of phenotypes that lack a known molecular basis, including good recombinant protein secretion levels for the YI13-C2 strain (Davison et al. 2016).

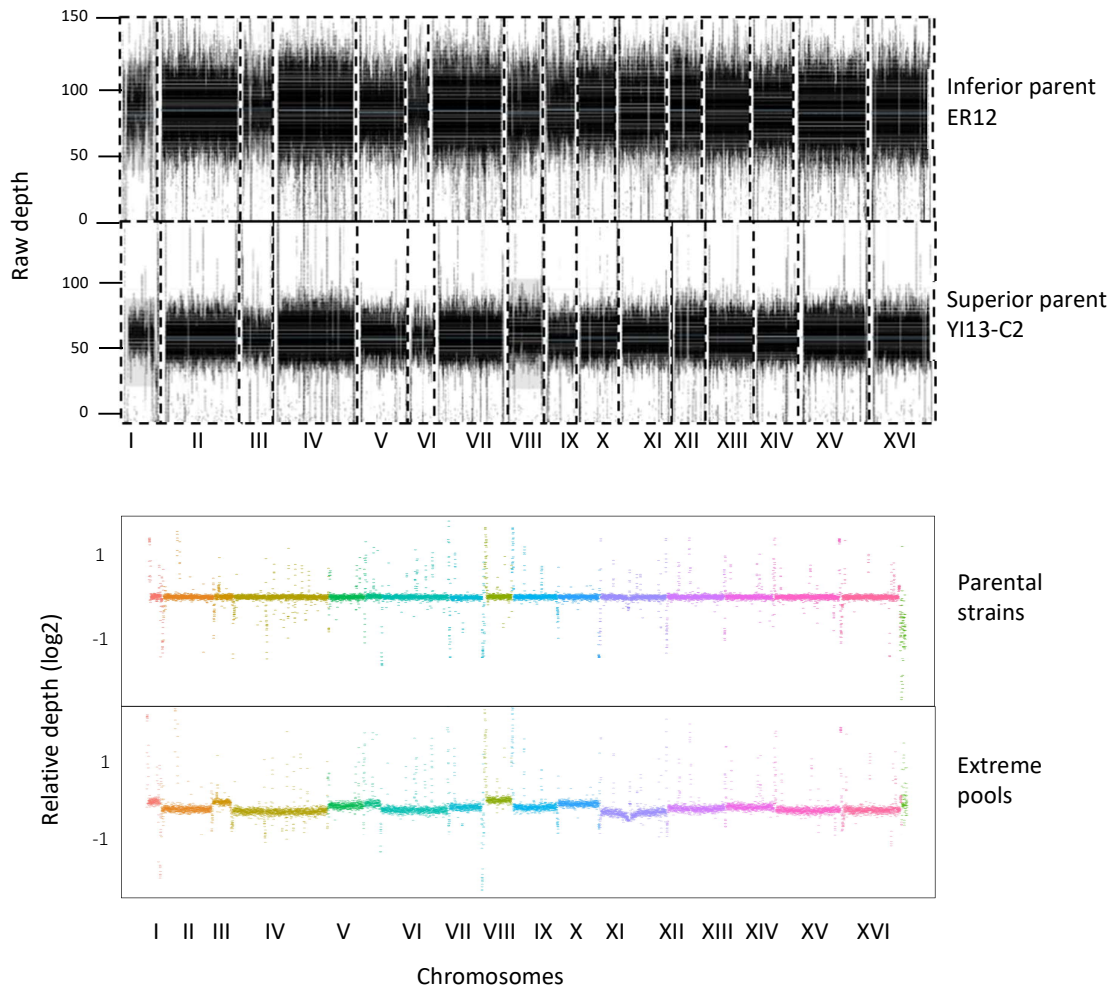


Figure 5.2. (a) Raw read sequencing coverage for the parental strains. (b) Comparing the relative depth (\log_2) of coverage for the parental strains and pooled sequences.

In order to assess the genetic difference between parental strains (YI13-C2 and ER12) and the reference laboratory strain S288c, the short reads were aligned to the S288c genome (sacCer3, released April 2013). The genomes of ER12 and YI13-C2 were genetically different from the laboratory strain S288c by 1.86% and 5.85%, respectively (**Table 5.2**).

Table 5.2 *De novo* assembly statistics.

Sample	YI13 C2	ER12	Superior pool	Inferior pool	Control pool
Number of contigs/node	1,790	2,541	24,244	8,025	3,371
Largest contig/node (bases)	200,171	131,593	305,825	147,407	280,729
Total length (bases)	11,724,284	11,469,526	23,806,426	16,365,847	18,886,146
N50 ^a	47,541	36,309	17,542	15,782	40,277
S288c genome fraction (%)	98.14	94.15	69.95	90.17	87.15
Median chromosome coverage	37.8x	49.1x	38.2x	38.9x	39.9x
Plasmid coverage	118.9x	n/a	117.5x	119.8x	120.1x
Plasmid copy number	3	n/a	3	3	3

^aN50, defined as the sequence length of the shortest contig at 50% of the total genome length.

After calling single nucleotide variations, low quality differences and differences in repeat regions were filtered out. The distribution of substitutions in the industrial strain ER12 and YI13-C2 was analysed (**Figure 5.3**). Certain classes of variants, such as insertions and deletions (indels), are expected to have dramatic consequences for gene products (Fay 2013) and therefore constitute particularly interesting candidates that could contribute to phenotypic variation. Therefore, the variants along with the SNP frequency were summarised to a distribution of polymorphic sites across the S288c chromosomes for both parental strains (**Figure 5.3**).

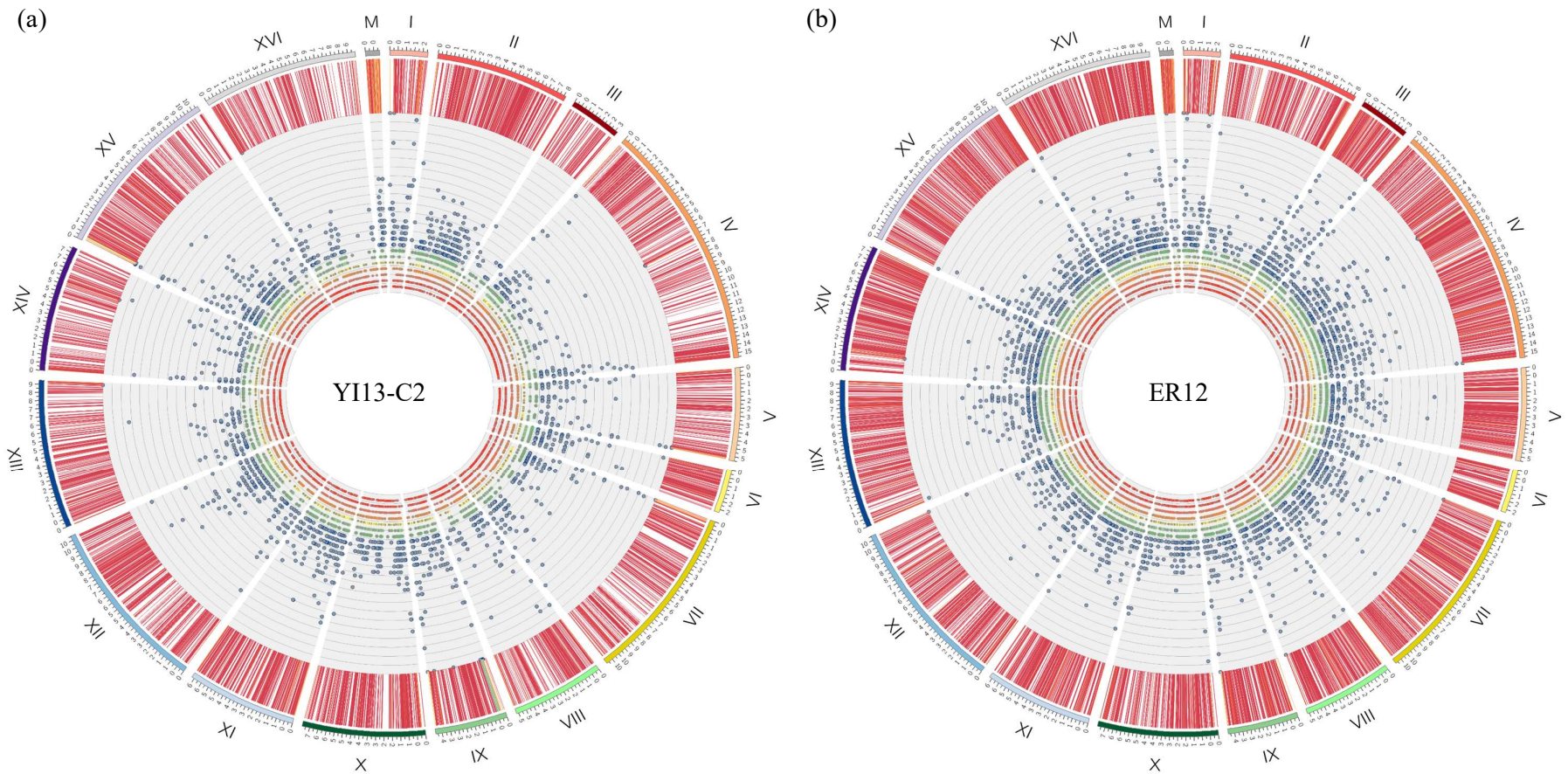


Figure 5.3 Genome-wide genetic variant frequency plots of (a) superior parent YI13-C2 and (b) inferior parent ER12 compared to S288c reference genome (sacCer3 genome, April 2011). The outer ring represents inserts and deletions (indel) frequency over that region. The inner ring represents chromosomal average SNP variant frequency over that region. The SNP variant frequency is indicated as a colour range from red (S288c) to dark blue (parental strain).

5.4.2 Enzymatic screening of the secretory capacity and copy number variations in *F1*-segregant pools

For QTL analysis, populations of segregants were generated by crossing a natural strain derivative (YI13-C2) and industrial strain (ER12) with differing *Te*-CBHI secretion capacities in order to create a hybrid generation of segregants (F1) (**Chapter 3**). This strategy allowed for an increase in the resolution by reducing the linkage between nearby QTLs (Swinnen et al. 2012). The F1-segregants (from the ER12xYI13-C2 cross) were screened for their capacity to secrete *Te*-CBHI by calculating the extracellular activity levels (i.e. enzyme activity per dry cell weight; U/mg DCW) of each segregant relative to the two parental strains (**Figure 5.4**).

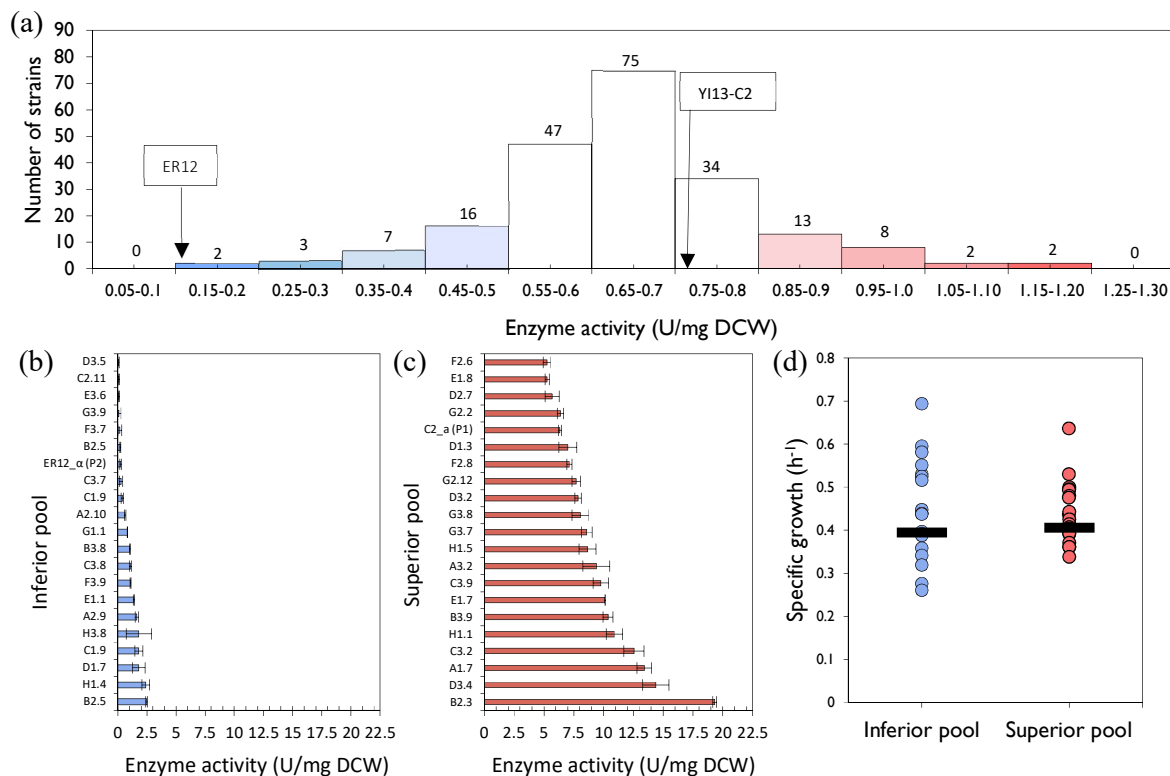


Figure 5.4 The distribution of the extracellular *Te*-CBHI activity in the (a) F1-segregants and (b-c) two extreme pools, as well as (d) growth rates (h⁻¹). (a) The distribution of the enzyme activity U/mg DCW in 210 haploid segregants from ER12/YI13-C2 mating cultivated in 1 mL YPD selective media. Pools of twenty segregants were chosen representing high, low and random enzyme activity and enzymatic levels from these strains were confirmed through further cultivation and assay at 10 mL Erlenmeyer flask cultivations described in **Chapter 3**. (b) Twenty inferior segregants with lower enzyme activity (<2.47, blue bars) were selected to assemble the inferior secretion pool. (c) Twenty superior segregants with higher enzyme activity (>19.32, red bars) were assembled in the superior secretion pool. (d) Specific growth rates between two extreme trait pools. Black bar represents the average growth rate per pool. Error bars represent standard deviations from mean.

A total of 2010 segregants were enzymatically screened for extracellular *Te*-CBHI activity after approximately 30 generations (**Figure 5.4a**). From **Figure 5.4a**, a spread of secreted enzyme activity levels ranging from 0.15 to 1.2 U/mg DCW can be observed when strains were cultivated in 1 mL deep-well plates, with a majority of the strains (i.e. 75 out of the 210 segregants) secreting enzyme activity levels in the range of 0.65-0.70 U/mg DCW. The pooled strains utilised in this study were chosen from this collection of screened F1-segregants and represent the extreme end tails of the secreted enzyme activity levels, namely the ‘inferior’ pool and ‘superior’ pool. Both pools were examined to determine if the improved secreted enzyme activity levels in the superior pool of segregants strains was due to selective pressure or an unselected stress.

During liquid cultivations in 10mL media in 100mL Erlenmeyer flasks, the inferior segregants ranged in secreted enzyme activity levels from 0.07 to 2.46 (U/mg DCW) and demonstrated at least 2.57-fold lower secreted enzyme activity levels than the YI13-C2 parental strain (**Figure 5.4b**). As expected, some of the segregants from the superior pool of segregants displayed up to 3.05-fold higher secreted enzyme activity compared to the YI13-C2 parental strain (**Figure 5.4c**). Transgression levels, that is the percentage of segregants that exceed the phenotypic range of their parents by at least a number of standard deviations, can provide insight into the genetic determinants that underlies complex traits (Liti and Louis 2012). Twenty eight percent of segregants had an improved transgressive *Te*-CBH extracellular activity levels compared to the superior parental strain YI13-C2 (**Figure 5.4c**), while just 0.95% presented a lower transgressive value than the inferior strain ER12 (**Figure 5.4b**). As discussed in **Chapter 3**, this typifies the phenotype as a quantitative, Gaussian-distributed trait with multiple alleles being responsible for superior *Te*-CBH1 secretion (Kroukamp 2015).

Additionally, a range of growth rates was detected for the populations of the superior and inferior pools of segregants (ranging from 0.25 to 0.71 h⁻¹) (**Figure 5.4d**). Previous studies

suggested a correlation between cell growth and heterologous protein secretion (Liu et al. 2013), potentially due to the impact of metabolic burden in recombinant cellulase secretion (Ilmén et al. 2011; Van Rensburg et al. 2012). It is noted that no difference in specific growth rates were observed between the inferior and superior pools (**Figure 5.4d**), therefore the enhanced secretion phenotype demonstrated in this study is clearly not related to a growth rate phenotype.

In order to rule out selection bias towards plasmid copy number, copy number differences between pools of the F1-segregants was investigated. No significant variation in sequencing coverage of the plasmid components between the superior parental strain and the pooled samples or between the various pooled samples was detected, which demonstrated a plasmid sequencing coverage of between 117.5x to 120.1x (less than 2.2% difference) (**Table 5.2**). This suggested that the plasmid copy number, defined as the ratio of plasmid coverage to median chromosome coverage, of the parental YI13-C2 strain and the strains within the F1-pooled samples were similar, i.e. approximately three plasmid copies per sample (**Table 5.2**). Since a low copy, centromeric plasmid was utilised for this purpose (listed in **Table 3.1, Chapter 3**), these results were not surprising as yeast centromeric plasmids are considered stable, low-copy number vectors that incorporate part of the ARS along with part of a centromere sequence.

A limitation of pooled sequencing methods is related to the lack of use of multiplex barcodes, which complicates CNV detection using NGS technology (Ellingford et al. 2018). However, some authors have described the use of incorporating modelling of depths of coverage across samples at each genomic position (Marelli et al. 2016). The sequencing coverage was mostly uniform for the parental strains, but not for the pooled segregants (**Figure 5.2b**). Furthermore, flow cytometry of the parental and segregant F1-populations demonstrated that a majority of the strains have a haploid content (**Figure S5.1**), with no CNVs detected between the parental strains using the cn.MOPS pipeline (data not shown). In contrast, a 75,001

bp region of Chromosome IX, containing 29 amplified genes, seemed to be duplicated in the superior pooled segregants as detected by the cn.MOPS pipeline. This could account for the significantly higher coverage displayed by this chromosome compared to the others (**Table S5.1**). This result agrees with the earlier interpreted data on chromosomes of a superior *Te*-CBHI secretor strain M0341[*Cel7A*], which indicated possible aneuploidy for the same chromosome (Kroukamp 2015). As an important process in evolution, chromosomal duplications may cause changes in function as well as alter protein interaction networks (Zheng et al. 2014). It is therefore crucial to investigate the potential functional impact of variable gene copy numbers in the superior pool of segregants by using a bioinformatics approach.

The functional categories of the 29 genes showing high CN diversity/variability were analysed by performing GO enrichment analysis. According to the GO annotation available in the *S. cerevisiae* database (DAVID, <https://david.ncifcrf.gov/>), a majority of genes in the enriched GO terms were associated with the ER membrane (GO:0005789, 20.69%) and as integral proteins of the plasma membrane (GO:0016021, 37.93%) (**Table 5.3**), with a more detailed analysis illustrated in **Figure S5.2**. Importantly, 16 of the 29 genes have also been reported to have biological regulation roles, which include regulation of the glycogen metabolic process (GO:0005979; *PLC2* and *PIG2*), vacuole organisation (GO:0007033; *GVP36*, *NEO1*) and protein ubiquitination (GO:0016567; *NOT3*, *MET30* and *SSM4*). Of the genes encoding for ER membrane proteins (GO:0005789; *SSM4*, *DFG10*, *TED1*, *YKE4*, *CBR1* and *APQ12*), there are specific genes that encode for proteins involved in protein modification (*SSM4*, *DFG10* and *TED1*) and biological regulation processes (*APQ12*, *CBR1* and *YKE4*).

Table 5.3 GO enriched terms from high copy number diverse genes in the superior trait pool.

Category	Term	Count	%	<i>p</i> value	Genes
BP ¹	Regulation of glycogen biosynthetic process	2	6.90	0.018	<i>PIG2, PCL7</i>
	Vacuole organization	2	6.90	0.063	<i>GVP36, NEO1</i>
	Protein ubiquitination	3	10.31	0.067	<i>NOT3, MET30, SSM4</i>
CC ²	Endoplasmic reticulum membrane	6	20.69	0.027	<i>TED1, YKE4, CBR1, DFG10, APQ12, SSM4</i>
	Integral component of membrane	11	37.93	0.081	<i>SYG1, TED1, YKE4, NEO1, CBR1, DFG10, PRM2, YIL046W-A, APQ12, TIM44, YIL030C, SSM4</i>

¹BP, Biological process²CC, Cellular component

The *SSM4* gene encodes for one of the two ubiquitin ligases (E3) involved in ER-associated degradation (ERAD) (Bays et al. 2001; Deak and Wolf 2001), which is responsible for recognising and ubiquitinating misfolded proteins in the cytosolic domains for degradation by the proteasome (Denic et al. 2006; Gauss et al. 2006). This gene represents an interesting target to study due to its potential role in degrading recombinant proteins as well its significant involvement with ERAD complexes for the production of stable recombinant proteins as suggested by Kostova and Wolf (2003). In contrast, the *DFG10* gene encodes a putative polyprenol reductase (Mösch and Fink 1997) that catalyses the synthesis of dolichol, the precursor for *N*-linked protein glycosylation in the ER (Vásquez-Soto et al. 2015). The latter study demonstrated that a loss of function *S. cerevisiae* mutant (Δ *DFG10*) was resistant up to 20 mM Sortin2, a drug that impairs vacuolar sorting. Simultaneously, lower secretion yields of vacuolar carboxypeptidase Y (CPY) were detected (Vásquez-Soto et al. 2015), potentially due to defective *N*-glycosylation {Formatting Citation}. Lastly, *TED1* (a gene linked to GPI-glycan remodelling) encodes Ted1p, which acts together with Emp24p/Erv25p (p24 protein complex) in ER export and ER protein quality control (Goder and Melero 2011). Amongst other processes in yeast, Ted1p also plays a vital role in regulating cell wall stability, cell growth and division (Haass et al. 2007, Burtner et al. 2011, Goder and Melero 2011). Cui and co-workers (2018) demonstrated a potential link between Ted1p and Pmt1p (a protein involved in

O-mannosylation of specific substrates such as misfolded proteins) in ER stress reponse and cell-life span.

Another enzyme that could be involved in regulating cell wall protein glycosylation in the ER, is microsomal cytochrome b reductase encoded by *CBR1* (Huh et al. 2003). Cbr1p potentially interacts with Pmt1p and YMR122W-A, suggesting it can alter protein glycosylation in response to different environmental stresses (Paulo et al. 2015). In terms of ion transport, the *YKE4* gene encodes for a bidirectional Zn transporter in the ER of *S. cerevisiae*, which balances the zinc levels between the cytosol and the secretory pathway, thus ensuring a ready supply of zinc, which is essential for ER functions such as phospholipid biosynthesis and UPR (Gaither and Eide 2001). *YKE4* has been shown to be involved in ER stress responses, and its deletion resulted in a sensitivity to calcoflour white and poor growth due to toxic zinc accumulation in the cytosol (Kumánovics et al. 2006).

Interestingly, this is not the first instance of structural chromosomal variations being linked to enhanced heterologous protein secretion. A recent example was seen in the study by Huang and co-workers (2015), whereby the genomes of enhanced α -amylase secreting mutants were sequenced and compared to the original parental strain, identifying chromosome III duplication in the superior strain of MH34 strain and its descendants.

During diverse stress conditions, the yeast genome can become unstable, which often results in ‘adaptive’ aneuploidy i.e. a cell population with a high karyotype diversity (Chen et al. 2012). In this study, a phenotypic screen in *S. cerevisiae* was conducted to identify F1-segregants with good *Te*-CBHI secretion capability (superior pool), with a majority resistant to tunicamycin-induced ER stress (**Chapter 3**). A recent study by Beaupere and co-workers (2018) demonstrated that chromosomal duplications allow the adaptation of yeast cells to ER stress in a manner independent of the UPR. In particular, a gain of an extra copy of chromosome

It was shown to increase ER resistance (Beaupere et al. 2018, Chen et al. 2012). However, further investigations into correlations between heterologous protein production and secretion with significant gains in certain chromosomes or chromosome regions are warranted. In conclusion, the results of the analysis of these amplified regions should be interpreted with caution.

*5.4.3 SNP frequency analysis reveals that several QTLs are related to inferior and superior *Te*-CBHI secretion*

The purpose of our QTL analyses was to identify genetic elements responsible for superior and inferior secretion capabilities in natural and industrial isolates as a means for future strain improvements. Studies have shown that an advanced intercrossed F₂-population of segregant pools tend to produce QTLs of reduced size and potentially simplify the process of identifying mechanism of action of the trait (Ehrenreich et al. 2010b; Parts et al. 2011; Swinnen et al. 2012; García-ríos et al. 2017). However, given the time and costs involved in introducing genetic variability and screening segregants. The F₁-generation was selected for this QTL analysis. As laborious as an unselected trait may be for screening, there has been success in screening a limited number of segregants for these traits, i.e. ethanol accumulation and glycerol production (as reviewed by Abt and co-workers [2016]).

Additionally, a random selection of segregants was used as a control population that was also characterised and sequenced. In this way, the assumption of selecting for only QTLs involved in enhanced *Te*-CBHI secretion was addressed by overlaying the SNP frequencies of selected segregant pools. The control pool was created in addition to the extreme tail end pools, i.e. superior and inferior extreme phenotypic pools, to reflect the background SNP frequency. Any overlapping QTLs identified in both superior and inferior pools of hybrids, as well as overlapping QTLs identified in superior and control pools, were most likely an indication of an unselected trait and were not chosen for further analysis. It is important to note that other

QTLs will be indirectly selected for, potentially including QTLs involved in transformation efficiency, sporulation, flocculation, tolerance to antibiotics or growth in a complex media etc.

The genomes of strains in the superior pool would have an overrepresentation of regions, i.e. genetic determinants, involved in the enhanced secretion trait and therefore an increased frequency of SNP variants from the superior parent. Thus, regions with SNP frequency averages above 0.5 represent an increase in the percentage of SNP variants from the superior parent. Usually, trait-related SNP variants in the superior pool are expected to be dominantly inherited from the superior parent, however, previous studies have highlighted the presence of recessive mutations linked to desirable traits in inferior parents, for instance yeast stress tolerance (Sardi et al. 2018; Yang et al. 2013).

The SNP frequency analysis allowed us to map 12 QTLs that cover large chromosomal regions potentially responsible for the phenotypic variation between the two extreme tail ends of the F1-population (**Table S5.2**). Ten distinct QTLs were highlighted in the superior pool (**Figure 5.5a**) and two QTLs were highlighted in the inferior pool (**Figure 5.5b**). Unfortunately, there was a deviation from the expected 1:1 ratio in the SNP frequency, which could suggest aneuploidy or chromosomal CNVs, which in turn would affect accurate SNP variant frequency calculations and skew the data (Pais et al. 2014; Wilkening et al. 2014). Furthermore, only twenty F1-segregants consisted of the control pool, which could explain the deviation of the green lines in **Figure 5.5**, however the analysis of the superior and inferior pools should be sufficient in the detection of QTLs. While this does compound our analyses, QTLs could still be detected and strict thresholds were used to detect a QTL. While these regions will ultimately require fine-mapping with SNP-specific primers to pinpoint the causative alleles, a bioinformatics approach was used in this study to narrow down the list of potential candidate genes.

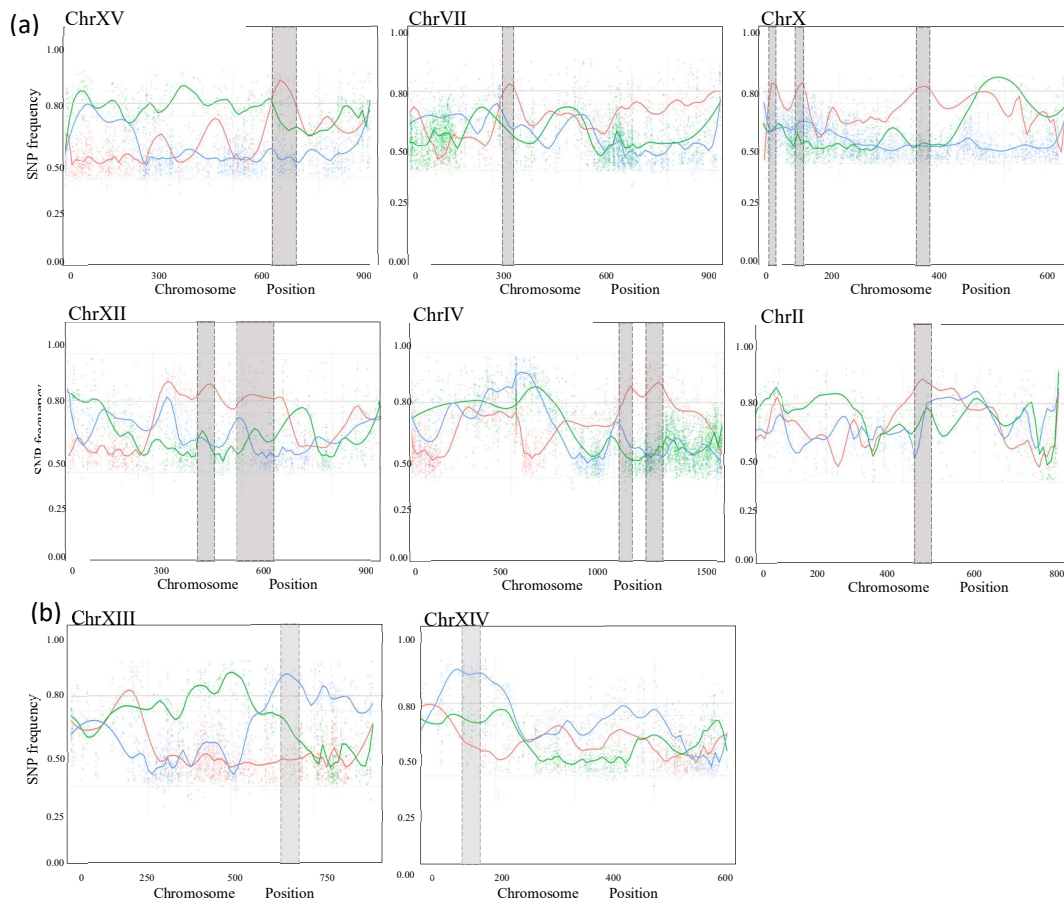


Figure 5.5 Selected QTL regions (indicated as light grey bars) visualised on the SNP frequency graphs per chromosome. The SNP variant frequency is indicated as a number range from 1, which represents the YI13 genome, while a value of 0 represents the ER12 genome. QTLs inferring (a) superior and (b) inferior *Te*-CBHI secretion were chosen based on the largest genetic divergence between the extreme trait pools (superior and inferior) and control pool. Red lines represent superior trait pool, green lines represent control pool and blue lines represent the inferior trait pool.

To narrow down the target regions and identify the most plausible candidate genes linked to the superior trait, the potential functional impact of genes and SNPs located within target regions was bioinformatically evaluated (**Table S5.3**). Some of the genes and their respective genetic variance are listed in **Table 5.4** and qualified as some of the strongest candidates underlying the observed QTLs linked to the superior trait.

Table 5.4 The candidate genes linked to the superior trait were selected according to their function and non-synonymous SNPS in the parental YI13_C2 sequence.

QTL	Gene ID	Gene name	Function	Changes to protein sequence
ChrXV	<i>YOR254C</i>	<i>SEC63</i>	The Sec61 complex is a component of protein translocation apparatus of the ER membrane	D584G; I277T; I22L
	<i>YOR216C</i>	<i>RUD3</i>	Golgi matrix protein; involved in the structural organization of the cis-Golgi	D456E; V359A; A326S; K117N; H109Y; R75G
ChrII	<i>YBR110W</i>	<i>ALG1</i>	Mannosyltransferase; involved in asparagine-linked glycosylation in the ER	N253D; D444G
ChrIV	<i>YDR307W</i>	<i>PMT7</i>	Predicted integral membrane protein whose biological role is unknown	N28K; S148N; L187V; K218Q; N349S; T510A; G617E; F659C
	<i>YDR299W</i>	<i>BFR2</i>	Component of the SSU and 90S preribosomes; involved in pre-18S rRNA processing	K3L; G106K110insGEEEEEEEE
	<i>YDR333C</i>	<i>RQC1</i>	Component of the ribosome quality control complex	D58V; Q144R; Q202H
ChrXII	<i>YLR240W</i>	<i>VPS34</i>	Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase that synthesizes PI-3-phosphate	E591D
	<i>YLR292C</i>	<i>SEC72</i>	Subunit of Sec63 complex; with Sec61 complex, Kar2p/BiP and Lhs1p forms a channel	R154K
	<i>YJL204C</i>	<i>RCY1</i>	Component of F-box protein involved in recycling endocytosed proteins	K548R; L372F; R132K; I83L
	<i>YJL154C</i>	<i>VPS35</i>	Component of a large multimeric complex, involved in retrograde transport of proteins	R899H; A860T; S857N
	<i>YJL029C</i>	<i>VPS53</i>	Involved in retrograde vesicle trafficking in late Golgi.	A481T
	<i>YJL034W</i>	<i>KAR2</i>	Import into the ER; also acts as a chaperone to mediate protein folding in the ER	A581S
	<i>YJL160C</i>	<i>PIR5</i>	Member of the PIR family of cell wall proteins	S209N; K183N; V136A; K128T
ChrX	<i>YJL159W</i>	<i>HSP150</i>	O-mannosylated heat shock protein; secreted and covalently attached to the cell wall via beta-1,3-glucan and disulfide bridges; required for cell wall stability	T96S; QA127_A129dup; I127_QA128insIIKIIISAKTTAAAVSQIGDGQI; T297S
	<i>YJL158C</i>	<i>CIS3</i>	Mannose-containing glycoprotein constituent of the cell wall; member of the PIR family	S112SS; T94S; T93S; A90V; QA84_A85del; T82del
	<i>YJL203W</i>	<i>PRP21</i>	Subunit of the SF3a splicing factor complex; required for spliceosome assembly;	L558S; A82G; V72A; I63M; D49N
	<i>YJL019W</i>	<i>MPS3</i>	Nuclear envelope protein; required for SPB insertion, SPB duplication	S210G; Q396_Q398del; Y555F; P577A
	<i>YGL084C</i>	<i>GUP1</i>	Plasma membrane protein; role in misfolded protein quality control	Y338H; V11I
ChrVII	<i>YGL071W</i>	<i>AFT1</i>	Transcription factor involved in iron utilization and homeostasis	G416D; S507N; D551N; P625R
	<i>YGL073W</i>	<i>HSF1</i>	Trimeric heat shock transcription factor; activates multiple genes in response to highly diverse stresses	YI13; P72S; T123S; E125K; M189T; K216N; E575G; D579E; N40S; V831A; F10L
	<i>YLR289W</i>	<i>GUF1</i>	Mitochondrial matrix GTPase; important for translation under temp. and nutrient stress	R14C; S260F
ChrXII	<i>YLR256W</i>	<i>HAP1</i>	Zinc finger transcription factor; involved in regulation of gene expression in response to levels of heme and oxygen	YI13; M32T; T145I; N155S; R361P; E400D; S455N; G479R; V508M; N632S; A726G; N1451D; G1470GfsTer4; G1471SfsTer12; G1472DfsTer20; I1473SfsTer18
	<i>YLR266C</i>	<i>PDR8</i>	Transcription factor targets include ATP-binding cassette transporters, major facilitator superfamily transporters	I601V; K543R; D426E; L371F; T267S; H263R; Y207D; T108R; S17L
	<i>YLR240W</i>	<i>VPS34</i>	Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase that synthesizes PI-3-phosphate	E591D

When DAVID software was applied to selected genes (146 genes in the superior trait, 80 genes in the inferior trait) in order to define gene networks within which they likely operate, major networks were identified for each of the superior (**Figure 5.6a**) and the inferior secretion phenotypes (**Figure 5.6b**) and the p values were used to generate two separate heat maps. A majority of the genes for both superior and inferior secretion categories were associated with nuclear metabolic functions (GO:0005634; p value<0.01) (**Figure 5.6**). However, a fair number of enriched GO terms for the ‘superior secretion’ category were associated with other cellular components such as the cell wall (GO:0005618; *CIS3*; *CSC1*; *CTS1*; *CTS2*; *DSC3*; *ECM25*; *ECM38*; *HNMI*; *HXT3*; *KAR2*; *PMT7*; *SBE2*; *SPR2*; *STE13*; *SRL1*; *TRE2*; *PIR5*; *HSP150*; *YPS7*; *YLR173W*; *CTS2*; p value<0.05) and extracellular region (GO:0005576; *CIS3*; *CTS1*; *SPR2*; *SRL1*; *PIR5*; *HSP150*; *CTS2*; p value < 0.05) (**Figure 5.6a**).

In contrast, the inferior secretion category was mainly associated with plasma membrane (GO:0005886; p value<0.05) and cellular bud neck (GO:0005935) (**Figure 5.6b**). Interestingly, there was an overlap in GO terms between the categories, namely response to stimulus (GO:0051716; p value<0.01), regulation of gene expression (GO: 0010468; p value<0.01) as well as regulation of biological process (GO:0065007; p value<0.01) (**Figure S5.3** and **Figure S5.4**). These GO categories were not analysed in this study, but future research should investigate enrichment or repression phenomena between these GO terms.

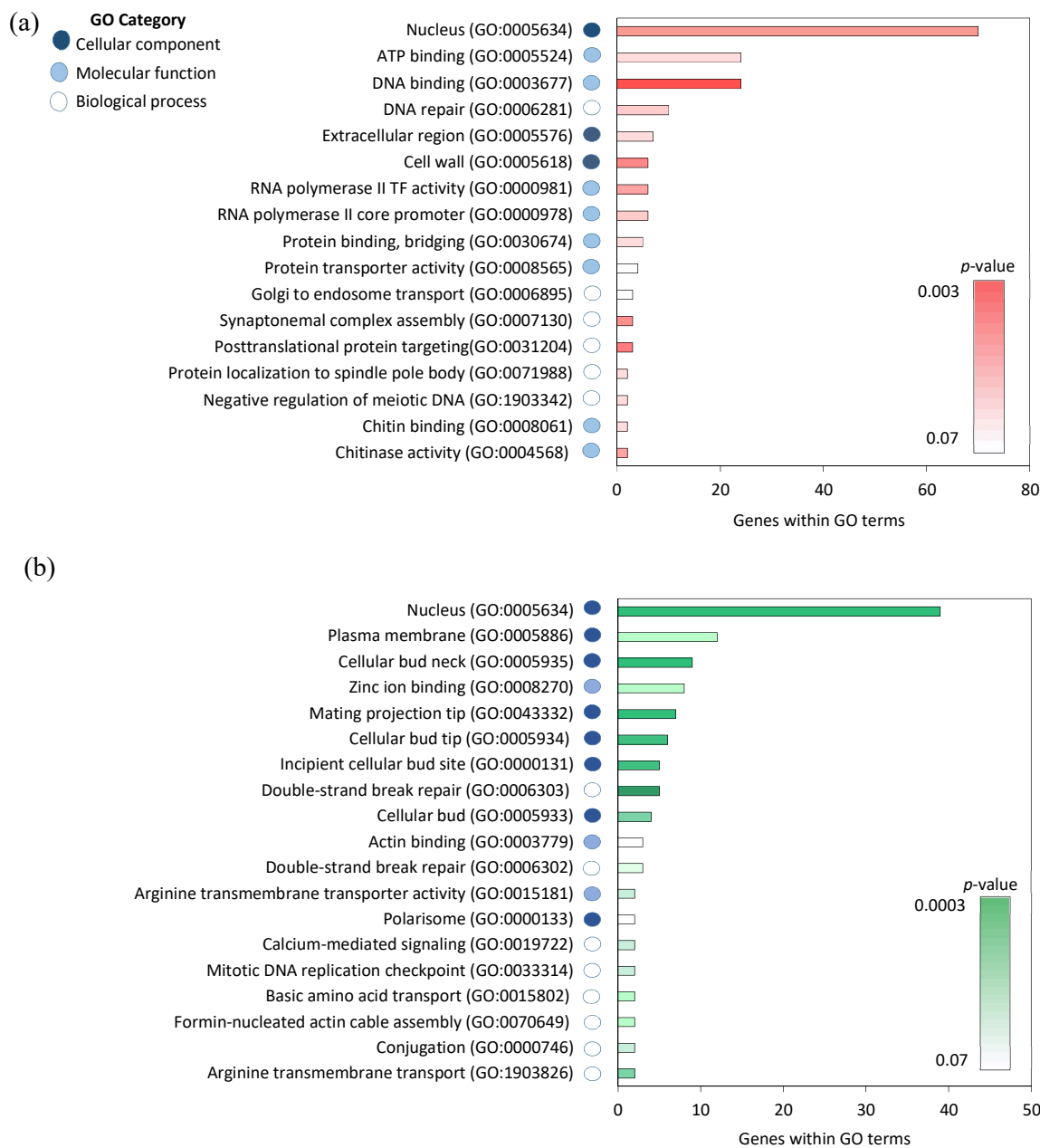


Figure 5.6 GO enriched terms from candidate genes in (a) superior and (b) inferior secretion categories. Cellular component (dark blue), molecular function (light blue) and biological process (white) are represented by circles, and are enriched among the genes that overlap within the QTL regions.

The GO analysis indicated that the 146 genes identified to be linked to the superior trait category and 80 genes linked to the inferior trait category were involved in many other biological processes, reflecting the complexity and interconnectivity of the protein secretion pathway to other cellular processes as highlighted by Huang and co-workers (2015). For

example, one of the most enriched categories for the superior trait included retrograde transport, i.e. endosome to Golgi (GO:0042147; *VPS34*, *VPS35*, *VPS53*, *LAA1*, *RCY1*, *GGAI* and *TRE2*). Once heterologous proteins have reached the exocytosis pathway, they can be re-assimilated into the cell via endocytosis, which may limit the protein secretion yield (Rodríguez-Limas et al. 2015). However, it has been recently recognised that *S. cerevisiae* may take up substantial amounts of protein from the extracellular media, which would likely impact recombinant protein titers (Huang et al. 2008; Tyo et al. 2014). As a result, blocking selected endocytic mechanisms improved heterologous protein secretion titers in *S. cerevisiae* (Rodríguez-Limas et al. 2015). Therefore, targeting genes in the trafficking pathway may overcome some of the limiting steps in recombinant protein secretion.

Interestingly, genes related to processes and functions involved in cell wall organisation (GO:0005618; GO:0031505; *HSP150*; *SRL1*; *PMT7*; *PIR5*; *CIS3*; *TUS1*; p value<0.05) and ER membrane (GO:0005789; *PMT7*; *DSC3*; *ALG1*; *ALG2*; *DGAI*; p value<0.05) were prevalent in the superior trait category (p value<0.05). Additionally, GO analysis of molecular function showed the protein transport term (GO:0015031) to be enriched with 11 genes (*EXO84*; *VPS15*; *VPS34*, *VPS35*; *VPS53*, *VPS74*; *NCE101*; *APS3*; *SUS1*; *DSC3*; *VID24*; *LAA1*; p value<0.05) of the list of shared proteins being assigned with this term. These included biological reactions involved in Golgi to vacuolar transport (*GGAI*, *PEP7*, *PEP3*, *TRE2*, *VID24*, *VTC2*; *YPQ2* and *STE13*) and vesicle docking involved in exocytosis (*PEP7*, *PEP3*, *EXO84* and *RCY1*). To date, no research has been performed on this particular set of genes in the context of improving heterologous protein production or secretion. In contrast, genes involved in protein localisation to Golgi including vacuolar protein sorting (vps) genes, such as the *VPS34* and *VPS74* genes prioritised in this study, have previously been implicated in improving protein secretion levels (Xu et al. 2014, Hsu et al. 2013). Interestingly, Vps74p has demonstrated an overlap in cellular functioning with cell wall integrity (Hsu et al 2014).

Additionally, genes involved in the heat shock response (HSR), such as *HSF1* and *HSF150* genes highlighted in this study, have been implicated as not only gene targets for improved production of heterologous proteins (Finnis et al. 2010), but also for oxidative stress, ethanol and temperature tolerance (Zhao et al.2017, Russo et al. 1993). The regulatory gene *HAPI*, was highlighted in this study under the GO category of oxidation-reduction process (GO:0055114). Overexpression of the *HAPI* gene was shown to lower oxidative stress by mitigating the effects of reactive oxygen species accumulation connected to protein folding, thus improving the overall recombinant protein yield capacity (Martínez et al. 2016).

The overexpression of genes related to posttranslational targeting of proteins to the membrane, has been shown to improve the production of various heterologous proteins as reviewed by Kroukamp and co-workers (2018). For example, the overexpression of genes related to translocation components including the *SEC63* gene, as well chaperone genes such as *KAR2*, a component of the unfolded protein response (GO:0030968), demonstrated improvements in rHG-CSF secretion levels and BglIIp secreted enzyme activity levels, respectively (Tang et al. 2015, Zhang et al. 2006). Similarly, several genes involved in protein glycosylation (GO:0006486) were highlighted in this study, including asparagine-linked glycosylation genes *ALG1* and *ALG2*, and the *O*-mannosyltransfer protein encoding gene *PMT7*.

This analysis clearly shows that there are multiple routes that can lead to enhanced protein secretion. Known and unknown genes that are linked to the superior secretion trait are presented in an additional discussion at the end of this Chapter, whereby prior information regarding some of the genes linked to the superior trait are discussed in more detail. This additional section discusses prior research regarding the selected genes under the themes of the distinct functional categories namely:

- a) Posttranslational protein targeting to membrane, which includes protein translocation (GO:0051084), glycosylation (GO:0006486), and the unfolded protein response (GO:0030968).
- b) Protein localisation to Golgi, which include endocytosis (GO:0042147) and protein transport (GO:0015031).
- c) Cross-tolerance mechanisms, which include lipid metabolism (GO:0006629), cell wall organisation (GO:0071555) and oxidation-reduction process (GO:0055114).
- d) Gene regulation, which include transcription factors associated with protein transport.

This discussion highlights the prior literature information regarding each of the genes, under the themes of the distinct categories, namely (a) posttranslational protein targeting to membrane, (b) protein localisation to Golgi, (c) cross-tolerance mechanisms and (d) gene regulation. Consequently, the genes graphically illustrated in **Figure 5.7** were qualified as the potential targets or strongest candidates underlying the observed QTL. However, the results discussed in this section lend itself to further functional analysis studies, including bulk reciprocal hemizyosity analysis to narrow the gene list of candidates involved in superior secretion.

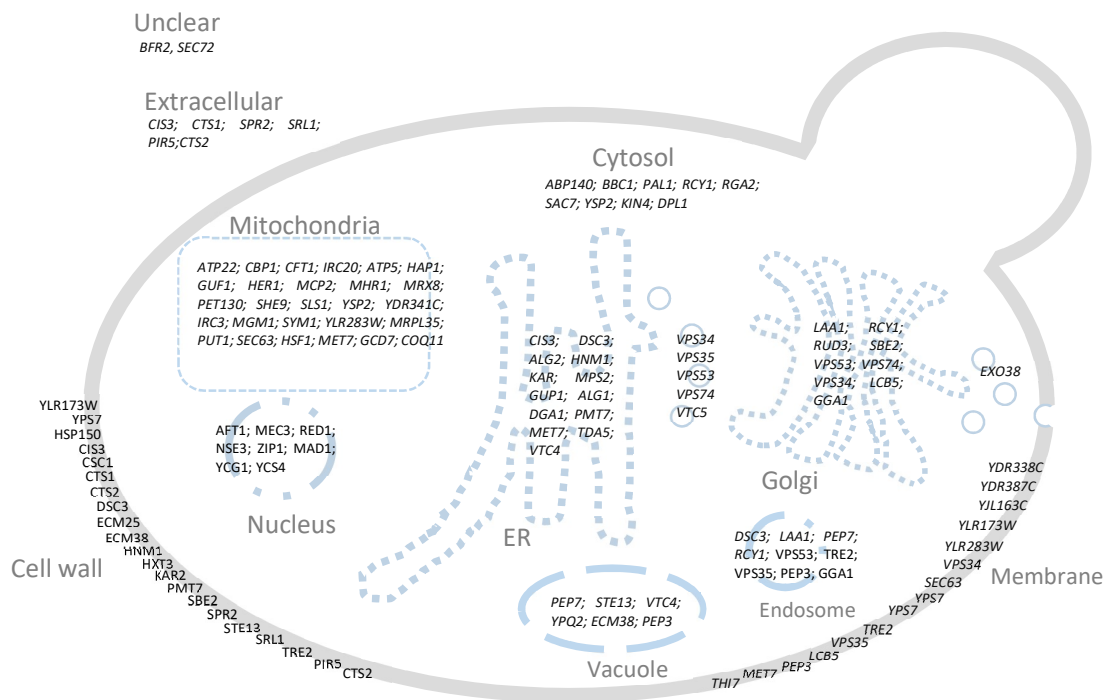


Figure 5.7 Genes with identified medium-to-high impact were mapped on the cellular components of the protein secretion pathway. Prioritised genes were selected from keywords in GO terms ‘secreted’, ‘post-translational glycosylation’, ‘protein transport’ and ‘cell wall organisation’.

5.4.4 Posttranslational protein targeting to membranes

Overexpression of chaperones, subunit assemblies as well as translocation components in the ER, such as the prioritised genes in this study, namely *KAR2* (*YJL034W*; Hsp70s), *SEC63* (*YOR254C*; Hsp40s) and *SEC72* (*YLR292C*; Hsp40s), have been shown to improve the production of various heterologous proteins (Kroukamp et al. 2018). For example, overexpression of *KAR2*, which encodes an ATPase involved in protein import into the ER, increased transcription of *BGLI* up to 4.3-fold, resulting in 47% higher extracellular enzyme activity being produced from a recombinant *S. cerevisiae* strain than the control strain after 72 h (Tang et al. 2015). Albeit highly protein-specific, since this overexpression did not enhance the secretion of CelA and amylase activities, this suggests that Hsp70s can be targeted for

improvement of heterologous protein levels. Post-translational translocation components can also affect heterologous protein secretion (Tang et al. 2015). Sec61, one of two known translocon pore complexes that operate in *S. cerevisiae*, is composed of a heteromer of Sec63p (*SEC63*) and Sec72p, which oligomerises to form the translocation channel. The Sec61-63 complex acts as a membrane receptor providing directionality to the translocation process and has been a target for the improvement of heterologous proteins in the past with ambiguous results. For example, individual overexpression of the ER membrane protein encoding gene *SEC63* as well as chaperone-encoding genes *KAR2*, *PDII* and *SSA1*, resulted in modest increases in rHG-CSF secretion levels (Zhang et al. 2006).

More recently, the overproduction of the Ssa1p translocon pore complex improved heterologous cellulase activities in *S. cerevisiae* (Tang et al. 2015). *BFR2* (*YDR299W*) as well as *KAR2* (*YJL034W*), both genes prioritised in this study, were identified as helper secretion factor genes. *BFR2*, encodes a transcription initiation factor IIIB, and its overexpression resulted in a significant increase in the amount of 2F5 Fab produced in *Pichia pastoris* (Gasser et al. 2007b). However, less is known about the function of Bfr2p, which has been isolated as a multicopy suppressor of the drug brefeldin A, a fungal metabolite that perturbs the protein flux into the Golgi apparatus and structure of the Golgi apparatus itself in *S. cerevisiae* (Chabane et al. 1998).

For the GO term of protein glycosylation (GO:0006486), the genes that were highlighted include *ALG1* (*YBR110W*), *ALG2* (*YGL065C*) and *PMT7* (*YDR307W*). As one of the most prominent types of protein glycosylation in *S. cerevisiae*, N-linked glycosylation causes the β -glycosylamine linkage of N-acetylglucosamine to Asn residues (Wei et al. 2013). A cluster of N-linked-glycosylation genes consists of 11 well-characterised proteins dedicated to the generation of high-mannose chains. In *S. cerevisiae*, oligosaccharide synthesis by the assembly of core glycans requires the action of numerous Algp (asparagine-linked glycosylation)

mannosyl transfer proteins, encoded by essential genes *ALG1* and *ALG2*. In oligosaccharide synthesis-deficient strains, incomplete oligosaccharides accumulate in the ER lumen and cause a slow oligosaccharide-to-protein transfer rate (Cipollo and Trimble 2002). Interestingly, the overproduction of UDP-*N*-acetylglucosamine-1-P transferase (*ALG7*), a subunit of the 20S proteasome (*PRE7*) and *YBR085C-A* induced tunicamycin resistance, i.e. ER stress resistance, in wild-type cells, whereas deletion of all three genes completely reversed the tunicamycin-resistance phenotype (Beaupere et al. 2018).

As discussed in **Chapter 3**, the high secretor strain Y113 demonstrated high tolerance to cell wall and cell membrane stresses, as well as the secretion stressor tunicamycin, suggesting that excessive stress caused by stress-inducing agents potentially overloads the processing ability of yeast cells and disturbs ER protein homeostasis, causing physiological toxicity. Additionally, cell wall formation may be seriously impacted by tunicamycin treatment because it interferes with the *O*-glycosylation transferase function of Pmt1p by suppressing *N*-glycosylation (Xiao et al. 2016). Unlike the hetero-oligomeric structure of *N*-linked glycans, the *O*-mannosylation process involves a single mannose residue linked to Ser and Thr side-chain hydroxyls in the α -configuration. In *S. cerevisiae*, the *O*-mannosyltransfer (PMT) protein family transfers mannose from phosphate β -D-mannose to peptides. There are six established members of this family (*PMT1-PMT6*) in *S. cerevisiae*, but the seventh putative member *PMT7*, a gene prioritised in this study, remains uncharacterised. This gene and its gene family are particularly interesting genetic targets since *O*-mannosylation by PMTs not only renders proteins soluble (a property required for ER exit), but also promotes protein degradation under certain conditions of protein misfolding (Ecker et al. 2003, Xu and Ng 2015).

5.4.5 Protein localisation to Golgi

Engineering of intracellular trafficking processes, for example, ER-to-Golgi and Golgi-to-plasma membrane processes, can also improve the secretion of heterologous proteins (Xu et al.

2014). As vacuolar mis-targeting is suggested to be a common fate for heterologous proteins, including the CBHI (Xu et al. 2014), it would be beneficial to investigate the genes that belong to the group of vacuolar protein sorting (vps) genes. In this study, vps genes were highlighted, whose functioning may be related to the vacuolar accumulation pathway and the heterologous protein secretion process. The vps candidates prioritised in this study were *VPS15* (*YBR097W* - encodes Ser/Thr protein kinase), *VPS34* (*YLR240W* - encodes phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase), *VPS35* (*YJL154C* - encodes a subunit of membrane-associated retromer complex), *VPS53* (*YJL029C* - encodes a protein subunit of GARP complex, and *VPS74* (*YDR372C* - encoding a protein determining the localisation of Golgi glycosyltransferase) (Cherry et al. 2012). These selected vps genes are related to Golgi-associated retrograde transport, which is one of the main pathways in the multi-vesicular vacuolar protein-sorting process (Bonangelino et al. 2002).

Modification of vacuolar protein sorting pathways was shown to enhance heterologous protein secretion in yeasts (Marsalek et al. 2019). The *VPS34* gene, prioritised in this study, is related to the carboxypeptidase Y pathway and is required for vacuolar sorting and segregation, vacuole morphology and vacuolar protein sorting (Takegawa et al. 1995). Idiris and co-workers (2010) reported that a protease-deficient *S. cerevisiae* transformant with a disrupted *VPS34* showed slightly reduced levels of recombinant human growth hormone secretion, suggesting the importance of this gene in the multivesicular general protein trafficking process. In contrast, there have been several reports on the positive effects of *VPS10* deletion on heterologous protein secretion (Idiris et al. 2010, Yoon et al. 2010, Xu et al. 2014), suggesting the gene's involvement in the protein intracellular retention pathway. For example, the disruption of *VPS10* in *Aspergillus oryzae* increased the extracellular production levels of bovine chymosin and human lysozyme by 3- and 2.2-fold, respectively (Yoon et al. 2010). Furthermore, when a *PMRA/PD1/cel7A* mutant strain of *S. cerevisiae* was disrupted for *VPS10*, the strain demonstrated a 53% increase in the secretion of *Tr*-CBHI, with the resulting

quadruple modified strain (*VPS10Δ/PMRΔ/PD1/Tr-cel7A*) demonstrating 3.9 fold increased secretion compared to the control strain (Xu et al. 2014).

Additionally, *VPS74*, a gene prioritised in this study, was previously identified to be one of the genes responsible for enhanced salt tolerance (Park et al. 2015) and its deletion combined with the deletion of *VPS35* resulted in the *S. cerevisiae* strain's increased sensitivity to 8% ethanol (Hsu et al. 2013). The Vps74p is required for the proper localisation of several Golgi glycosyltransferases and modulation of cell wall integrity (Hsu et al. 2013), suggesting this gene controls multiple cellular functions. This suggests a potential overlap in genes for the improvement of both heterologous protein secretion and stress tolerance.

5.4.6 Other pathways potentially linked to secretion: Cross tolerance mechanisms

There is a suggested interplay between lipid metabolism and ER homeostasis in the context of protein secretion (Baumann et al. 2011, Basseri and Austin 2012; Mandl et al. 2013; Ron and Harding 2012). Research on the yeast protein pathway still promotes critical advances in both extracellular and intracellular trafficking, especially with regards to the regulatory mechanisms that govern this machinery (Baumann et al. 2011). Intracellular trafficking has long been studied from the protein perspective, but more recently, lipids have emerged as equally important players in this process. In this study, three genes involved in lipid homeostasis namely *VPS53*, *DGAI* and *MCP2* were highlighted.

Among the prioritised genes selected in the 'superior' QTL regions, additional prioritised genes involved in chitin biosynthesis and cell wall composition (*CTS1*, *CTS2*, *ECM25*, *SRL1* and *SBE2*) were highlighted. The process of cell wall organisation (GO:0071555) had the following genes highlighted in this study: *EXG1*, *YPS7*, *PMT7*, *MKK1*, *SRL1* and *CTS1*. Pir proteins (proteins with internal repeats) are cell wall linkage proteins. These include *PIR5* (*YJL160C*, cell wall protein), *CIS3* (*YJL158C*, glycoprotein constituent of cell wall) as well as the

HSP150 gene encoding for a heat shock factor (*YJL159W*, encoding *O*-mannosylated heat shock protein) (Davydenko et al. 2004). The gene *HSP150* in particular was previously implicated as a gene target for improvement of heterologous proteins (Finnis et al. 2010) as well as oxidative stress responses, ethanol tolerance (Kapteyn et al. 1999; Zhao et al. 2017) and temperature tolerance (Russo et al. 1993). Finnis and co-workers (2010) discovered that the production of recombinant human transferrin was enhanced by deleting *YPS1*, overexpression of *HSP150* (a gene highlighted in this study) as well as by *PDII* overexpression.

Some genes involved in oxidation or reduction process were also highlighted, including *COQ11*, *PIG1*, *GSY2*, *PUT1*, *LYS1*, *HAP1* and *ECM38*. The overexpression of oxidative genes such as *ECM38* (*YLR299W*), encoding gamma-glutamyltranspeptidase, has been implicated in environmental stress responses through the activation of the oxidative stress response (Fischer 2019). Furthermore, it is not uncommon to find an overlap between oxidative stress response and recombinant protein production in *S. cerevisiae*. For example, α -amylase production (Liu et al. 2013) results in an imbalance of protein folding and disulphide formation, which causes ‘runaway’ oxidative stress (Tyo et al. 2012). Interestingly, the overexpression of the regulatory gene *HAP1* (*YLR256W*), a gene highlighted in this study, was recently shown to have a profound effect on improvement in human haemoglobin production by *S. cerevisiae* (Martínez et al. 2015), as a result of the induction of genes involved in oxidative stress and enzymes associated with respiration. Overexpression of *HAP1* lowered the overall oxidative stress by mitigating the effects of reactive oxygen species accumulation associated with protein folding, allowing the transformed strain to increase its recombinant protein production capacity (Martínez et al. 2016).

5.4.7 Gene regulation

A majority of genetic studies tend to focus on identifying differences between strains in coding regions. However, this bias is based on the premise that most allelic variants within open reading frames will significantly affect protein structure and therefore non-synonymous mutations represent key targets in the search for causal polymorphisms (Ehrenreich et al. 2009; Liti and Louis 2012; Cubillos 2016). However, these mutations are usually deleterious within natural populations and most protein sequences are conserved even within different species (Zhang and Yang 2015). More recently, studies investigated phenotypic differences between strains as a consequence of finely modulated gene expression in specific coding regions, e.g. polymorphisms in transcriptional binding sites (Cubillos 2016, Thompson and Cubillos 2017). Mutations in coding and regulatory regions can exhibit distinct phenotypes and result in adaptation to stress conditions, which highlights substantial sophistication and extraordinary regulatory plasticity by the strains.

In this study, the following regulatory genes were prioritised: *AFT1* (*YOR377W*), *HSF1* (*YGL073W*), *HAP1* (*YLR256W*) and *PDR8* (*YLR266C*) associated with protein transport. The heat shock response (HSR) is another universal cellular response to protect against ER stress (Hou et al. 2014). Overexpression of *HSF1-R206S*, a mutant gene of the major HSR and encoding the transcriptional regulator Hsf1p, can activate HSR and alleviate ER stress by inducing protein folding chaperones thus improving recombinant protein production (Hou et al. 2014). Liu and co-workers (2014) demonstrated that during the production of recombinant α -amylase in *S. cerevisiae*, several GO terms associated with ER processing were upregulated. This included the stress response gene *HSF1*, which releases ER stress, suggesting that high amounts of recombinant proteins in the secretory pathway induced the UPR.

5.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, it was demonstrated that the identification of new QTLs involved in recombinant protein secretion can be accomplished by crossing a natural and industrial parental strain with differing capacities to secrete the reporter protein *Te*-CBHI. A bioinformatics strategy was applied to search for candidate genes that affect the protein secretion pathway from several QTL regions that were identified in an intercross between the two divergent selected strains. This method has the advantage of maintaining all the relevant genetic diversity and enough phenotypic difference between two parental strains, thus significantly increasing the chances of identifying QTLs. Using this approach, a list of plausible candidate genes was generated that will facilitate further verification and experimental evaluation. The support for this list from literature enhanced the probability that the selected genes underlie the QTL effects. Further studies based on this list may therefore reveal that not only the genes, but also the genetic variance within the genes may underlie the observed QTL effects, thus increasing our understanding of recombinant cellulolytic enzyme secretion, a core challenge in development of CBP yeast strains.

5.6 References

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CHAPTER 6

GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The research aims of this study was to (i) evaluate and characterise the secretory capacity of diverse *S. cerevisiae* strains to produce recombinant cellulase enzymes displayed by one of the natural strains and derivatives; (ii) to investigate the application of utilising cellulolytic strains on ‘real-world’ lignocellulosic raw materials; and (iii) to elucidate the genetic mechanisms underlying the superior protein secretory phenotype displayed by one of the natural strains. To expand yeast secretion efficiency as a model to study natural quantitative genetic variation, this study set out to measure and characterise the secretion efficiency of vineyard isolates and that of the well-known industrial strain Ethanol Red on defined media as well as on lignocellulosic feed-stocks. Case studies were conducted on two lignocellulosic raw materials, corn husk and corn cob, evaluating the efficiency of co-expression of cellulases in natural isolates for lignocellulosic bioethanol production. Based on the results, concluding comments have been formulated to answer four key questions discussed below.

6.1 What challenges in terms of recombinant cellulase secretion were identified for yeast consolidated bioprocessing hosts?

As heterologous cellulolytic enzyme secretion from *S. cerevisiae* is a limiting factor in its application in consolidated bioprocessing (CBP) (Raftery and Karim 2017; Bilal et al. 2018; Aditiya et al. 2016), there is a need for all enzymes to be compatible and produced in an optimal enzyme combination. Furthermore, properties of the proteins themselves have proved to be a stumbling block toward enhancing protein secretion (Kroukamp et al. 2013, 2017). **Chapter 2** highlighted the challenges that exist in converting *S. cerevisiae* into a suitable CBP biocatalyst, including (i) the metabolic burden of recombinant cellulase expression; (ii) the adverse effects of secretion stress on cellulase yield, e.g. endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress; (iii) the impact of

intra-strain diversity on heterologous cellulase expression levels; and (iv) the impact of heterogeneity and the recalcitrant nature of lignocellulosic materials on the enzyme type and levels required.

The vast majority of studies focused on heterologous protein production are based on single gene or single protein expression studies as summarised by Kroukamp and co-workers (2018). Often overlooked is the existence of multi-level and often interloping, cellular responses that affect protein secretion (Benham et al. 2010). For instance, a general stress that recombinant protein production induces, is a significant metabolic burden on the host cell that can manifest itself onto several parameters of growth rate, biomass yield, carbon source consumption and by-product yield (Van Rensburg et al. 2012). Likewise, stresses associated with ethanol production also interfere with the internal secretory pathway mechanisms and subsequently the level of protein secreted into the medium (Schröder and Kaufman 2005; Bauer et al. 2000). Exacerbating this problem is that certain manipulations in core components of the secretion pathway, such as *N*-hypermannose glycosylation or the exocytic SNARE complex, in order to improve recombinant protein secretion levels, can have adverse effects (Van Zyl et al. 2014, Van Rensburg et al. 2012, De Ruijter et al. 2018, Tang et al. 2016). For example, detrimental effects to important industrial traits include an increased sensitivity to osmotic stress and growth deficiency potentially due to cell wall integrity defects (Tang et al. 2016) or derogatory effects on the yeast's basal growth capacity due to the increased metabolic burden (Van Rensburg et al. 2012, De Ruijter et al. 2018). This can furthermore result in a heightened sensitivity to salts and high ethanol concentrations (Van Zyl et al. 2014).

Heterologous protein production in yeast can be limited by the biological response to high expression levels, with unfolded protein stress response (UPR) being a key determinant of success (Tredwell et al. 2017). Therefore, lower recombinant protein secretion levels could be a by-product of UPR induction, which ultimately determines how stressed the cells become

(Schröder and Kaufman 2005). Serendipitously, this phenomenon has become useful in a potential screening design using a chemical ER stress inducer, tunicamycin (Bassik and Kampmann 2011), to isolate superior secretor strains as suggested in **Chapter 3**.

6.2 What can we learn from studying recombinant protein secretion of different cellulases in various genetic backgrounds?

Chapter 3 and **Chapter 4**, show that the choice of genetic background is crucial for optimal secretion capacities. Secretory capacity has been hypothesised to be buffered by a number of different processes that are dependent on the genetic background of the strain (Davison et al. 2016). This is not unusual since the same functional variant can have a diverse effect on the phenotype in different strains (Fournier and Schacherer 2017). From the results, it is plausible to suggest that, due to the complex multi-gene nature of heterologous protein secretion, screening different yeast backgrounds (natural and industrial strains) is the first logical step towards the development of a CBP platform. Furthermore, our efforts resulted in improved F1-segregants from the targeted mating of a natural strain (YI13) with industrial strain (Ethanol Red), demonstrating improvement for *Te*-CBHI secretion (**Chapter 3**).

Chapter 3 also details a novel approach that combined the secretion profiles of strains and phenotypic responses to stresses known to influence the secretion pathway for the development of a screen to isolate strains with distinct secretion capacities. The results postulate that recombinant strains growing relatively well in tunicamycin, would also perform relatively well in terms of recombinant protein secretion levels. To our knowledge, there is no published literature to show whether or not ER stress tolerance varies in individual strains. Interestingly, ER stress in tunicamycin-resistant yeast backgrounds can be buffered by protein folding genes as demonstrated by the reduced activation of the UPR in drug-resistant backgrounds relative to the drug-sensitive S288c background (Busby et al. 2018). This study hypothesised that in the

YI13 strain background, the secretion burden was ‘buffered’ in some capacity relative to the sensitive laboratory strain S288c and industrial strain Ethanol Red.

6.3 What can be learned from studying cellulolytic strains on lignocellulosic feedstocks for bioethanol production?

Chapter 4 highlights the importance of evaluating the effect of cellulase activity ratios on lignocellulosic substrates, which can improve cellulosic ethanol production in a CBP configuration. This chapter represents a novel comparison of various cellulolytic strain configurations with different genetic backgrounds for ethanol production from ‘real’, lignocellulosic materials, namely pretreated corn residues. Since the ultimate goal of strains engineered for enhanced secretory capacity is in applications involving industrial substrates without the exogenous addition of enzymes (**Chapter 4**), the improved strains should be evaluated under industrial conditions as performed in this study.

Results presented in **Chapter 4** support the hypothesis that an ideal genetic background combined with optimal secreted cellulase activity ratios, enable the generation of cellulosic strains tailored to different types of pretreated biomass. A key finding of **Chapter 4** was the higher ethanol and glucose yields obtained by strain YI13_EG+BGL compared to YI13_BGL+CBHI in both corn residue substrates. These discrepancies could be related to differences in the composition of the pretreated raw material of choice, a fact that calls for the development of tailored-specific strains for enhanced hydrolysing capacities on ‘real-world’ substrates. Consequently, screening further cellulase expression configurations in order to tailor strains for specific substrates would benefit a future biorefinery, as the raw material could be used more efficiently, having favourable effects on the process economy.

6.4 Can we develop a blueprint of genes that can enhance secretion from studying the genetic architecture of recombinant protein secretion?

Global genome analysis of QTLs revealed over 100 genes that were implicated in the enhanced secretion phenotype of strain YI13 (**Chapter 5**). It is an intriguing thought that some of these genes might encode proteins with key roles in mediating not only enhanced secretion capacity, but also the tolerance of strains to specific bioethanol stresses (i.e. strain robustness). This is especially true in this research, since natural strains had evolved in robust, stressed environments, which endowed them with specific desirable properties as suggested by Favaro and co-workers (2019) and Steensels and co-workers (2014). These potentially include better evolved internal stress tolerance capabilities, directly or indirectly benefitting superior protein secretion capabilities (Davison et al. 2016, 2019).

Moreover, there may be other mechanisms involved that may improve secretion yields, for instance changes in copy number variation (CNV), which was demonstrated in this study. Additionally, genes were highlighted that encode proteins with unknown functions (**Chapter 5**). Hence, considerable work remains to conduct a functional analysis of these genes and CNVs, as they could be important in holistically improving a strain's secretory capacity. Furthermore, evaluating the impact of variation in the coding sequences of different alleles on the phenotype is an important aspect that will contribute to strain improvement and knowledge development.

Results from the QTL analysis confirmed the impact of the genetic background of strains regarding *Te*-CBHI secretion, since none of the identified QTLs from this thesis overlapped with QTLs identified in other studies utilising the same reporter protein, but with a different strain background (Kroukamp 2015). Interestingly, a global analysis of the open reading frames and non-synonymous mutations highlighted the presence of several genes known to be involved in protein transport. An in depth analysis revealed genes involved in post-translational

protein targeting, endosome and vacuole function, cell wall organisation, ER and Golgi function, lipid homeostasis, oxidative reduction processes and the ER membrane. Naturally, the results from this chapter lends itself to future studies on functional cellulase secretion.

6.5 Future directions

Lignocellulosic bioethanol is approaching commercialisation after years of intense research into various aspects of production processes. However, none of the current demonstration or commercial cellulosic ethanol plants employ a CBP yeast, illustrating that this technology has yet to be optimised. **Chapter 3** investigated the diversity of secretion stress among different strains to determine whether it could serve as a selection agent to evaluate protein secretion capacity and if mating genetically divergent strains yield progeny with hybrid vigour. **Chapter 4** evaluated the expression of a core set of cellulases in a promising strain background for the conversion of ‘real’ substrate. **Chapter 5** investigated the superior cellulase secretion phenotypes in haploids derived from natural isolates and conducted a genome-wide analysis to determine the genomic architecture of the trait through a QTL analysis. All of these chapters have addressed the challenges that surround heterologous cellulase secretion, a key bottleneck in CBP.

Furthermore, **Chapter 5** highlighted some of the genes linked to a superior trait, including those in GO terms for cell wall organisation, protein transport and secretion, as well as post-translational modification. However, the QTLs identified in this study as well as the list of candidate genes, require further evaluation and can be assessed in the future via bulk reciprocal hemizyosity analysis using CRISPR technology to narrow down regions involved in superior secretion. Moreover, multiple modifications of pathways with synthetic chromosomes for *S. cerevisiae* (known as Yeast 2.0) (Pretorius and Boeke 2018) as well as large chromosomal deletions within *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (Giga-Hama et al. 2007)

are being evaluated to simplify the genome-wide regulation system that may directly or indirectly affect industrial traits.

Quantitative trait loci studies have the advantage of being able to perform linkage analysis on complex traits. Nevertheless, trade-offs in terms of loss of other beneficial traits (e.g. tolerance) due to selection have to be considered. Although the knowledge of yeast metabolism is increasing continuously, targeted methods for strain improvements are still hampered by our incomplete knowledge on how microbes respond to differing genetic backgrounds. To overcome the challenges encountered, a combination of detailed physiological studies spanning various ‘-omics’ - transcriptomic, proteomics, metabolomes and fluxomics - would be of great value in finding novel engineering targets.

6.6 Conclusions

In this study, a natural strain with superior *Te*-CBHI secretion was identified and used to study the genetic architecture of heterologous protein secretion. The novel findings of this dissertation can be summarised as:

- Natural, industrial and laboratory *S. cerevisiae* isolates displayed varying degrees of heterologous cellulase secretion capacities and superior *Te*-CBHI secretion was shown to be background-specific.
- A novel phenotypic screen was developed that combined the secretion profiles of strains and phenotypic responses to stresses known to influence the secretion pathway in order to isolate strains with improved secretory capacities.
- The choice of an optimal genetic background combined with optimal secreted cellulase activity ratios was shown to improve cellulosic ethanol production by CBP yeast strains.
- Enzyme hydrolysis trials revealed higher cellulose conversion of pretreated corn cob than corn husk, demonstrating the impact of substrate heterogeneity in CBP.
- Co-expression of *Tr-EGII* and *Sf-BGLI* in the YI13 strain yielded the highest hydrolysis rates on corn residues.

- Natural *S. cerevisiae* isolates differ significantly from industrial Ethanol Red strains based on genome sequence.
- A core set of genes that are potentially required for superior secretion of *Te*-CBHI was highlighted from the genetic architecture of strains with a superior secretion phenotype.

6.7 References

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SUPPLEMENTARY DATA FOR CHAPTER 3

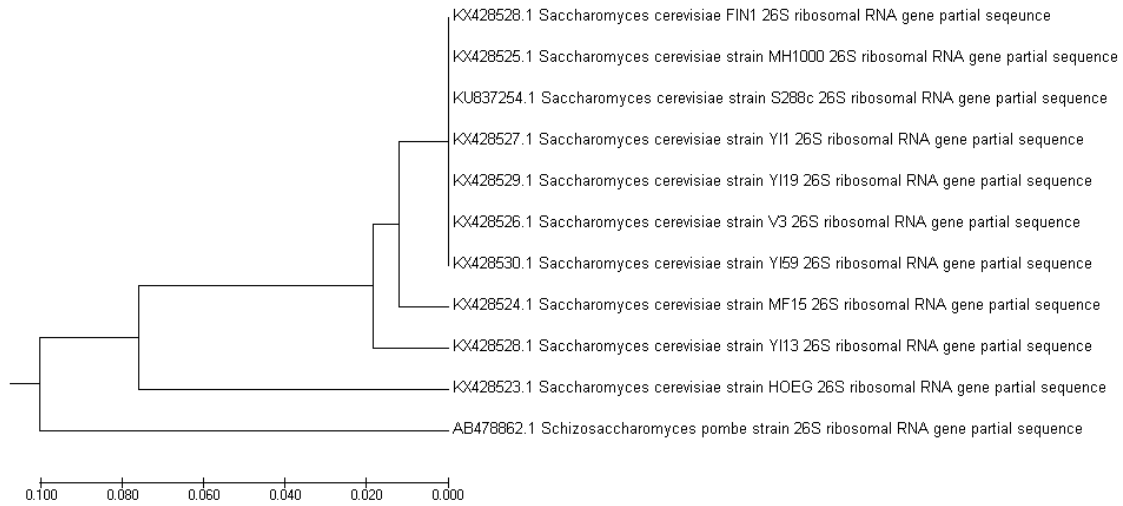


Figure S3.1 Neighbour joining tree constructed from the D1/D2 DNA sequences. Bootstrap percentages over 50% from 999 bootstrap replicates were shown. *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* was used as an out-group.

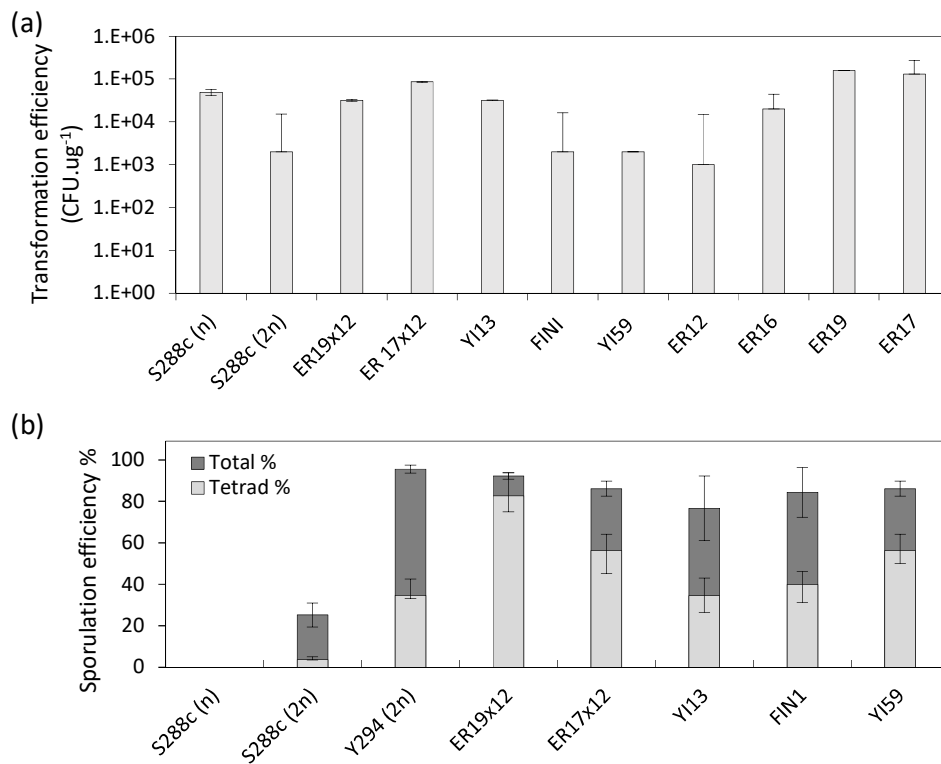


Figure S3.2 Characteristics of the natural strain. (a) Transformation and (b) sporulation efficiencies of diploid versions of laboratory strains (S288c and/or Y294), industrial strains (ER12, ER16, ER19, ER17, ER19x12 and ER17x12) and natural strains (Y113, FIN1 and Y159). Values were calculated from three independent experiments, and error bars represent standard deviations from the mean.

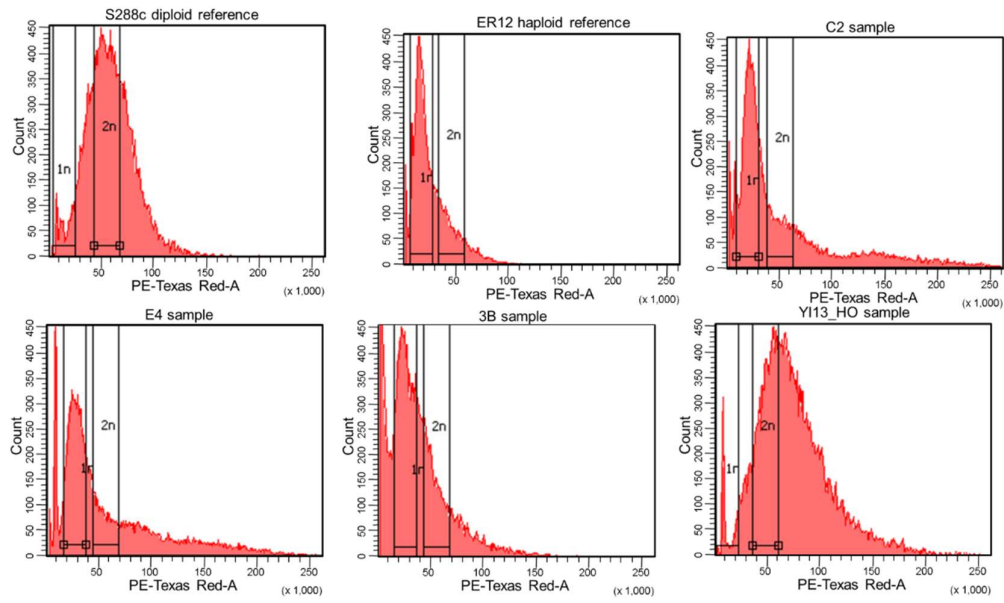


Figure S3.3 Ploidy determination of parental (S288c, YI13_HO and ER12) and selected segregants strains (YI13-C2, YI13-E4, YI13-3B).

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA FOR CHAPTER 4

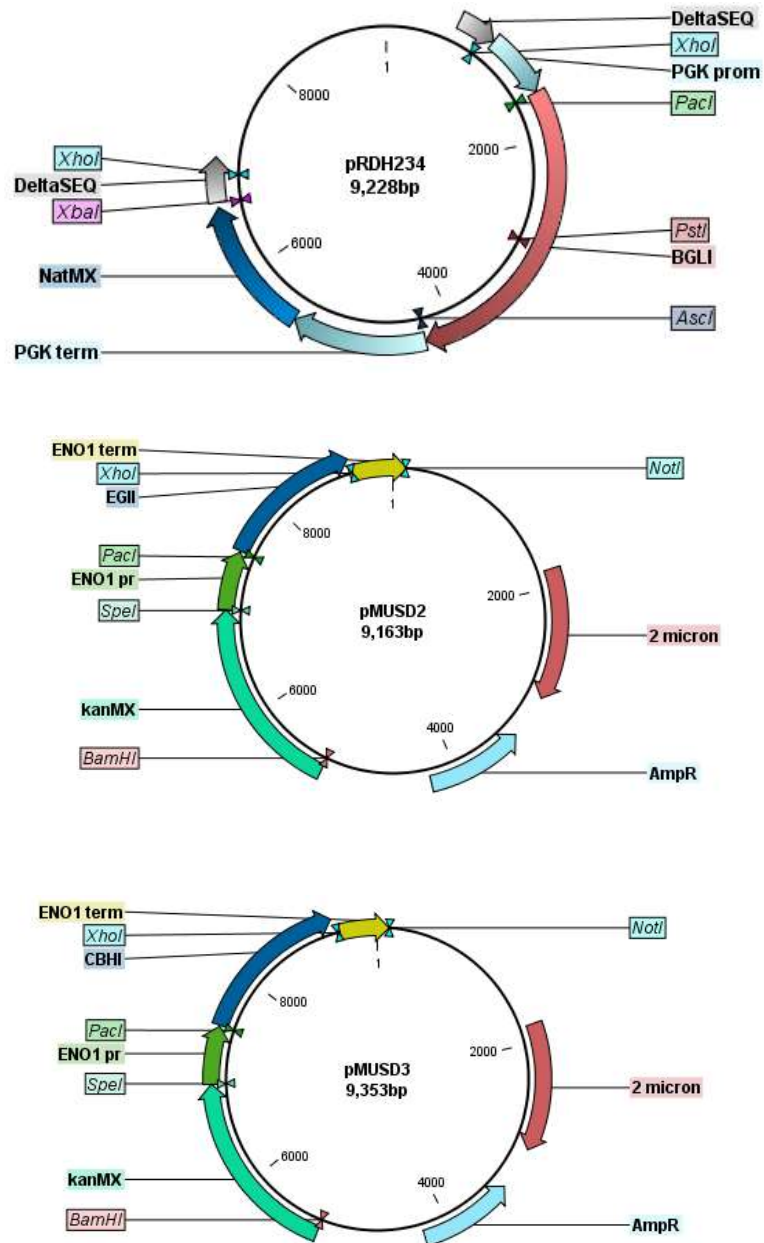


Figure S4.1 Schematic representation of the cellulase-expressing plasmids.

SUPPLEMENTARY FOR CHAPTER 5

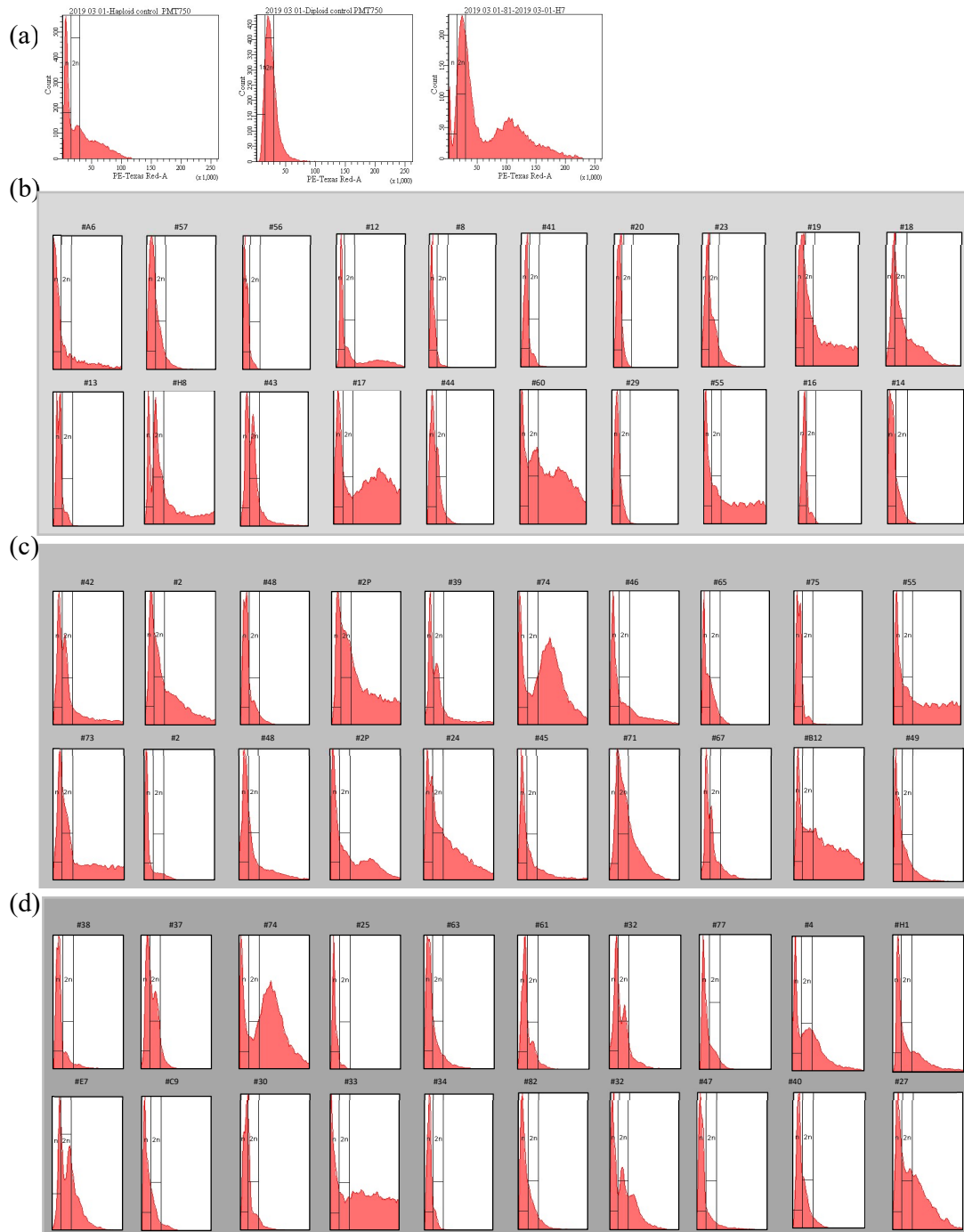


Figure S5.1 Flow cytometry histograms for the (a) reference haploid (n) and diploid (2n) S288c, as well as the segregant populations of (b) the inferior pool, (c) the control pool and (d) the superior pool. Graphs depict histograms of cell counts against relative propidium iodide fluorescence.

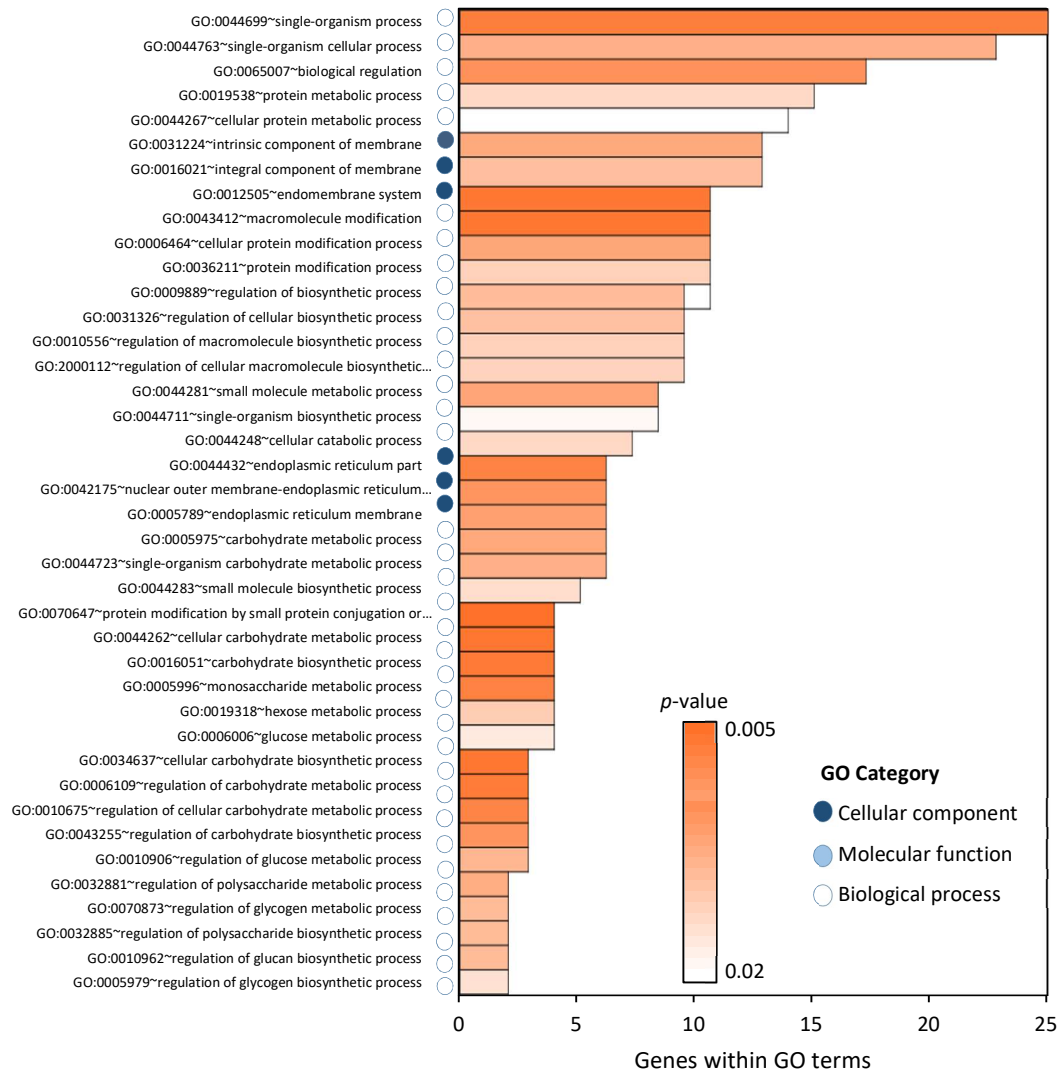


Figure S5.2 GO enriched terms from copy number diverse chromosomal IX region. Biological process are displayed and are enriched among genes that overlap.

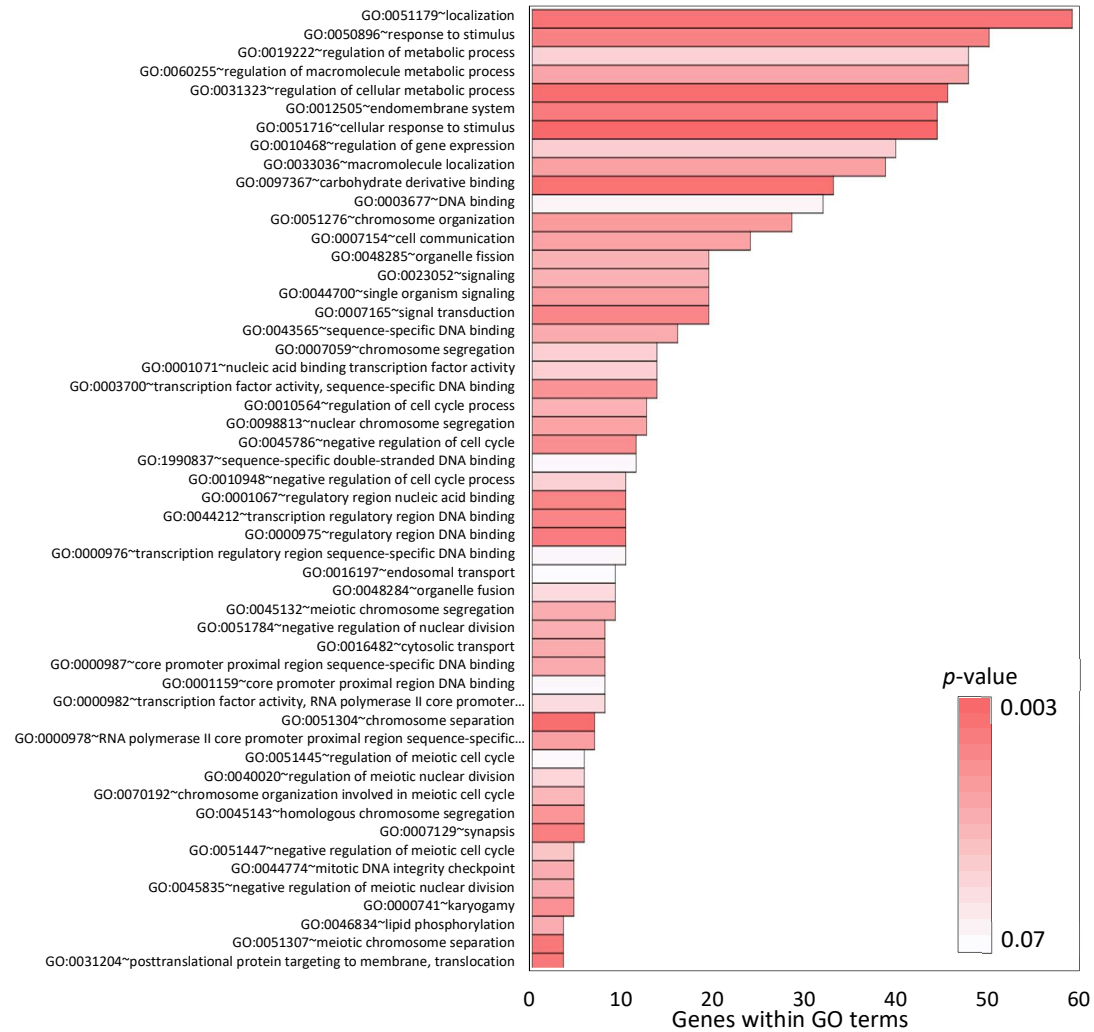


Figure S5.3 GO enriched terms from superior secretion category of selected genes. Biological process are displayed and are enriched among 146 genes that overlap.

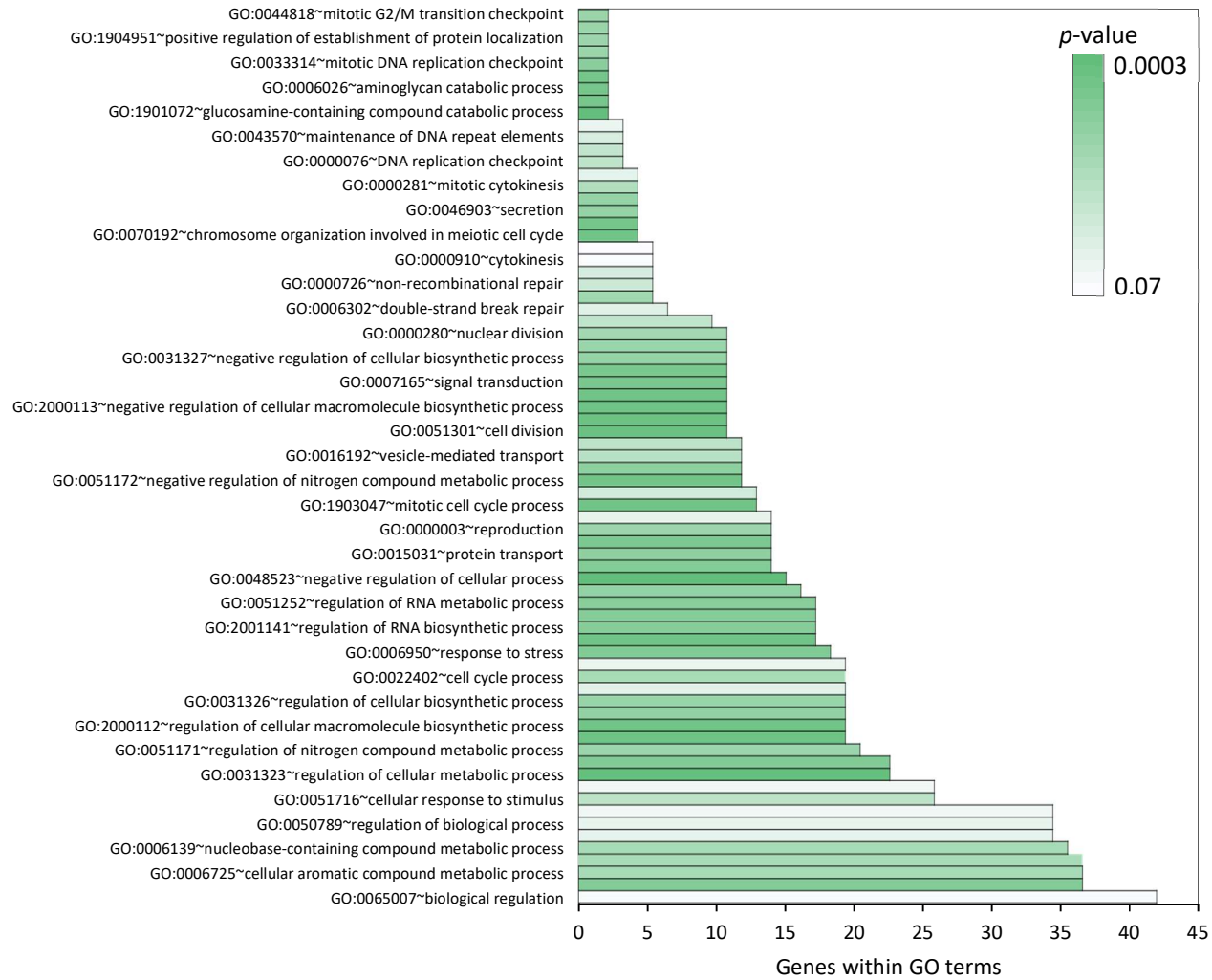


Figure S5.4 GO enriched terms from inferior secretion category of selected genes. Biological process are displayed and are enriched among 80 genes that overlap.

Table S5.1 Genome coverage of parental and pooled samples across the chromosomes.

Chromosomes	Average base coverage				
	ER12	YI13-C2	Superior pool	Inferior pool	Control pool
ChrI	50.5	40.0	44.6	35.7	40.3
ChrII	55.2	39.1	37.6	37.7	40.3
ChrIII	49.7	41.1	47.3	40.5	41.9
ChrIV	50.9	39.8	33.5	31.9	38.1
ChrV	51.7	39.5	40.9	35.9	42.4
ChrVI	54.5	40.6	48.1	39.7	43.7
ChrVII	49.8	40.1	36.2	38.5	40.8
ChrVIII	52.2	40.3	41.8	39.6	42.0
ChrIX	56.0	43.5	49.2	41.5	41.6
ChrX	50.3	44.1	41.5	44.3	41.4
ChrXI	51.1	39.4	42.2	37.1	40.0
ChrXII	50.1	45.4	38.2	39.9	42.7
ChrXIII	49.7	39.9	36.9	34.0	38.6
ChrXIV	50.1	40.6	41.3	34.7	40.8
ChrXV	50.2	40.2	36.7	33.1	39.6
ChrXVI	51.4	39.9	36.4	34.5	38.6
Average	51.1	41.3	38.2	38.9	39.9

Table S5.2 Candidate genes selected based on selected QTL regions data and SNP frequency differences between the lines inferred from NGS from resequencing.

Region name	Start Mbp	End Mbp	Size (Mbp)	Ensembl* genes	Filtered genes**
<i>Superior pool</i>					
ChrII_QTL1	436	472	36.36	27	21
ChrIV_QTL1	1066	1099	33.33	19	16
ChrIV-QTL2	1199	1233	33.33	26	19
ChrVII_QTL1	346	380	34.10	34	22
ChrXII_QTL1	334	362	28.08	15	12
ChrXII_QTL2	969	992	28.08	12	8
ChrXII_QTL3	438480	484640	46.16	34	6
ChrXV_QTL1	750	800	50.00	42	29
ChrX_QTL1	36360	56400	20.04	17	11
ChrX_QTL2	99900	131600	31.70	26	17
ChrX_QTL3	381200	418180	36.98	34	19
<i>Inferior pool</i>					
ChrXIV_QTL1	116	166	49.98	29	23
ChrXIII_QTL1	687	718	30.4	20	14
ChrXIII_QTL2	760	802	41.6	32	19

*Number of Ensembl genes in the initial list in the selected regions.

**Coding regions only.

Table S5.3 Filtering criteria/types of variations in the candidate genes that were selected from the QTL regions linked to the superior trait.

Criteria (%)	Superior parent							Inferior parent					
	QTLII-1	QTLIV-1	QTLIV-2	QTLVII-1	QTLXII-2	QTLXII-3	QTLXV-1	QTLX-1	QTLX-2	QTLX-3	QTLXIV-1	QTLXIII-1	QTLXIII-2
Variants processed (count)	275	185	155	238	121	65	302	105	286	203	462	227	401
Downstream gene variant	47	44	48	47	45	55	44	43	46	47	49	39	41
Upstream gene variant	42	46	43	45	40	42	47	43	45	45	37	44	49
Intron variant	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Synonymous variant*	67	65	63	64	71	57	60	60	69	61	65	54	66
Non-synonymous variant*	28	35	37	32	29	43	39	40	25	33	32	46	32
Stop gained*	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Stop/lost* (%)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Frameshift variant*	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	2	1	0	0
Inframe del.*	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0
Inframe insertion*	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	1

