Appl Microbiol Biotechnol (2013) 97:143–152 DOI 10.1007/s00253-012-4314-7

BIOTECHNOLOGICAL PRODUCTS AND PROCESS ENGINEERING

Reductive whole-cell biotransformation with Corynebacterium glutamicum: improvement of NADPH generation from glucose by a cyclized pentose phosphate pathway using pfkA and gapA deletion mutants

Solvej Siedler · Steffen N. Lindner · Stephanie Bringer · Volker F. Wendisch · Michael Bott

Received: 24 May 2012 /Revised: 16 July 2012 /Accepted: 16 July 2012 / Published online: 1 August 2012 \odot The Author(s) 2012. This article is published with open access at Springerlink.com

Abstract In this study, the potential of Corynebacterium glutamicum for reductive whole-cell biotransformation is shown. The NADPH-dependent reduction of the prochiral methyl acetoacetate (MAA) to the chiral (R) -methyl 3hydroxybutyrate (MHB) by an alcohol dehydrogenase from Lactobacillus brevis (Lbadh) was used as model reaction and glucose served as substrate for the regeneration of NADPH. Since NADPH is mainly formed in the oxidative branch of the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP), C. glutamicum was engineered to redirect carbon flux towards the PPP. Mutants lacking the genes for 6-phosphofructokinase (pfkA) or glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (gapA) were constructed and analyzed with respect to growth, enzyme activities, and biotransformation performance. Both mutants showed strong growth defects in glucose minimal medium. For biotransformation of MAA to MHB using glucose as reductant, strains were transformed with an Lbadh expression plasmid. The wild type showed a specific MHB production rate of 3.1 mmol_{MHB} h^{-1} g_{cdw}⁻¹ and a yield of 2.7 mol_{MHB} mol_{glucose}⁻¹. The Δ*pfkA* mutant showed a similar MHB production rate, but reached a yield of 4.8 mol_{MHB} mol_{glucose}⁻¹, approaching the maximal value of 6 mol $_{\text{NADPH}}$ molglucose expected for a partially cyclized PPP. The specific biotransformation rate of the $\Delta gapA$ mutant was decreased by 62 %

Solvej Siedler and Steffen N. Lindner contributed equally to this work.

S. Siedler \cdot S. Bringer (\boxtimes) \cdot M. Bott (\boxtimes)

Institut für Bio–und Geowissenschaften, IBG-1: Biotechnologie, Forschungszentrum Jülich GmbH, 52425 Jülich, Germany e-mail: st.bringer-meyer@fz-juelich.de e-mail: m.bott@fz-juelich.de

S. N. Lindner : V. F. Wendisch Faculty of Biology & CeBiTec, Bielefeld University, 33615 Bielefeld, Germany

compared to the other strains, but the yield was increased to 7.9 mol $_{\text{MHB}}$ mol $_{\text{glucose}}$ ⁻¹, which to our knowledge is the highest one reported so far for this mode of NADPH regeneration. As one fourth of the glucose was converted to glycerol, the experimental yield was close to the theoretically maximal yield of 9 mol $_{\text{NADPH}}$ mol_{glucose}⁻¹.

Keywords Corynebacterium glutamicum . Pathway engineering . NADPH yield . Pentose phosphate pathway . Resting cells . Reductive whole-cell biotransformation . Phosphofructokinase . Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase \cdot pfk \cdot gap

Introduction

Whole-cell biotransformation has become an important method in chemoenzymatic synthesis, e.g., for the production of amino acids and chiral alcohols (Ishige et al. [2005\)](#page-8-0). Corynebacterium glutamicum is a Gram-positive, nonpathogenic soil bacterium which is predominantly used for the large-scale industrial production of the flavor enhancer L-glutamate and the food additive L-lysine (Pfefferle et al. [2003;](#page-9-0) Kimura [2003](#page-8-0); Hermann [2003\)](#page-8-0). Recent metabolic engineering studies have shown that C. glutamicum is also capable of producing a variety of other commercially interesting compounds, e.g., other L-amino acids (Wendisch et al. [2006\)](#page-9-0), D-amino acids (Stäbler et al. [2011\)](#page-9-0), organic acids such as succinate (Okino et al. [2008;](#page-9-0) Litsanov et al. [2012a,](#page-9-0) [b](#page-9-0)), diamines such as cadaverine (Mimitsuka et al. [2007\)](#page-9-0) or putrescine (Schneider and Wendisch [2010\)](#page-9-0), biofuels such as ethanol or isobutanol (Inui et al. [2004](#page-8-0); Smith et al. [2010;](#page-9-0) Blombach et al. [2011](#page-8-0)), or proteins (Meissner et al. [2007\)](#page-9-0). An overview of the product spectrum of C. glutamicum can be found in a recent review (Becker and Wittmann [2011\)](#page-8-0).

C. glutamicum was also shown to be a suitable host for whole-cell biotransformation with resting cells for production of mannitol (Bäumchen and Bringer-Meyer [2007\)](#page-8-0) and cyclohexanone derivatives (Doo et al. [2009](#page-8-0); Yun et al. [2012](#page-9-0)). These reactions are often NAD(P)H dependent and cofactor recycling is crucial for profitable processes. For example, formate dehydrogenase or glucose dehydrogenase are used, but only 1 mol NAD(P)H can be generated from 1 mol formate or 1 mol glucose (Kaup et al. [2004](#page-8-0), [2005](#page-8-0); Ernst et al. [2005](#page-8-0); Eguchi et al. [1992;](#page-8-0) Tan [2006\)](#page-9-0). Use of metabolically active cells gives the opportunity to regenerate reduced cofactors via sugar metabolism and to gain a higher reduced cofactor to glucose ratio (Chin and Cirino [2011\)](#page-8-0).

In Escherichia coli, several attempts were made for engineering cellular metabolism towards a higher NADPH per glucose yield (Fasan et al. [2011;](#page-8-0) Akinterinwa and Cirino [2011\)](#page-8-0). NADPH is mainly generated in the oxidative branch of the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP), where glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase catalyzes the oxidation of glucose 6-phosphate to 6-phopshoglucono-δ-lactone and 6-phosphogluconate dehydrogenase, which catalyzes the oxidative decarboxylation of 6-phosphogluconate to ribulose 5-phosphate, yielding 2 mol NADPH (Fig. 1). Therefore, employment of the PPP is an interesting option for NADPHdependent processes (Chin and Cirino [2011;](#page-8-0) Chemler et al. [2010](#page-8-0)). In a recent study with E. coli, we analyzed the NADPHdependent reduction of the prochiral β-ketoester methyl acetoacetate (MAA) to the chiral hydroxy ester (R) -methyl 3-hydroxybutyrate (MHB) using glucose as substrate for the

generation of NADPH (Siedler et al. [2011](#page-9-0), [2012\)](#page-9-0). The reduction was catalyzed by an R-specific alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) from Lactobacillus brevis. MHB serves as a building block of statins (Panke and Wubbolts [2005](#page-9-0)). Deletion of pfkA and pfkB encoding phosphofructokinase I and II, respectively, resulted in a partial cyclization of the PPP and a yield of 5.4 $mol_{MHB} mol_{glucose}⁻¹$, which was near the theoretically maximal yield of 6 (Kruger and von Schaewen [2003](#page-8-0)).

To determine whether this metabolic engineering strategy can be generalized, is e.g. transferable to C. glutamicum, was one major goal of this study. It has to be kept in mind that differences exist in the repertoires of metabolic enzymes of E. coli and C. glutamicum. Of relevance for the present work is the occurrence of only one gene encoding a 6 phosphofructo1-kinase (pfk) and the absence of genes encoding transhydrogenases and the key enzymes of the Entner–Doudoroff-pathway in C. glutamicum (Yokota and Lindley [2005\)](#page-9-0). To further improve the NADPH per glucose yield, deletion of the glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (gapA) gene would be beneficial, as it should result in a complete cyclization of the PPP. Deletion of gapA theoretically enables a yield of 12 mol NADPH per mole of glucose 6-phosphate by complete recycling of fructose 6 phosphate and triose 3-phosphate through the oxidative PPP (Kruger and von Schaewen [2003](#page-8-0)). The gapB gene encoding a second glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase in C. glutamicum should not be relevant in this context, as GapB does not function in the glycolytic direction (Omumasaba et al. [2004](#page-9-0)).

Fig. 1 Scheme of the upper part of glycolysis and pentose phosphate pathway of C. glutamicum. Gene deletions and NADPH generating reactions are indicated. PTS phosphotransferase system, IolT1/IolT2 alternative glucose import system, Glk ATP-dependent glucokinase, PpgK polyphosphate/ATPdependent glucokinase, Pgi phosphoglucose isomerase, PfkA phosphofructokinase, GapA glyceraldehyde-3 phosphate dehydrogenase, DHAP dihydroxyacetone phosphate, PEP phosphoenolpyruvate

In this study, we analyzed C. *glutamicum* mutants lacking either pfkA or gapA for their behavior in reductive whole-cell biotransformation. The results supported the view that the PPP operates in cyclic manner, oxidizing glucose to $CO₂$ with concomitant reduction of NADP⁺ to NADPH.

Materials and methods

Chemicals and enzymes

Chemicals were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Taufkirchen, Germany), Qiagen (Hilden, Germany), Merck (Darmstadt, Germany), and Roche Diagnostics (Mannheim, Germany).

Bacterial strains, plasmids, media, and growth conditions

Strains and plasmids used in this work are listed in Table [1.](#page-3-0) E. coli strains were transformed by the method described by Hanahan ([1983\)](#page-8-0) and cultivated in LB medium (Miller [1972\)](#page-9-0). E. coli DH5α was used for cloning purposes and C. glutamicum ATCC 13032 and derivatives for gene expression and whole-cell biotransformation. When required, antibiotics were added to the medium at a final concentration of 50 μg kanamycin ml⁻¹ (pEKEx2-LbADH) or 100 μg spectinomycin ml^{-1} (pEKEx3 derivatives).

For growth experiments with C. glutamicum, 50-ml LB overnight cultures were inoculated from LB plates, harvested by centrifugation (10 min, $3,220 \times g$), washed in CgXII medium (Eggeling and Bott [2005\)](#page-8-0), and inoculated in CgXII medium containing 100 mM glucose to a final optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of 1. When appropriate, 1 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranosid (IPTG), 25 μ g ml⁻¹ kanamycin, and 100 μ g ml^{-1} spectinomycin was added. For all growth experiments, 500 ml baffled shake flasks with 50 ml CgXII medium were used and incubated at 30 °C and 120 rpm. Growth was followed by OD_{600} determination using a UV-1650 PC photometer (Shimadzu, Duisburg, Germany). The biomass concentration was calculated from OD_{600} values using an experimentally determined correlation factor of 0.25 g (dry weight) of cells (cdw) per liter for an OD_{600} of 1 (Kabus et al. [2007\)](#page-8-0). For the determination of enzyme activity in cell-free extracts, 50 ml LB medium containing 1 mM IPTG and 100 μg ml^{-1} spectinomycin was inoculated from LB overnight cultures to an OD_{600} of 0.5. At an OD_{600} of 4, cells were harvested by centrifugation (10 min, $3,220 \times g$, 4 °C) and stored at −20 °C until use.

Recombinant DNA work

Standard methods like polymerase chain reaction (PCR), restriction, or ligation were carried out according to established protocols (Sambrook and Russell [2001](#page-9-0)). E. coli cells were transformed by the CaCl₂ method (Hanahan et al. [1991\)](#page-8-0). DNA sequencing was performed by Eurofins MWG Operon (Germany). Oligonucleotides (listed in Table [2](#page-4-0)) were synthesized by Biolegio bv (Nijmegen, The Netherlands) and Eurofins MWG Operon (Germany).

Construction of deletion mutants and plasmids

C. glutamicum deletion mutants were constructed using pK19mobsacB (Schäfer et al. [1994](#page-9-0)) using the procedure described by Niebisch and Bott [\(2001\)](#page-9-0). Upstream and downstream flanking regions of *pfkA* (cg1409), and *gapA* (cg1791) were amplified by PCR using the oligonucleotide pairs pfkA-Del-A/pfkA-Del-B and pfkA-Del-C/pfkA-Del-D for deletion of pfkA, and gapA-Del-A/gapA-Del-B and gapA-Del-C/gapA-Del-D for deletion of *gapA* (see Table [2](#page-4-0) for primer sequences). The upstream and downstream flanking regions of each gene were fused by overlap extension PCR, resulting in a DNA fragment of about 1 kb. The resulting PCR products were cloned into SmaI-restricted vector pK19mobsacB resulting in pK19mobsacBΔpfkA, and pK19mobsacBΔgapA. The correctness of the cloned PCR fragments was confirmed by DNA sequencing. Transformation of C. glutamicum wild type with these plasmids and selection for the first and second homologous recombination was performed as described (Niebisch and Bott [2001](#page-9-0); Rittmann et al. [2003](#page-9-0)). Kanamycin-sensitive and sucrose-resistant clones were analyzed by PCR using oligonucleotide pairs pfkA-Del-Ver-fw/pfkA-Del-Ver-rv or gapA-Del-Ver-fw/gapA-Del-Ver-rv.

For the complementation of deletion mutants, the genes pfkA (cg1409), and gapA (cg1791) from C. glutamicum and the genes $p\hat{f}kA$ (b3916) and $p\hat{f}kB$ (b3916) from E. coli were amplified via PCR from genomic DNA of C. glutamicum WT, which was prepared as described previously (Eikmanns et al. [1995\)](#page-8-0), and E. coli MG1655 genomic DNA, which was prepared by using the DNA isolation kit (Roche, Mannheim, Germany). PCR was performed using the following oligonucleotide pairs: pfkA-cgl-fw/pfkA-cgl-rv, gapA-cgl-fw/ gapA-cgl-rv, pfkA-eco-fw/pfkA-eco-rv, and pfkB-eco-fw/ pfkB-eco-rv (see Table [2\)](#page-4-0). To allow IPTG-inducible expression of pfkA, and gapA from C. glutamicum and pfkA, and pfkB from E. coli the corresponding PCR products were ligated into the SmaI-restricted vector pEKEx3 resulting in $pEKEx3-pfka^{Cgl}$, $pEKEx3-gapA^{Cgl}$, $pEKEx3-pfka^{Eco}$, and $pEKEx3$ -pfk B^{Eco} .

For the construction of the expression plasmid pEKEx2- Lbadh, the adh gene of L. brevis was amplified together with a 9-bp linker and an artificial ribosome binding site (AAGGAG) using the oligonucleotides Lbadh_for and Lbadh rev and the plasmid pBtacLbadh as template (Ernst et al. [2005](#page-8-0)). The PCR product was digested with BamHI and EcoRI and cloned into the vector pEKEx2. The correctness

Table 1 Strains and plasmids used in this work

of the cloned PCR fragments in the plasmids was confirmed by DNA sequencing.

Enzyme activity assays

For the determination of alcohol dehydrogenase activity, cells were harvested by centrifugation (10,000×g, 4 °C, 5 min) 30 min after start of biotransformation and stored at −20 °C until use. The cells were resuspended in 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.5, with 1 mM dithiothreitol and 1 mM MgCl₂. Cells were disrupted at 4 °C by 3 \times 15 s bead-beating with 0.1-mm-diameter glass beads using a Silamat S5 (Ivoclar Vivadent GmbH, Germany) and crude extracts were centrifuged at $16,000 \times g$ (4 °C, 20 min) to remove intact cells and cell debris. The supernatants were used as cell-free extracts. Alcohol dehydrogenase activity was determined photometrically at 340 nm using a mixture of 10 mM methyl acetoacetate, 250 μM NADPH, and 1 mM $MgCl₂$ in 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.5. The reactions were started by adding different dilutions of the cell-free extract. For rate calculation, an extinction coefficient for NADPH at 340 nm of 6.22 mM⁻¹ cm⁻¹ was used. One unit of enzyme activity corresponds to 1 μmol NADPH consumed per minute.

For the determination of the specific activity of phosphofructokinase and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase, cells were harvested by centrifugation $(3,220\times g, 4\degree C,$ 10 min) and washed in the appropriate buffer (see below) Table 2 Sequences of oligonucleotide primers

Restriction sites are highlighted in bold; linker sequences for crossover PCR and ribosomal binding sites are shown in italics; stop and start codons are underlined

OE overexpression, Del deletion, RBS ribosomal binding site, Cgl C. glutamicum, Eco E. coli

and stored at −20 °C until use. Cells were resuspended in 1 ml of the buffer and cell-free extracts were prepared by sonification as described previously (Stansen et al. [2005\)](#page-9-0). All enzyme activity measurements were carried out at 30 °C. Protein concentrations were determined with bovine serum albumin as standard using Bradford reagents (Sigma, Taufkirchen, Germany).

6-Phosphofructokinase activity was measured spectrophotometrically at 340 nm according to Babul [\(1978](#page-8-0)) by a coupled enzymatic assay with pyruvate kinase and lactate dehydrogenase. ADP formed in kinase reaction was used to convert phosphoenolpyruvate to pyruvate, which was subsequently reduced to lactate with concomitant oxidation of NADH to NAD⁺. The assay solution contained 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 0.2 mM NADH, 1 mM ATP, 10 mM $MgCl₂$, and 0.2 mM phosphoenolpyruvate. One unit of enzyme activity corresponds to 1 μmol NADH oxidized per minute.

EcoRI

Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase activity was measured according to Omumasaba et al. [\(2004](#page-9-0)). The assay contained 1 mM NAD⁺, 50 mM Na₂HPO₄, 0.2 mM EDTA, and 0.5 mM glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate in 50 mM triethanolamine hydrochloride (TEA) buffer pH 8.5. One unit of enzyme activity corresponds to 1 μmol NADH formed per minute.

Whole-cell biotransformation

For cultivation of the different recombinant C. glutamicum strains carrying the pEKEx2-Lbadh plasmid, a single colony of each strain was inoculated into 10 ml BHIS medium (37 gl⁻¹ brain heart infusion, 91 gl⁻¹ sorbitol) containing the appropriate selection marker as described above and grown overnight at 30 °C and 120 rpm. These pre-cultures were used for inoculation of the main cultures to an optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of 0.4. Main cultures were grown in 100 ml BHIS medium in shake flasks in the presence of the appropriate selection marker and 0.5 mM IPTG at 30 °C and 120 rpm. The cells were harvested at an OD_{600} between 2.5 and 5 by centrifugation $(4,000 \times g, 4 \degree C, 7 \text{ min})$ and resuspended in a solution containing 111 mM glucose, 2 mM MgSO4, and 250 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.5, to a cell density of 3 g_{cdw} l^{-1} . The biotransformation was started by adding 50 mM MAA and conducted in shake flasks at 30 °C and 120 rpm to prevent cell sedimentation. Specific productivities (mmol_{MHB} h^{-1} g_{cdw}^{-1}) were determined by taking samples at 30–60-min time intervals over a period of 3 h. MHB and glucose concentrations of the samples were determined (see below). Specific productivities were calculated by dividing the slope of graphs showing MHB concentration vs. time by the cell dry weight, which remained constant.

Analysis of substrates and products

Methyl acetoacetate (MAA), (R)-methyl 3-hydroxybutyrate (MHB), glucose, and extracellular metabolites were analyzed by HPLC as described previously (Siedler et al. [2011](#page-9-0)).

Results

Growth behavior and in vitro enzyme activities of C. glutamicum wild-type and mutant strains

In a C. glutamicum mutant lacking 6-phosphofructokinase, glucose catabolism is forced to proceed via the pentose phosphate pathway. Fructose 6-phosphate formed in the PPP by transaldolase or transketolase has to re-enter the oxidative part of the PPP again and only glyceraldehyde 3 phosphate can be catabolized further via the lower part of the glycolytic pathway. Thus, the initial part of glucose catabolism in a $\Delta p f kA$ mutant can be described by the following equation: Glucose 6-phosphate + 6 NADP⁺ \rightarrow Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate + 3 CO_2 + 6 NADPH + 6 H⁺. Thus, 6 mol NADPH are formed per mole of glucose.

The deletion of the *pfkA* gene prevented growth in CgXII medium with 100 mM glucose (Table 3). The growth defect of the Δp fkA mutant was complemented to levels of the WT

control (0.32 h^{-1}) by plasmid-based overexpression of either the homologous *pfkA* gene from *C*. glutamicum (0.32 h⁻¹) or of the heterologous *pfkA* gene from E. coli (0.33 h⁻¹) and increased to 0.16 h⁻¹ by heterologous expression of *pfkB* from E. coli. The slow growth of $\Delta p f k A / p E K E x 3 - p f k B^{Eco}$ was accompanied by a significantly higher biomass yield of 10.8 g_1^{-1} compared to 8.4 g_1^{-1} of WT/pEKEx3 or 8.6 g_1^{-1} of strain $\Delta p f k A / p E K E x 3 - p f k A$ ^{Cgl}.

6-Phosphofructokinase activity was absent in the $pfkA$ deletion strain (Table 3). Plasmid-borne expression of C. glutamicum pfkA or of E. coli pfkA or pfkB increased phosphofructokinase activity in the WT background from 0.04 U mg⁻¹ to 0.12, 0.11, and 0.19 U mg⁻¹, respectively. In the Δp fkA background, phosphofructokinase activities of 0.10 to 0.13 U mg^{-1} were determined when either C. glutamicum pfkA or E. coli pfkA or pfkB was overexpressed (Table 3).

C. glutamicum possesses two glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenases, GapA and GapB, but only GapA functions in the glycolytic direction as a $\Delta gapA$ deletion mutant was unable to grow in glucose minimal medium whereas a Δ *gapB* mutant showed no growth defect under these conditions (Omumasaba et al. [2004](#page-9-0)). A complete block of glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate conversion to 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate should lead to a complete oxidation of glucose in the PPP according to the equation: Glucose + 6 H₂O + 12 $NADP^{+} \rightarrow 6 CO_{2} + 12 NADPH + 12 H^{+}$.

In agreement with previous results (Omumasaba et al. [2004\)](#page-9-0), a deletion of the gapA gene in strain ATCC 13032 resulted in an inability to grow in glucose minimal medium. This defect was complemented by plasmidbased overexpression of the $gapA$ gene. NAD⁺-dependent glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase activity of cell-free extracts was 0.15 U mg⁻¹ in WT/pEKEx3

Table 3 Growth rates (μ) and biomass concentrations [cell dry weight (cdw) l−¹] in glucose minimal medium with 1 mM IPTG and 100 μg ml^{-1} spectinomycin, and specific phosphofructokinase (Pfk) activity in cell extracts of the indicated C. glutamicum strains after cultivation in LB medium with 1 mM IPTG and 100 μ g ml⁻¹ spectinomycin

C. glutamicum	μ (h ⁻¹)	cdw $(g l^{-1})^a$	Pfk activity (µmol min ⁻¹ mg ⁻¹)
WT/pEKEx3	0.32 ± 0.00	8.43 ± 0.18	0.04 ± 0.01
WT/pEKEx3-pfkA ^{Cgl}	0.30 ± 0.00	8.13 ± 0.07	0.12 ± 0.02
WT/pEKEx3-pfkA ^{Eco}	0.32 ± 0.00	7.53 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.02
WT/pEKEx3-pfkBEco	0.32 ± 0.00	8.48 ± 0.03	0.19 ± 0.02
ApfkA/pEKEx3	0.00 ± 0.00	$0.14 \pm 0.01^{\rm b}$	0.00 ± 0.00
∆pfkA/pEKEx3-pfkA ^{Cgl}	0.32 ± 0.01	8.63 ± 0.07	0.10 ± 0.01
Δp fkA/pEKEx3-pfkA ^{Eco}	0.33 ± 0.00	7.93 ± 0.33	0.10 ± 0.02
ApfkA/pEKEx3-pfkBEco	0.16 ± 0.00	10.80 ± 0.10	0.13 ± 0.01

^a Determination of cdw at maximal biomass

^b Determination of cdw after 24 h

and absent in strain ΔgapA/pEKEx3. In strains WT/ pEKEx3-gapA and ΔgapA/pEKEx3-gapA, the glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase activity with NAD⁺ was found to be 0.26 and 0.13 U mg⁻¹, respectively (Table 4).

Biotransformation of MAA to MHB with the reference and the mutant strains

For biotransformation of MAA to MHB, the gene encoding the (R) -specific alcohol dehydrogenase of L. brevis (Lbadh) was overexpressed in C. glutamicum WT and in the deletion strains ΔpfkA and ΔgapA using plasmid pEKEx2-Lbadh. The specific NADPH-dependent MAA dehydrogenase activity in cell-free extracts of these strains was similar, ranging from 0.51 to 0.76 U mg⁻¹ in independent experiments. Assuming that the in vivo activities are comparable, they are not limiting the biotransformation rate. The C. glutamicum wild type showed a MAA dehydrogenase activity below 0.01 U mg−¹ with either NADPH or NADH as cofactor indicating that the biotransformation occurred only in the presence of the recombinant ADH from L. brevis. For the biotransformation, the strains were cultivated in BHIS medium to the exponential growth phase and then harvested and resuspended in 250 mM potassium phosphate buffer pH 6.5 containing 111 mM glucose and 2 mM $MgSO₄$ to a cell density of 3 g_{cdw} Γ ¹. The resulting cell suspensions were incubated at 30 °C and 120 rpm and the biotransformation was started by adding 50 mM MAA.

The kinetics of MHB production and of glucose consumption of the wild-type and the two mutant strains carrying pEKEx2-Lbadh over a period of 180 min are shown in Fig. [2,](#page-7-0) and the rates and yields are listed in Table [5.](#page-7-0) It is evident from Fig. [2](#page-7-0) that the rates of MHB production and glucose consumption were almost constant within the time period investigated and proportional to each other. The strain WT/pEKEx2-Lbadh showed an MHB production rate

Table 4 Growth rates (μ) and biomass concentrations [cell dry weight (cdw) l−¹] in glucose minimal medium with 1 mM IPTG and 100 μg ml⁻¹ spectinomycin, and specific NAD⁺-dependent glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) activity in cell extracts of the indicated C. glutamicum strains after cultivation in LB medium with 1 mM IPTG and 100 μ g ml⁻¹ spectinomycin

C. glutamicum	μ (h ⁻¹)		cdw $(g l^{-1})^a$ GAPDH activity (μ mol min ⁻¹ mg ⁻¹)	
WT/pEKEx3	0.33 ± 0.01 7.80 ± 0.07		0.15 ± 0.02	
WT/pEKEx3-gapA ^{Cgl}	0.31 ± 0.00 8.08 ± 0.11		0.26 ± 0.03	
Δ gapA/pEKEx3		0.00 ± 0.01 0.00 ± 0.00^b	0.00 ± 0.00	
Δ gapA/pEKEx3-gapA ^{Cgl}		0.27 ± 0.01 7.99 ± 0.30	0.13 ± 0.02	

^a Determination of cdw at maximal biomass

^b Determination of cdw after 24 h

of 3.14 mmol h^{-1} g_{cdw}^{-1} and a glucose consumption rate of 1.17 mmol h^{-1} g_{cdw} ⁻¹. This resulted in a MHB yield of 2.7 mol per mole of glucose, corresponding to an NADPH yield of 2.7 mol per mole of glucose. The strain $\Delta p f k A/$ pEKEx2-Lbadh had an 8 % reduced MHB production rate and a 49 % reduced glucose consumption rate, resulting in a 78 % increased MHB yield of 4.8 mol per mole of glucose. The strain Δ *gapA*/pEKEx2-*Lbadh* showed a 62 % decreased MHB production rate and an 87 % reduced glucose consumption rate, corresponding to a 193 % increase of the MHB yield of 7.9 mol per mole of glucose. As discussed below, the strongly reduced glucose uptake rate of the strain ΔgapA/pEKEx2-Lbadh is most likely a consequence of the fact that the strain does not form PEP.

By-product formation of wild-type and mutant strains

During biotransformation, by-product formation was nearly constant and specific rates were calculated (Table [5](#page-7-0)). The strain WT/pEKEx2-Lbadh showed an acetate formation rate $(1.19 \text{ mmol h}^{-1} g_{cdw}^{-1})$ comparable to the glucose consumption rate (1.17 mmol $h^{-1} g_{cdw}^{-1}$). In addition, WT/pEKEx2-Lbadh formed succinate as by-product with a rate of 0.19 mmol h^{-1} g_{cdw}⁻¹. A low acetate production rate of 0.05 mmol h⁻¹ g_{cdw} ⁻¹ was shown by the strain $\Delta p f k A/$ pEKEx2-Lbadh, which corresponds to only 8 % of the glucose uptake rate. Succinate was not formed by $\Delta p f k A/$ pEKEx2-Lbadh. The strain ΔgapA/pEKEx2-Lbadh formed neither acetate nor succinate, but glycerol with a rate of 0.08 mmol h^{-1} g_{cdw}^{-1} , which corresponds to 53 % of the glucose consumption rate. As glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate cannot be catabolized to pyruvate in the $\Delta gapA$ mutant, reduction to glycerol presents an alternative pathway to oxidation in the cyclic PPP.

Discussion

For reductive whole-cell biotransformations requiring NADPH, attempts were made in this work to increase the NADPH yield per mole of glucose using C. glutamicum as host strain and the reduction of MAA to MHB as NADPHrequiring model reaction. Rerouting of glucose catabolism from glycolysis to the oxidative PPP was achieved by deletion of either the pfkA gene or the gapA gene.

C. glutamicum wild type carrying pEKEx2-Lbadh showed a 31 % lower specific MHB production rate compared to E. coli carrying pBtac-Lbadh, even when compared to an E. coli biotransformation conducted at 30 °C (unpublished data). This difference might be due to a lower glucose uptake capacity or to a generally lower metabolic flux capacity of C. glutamicum. Overexpression of the genes involved in glucose uptake and catabolism via glycolysis

Fig. 2 Kinetics of MHB production (open squares) and glucose consumption (filled squares) during biotransformation of MAA to MHB using resting cells (3 g_{cdw} l^{-1}) of the indicated C. glutamicum strains

carrying the plasmid pEKEx2-Lbadh. The cell suspensions were incubated at 30 °C and 120 rpm. Mean values and standard deviations from three independent experiments are shown

or PPP could improve the rate of glucose catabolism, as shown recently for oxygen-deprived conditions (Yamamoto et al. [2012](#page-9-0); Jojima et al. [2010](#page-8-0)). The MHB per glucose yield found for C. glutamicum WT/pEKEx2-Lbadh (2.7 mol/mol) was 10 % higher than the corresponding value determined for E. coli BL21(DE3)/pBtac-Lbadh (2.44 mol/mol) (Siedler et al. [2011](#page-9-0)), which might be due to slight differences in the partition of glucose 6-phosphate between glycolysis and the PPP.

Biotransformation studies with E. coli ΔpfkA and ΔpfkAΔpfkB mutants expressing Lbadh showed yields of 4.8 and 5.4 mol_{MHB} mol_{glucose}⁻¹, respectively (Siedler et al. [2011\)](#page-9-0). ¹³C metabolic flux analysis demonstrated a negative net flux through phosphoglucose isomerase in the Δp fkA mutant, in compliance with the proposed partial cyclization of the PPP (Siedler et al. [2012\)](#page-9-0). The MHB yield per glucose of the E. coli strain ΔpfkA/pBtac-Lbadh was comparable to that of the C. glutamicum strain $\Delta p f k A/$ $pEKEx2-Lbadh$ (4.8 mol_{MHB} mol_{glucose}⁻¹), indicating that a partial cyclization of the PPP occurred in the latter species, too. Furthermore, similarities were found when comparing by-product formation in E. coli and C. glutamicum. Less acetate and no succinate was produced in both ΔpfkA mutant strains compared to the reference strains within the experimental period, presumably as a consequence of a decreased carbon flux through the lower part of glycolysis and the TCA cycle in these mutants (Siedler et al. [2012\)](#page-9-0).

C. glutamicum possesses two glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenases (GAPDH), but only GapA functions in the glycolytic direction (Omumasaba et al. [2004\)](#page-9-0). Thus, a deletion of the corresponding gene theoretically should result in a cyclization of the PPP. The fact that the MHB per glucose yield of the strain ΔgapA/pEKEx2-Lbadh (7.9 mol/ mol) was higher compared to the strain $\Delta p f k A / p E K E x 2$ -Lbadh and corresponded to 66 % of the maximal value of 12 mol NADPH per mole of glucose indicated a more extended cyclic operation of the PPP in the $\Delta gapA$ mutant compared to the Δp fkA mutant. The maximal value for a complete oxidation of glucose in the PPP was not reached because 25 % of the glucose carbon was lost by reduction of glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate to glycerol. Taking this loss into account, only 9 mol_{MHB} mol_{glucose}⁻¹ could be achieved maximally. The experimental yield of 7.9 mol_{MHB} mol_{glucose}⁻¹ corresponds to 88 % of this value and is 46 % above the best yields reported so far (Chin and Cirino [2011;](#page-8-0) Siedler et al. [2011](#page-9-0), [2012](#page-9-0)). Future yield optimization could be achieved by deletion of the gene encoding glycerol 3-phosphatase. Such a deletion was recently shown to prevent glycerol formation, which predominantly occurs in fructose-utilizing C. glutamicum strains (Lindner et al. [2012\)](#page-9-0).

The strongly reduced biotransformation rate of the strain Δ *gapA*/pEKEx2-*Lbadh* was probably a consequence of the diminished capability for glucose uptake. In a Δ *gapA* mutant, no PEP should be formed during glucose catabolism and consequently, glucose uptake via the PTS should be impossible. PTS-independent glucose uptake has recently been described for C. glutamicum. It involves the inositol transporters IolT1 and IolT2 which also function as lowaffinity glucose permeases (Lindner et al. [2011\)](#page-9-0). Subsequent phosphorylation of glucose to glucose 6-phosphate is

Table 5 Biotransformation parameters and by-product formation of C. glutamicum wild-type and deletion mutants carrying plasmid pEKEx2-Lbadh

C. glutamicum strain	Specific MHB production rate (mmol $h^{-1} g_{cdw}^{-1}$)	Specific glucose consumption rate (mmol h^{-1} g_{cdw} ⁻¹)	Yield (mol _{MHB}) mol _{Glucose}	Specific acetate formation rate (mmol $h^{-1} g_{cdw}^{-1}$)	Specific succinate formation rate (mmol h^{-1} g_{cdw} ⁻¹)	Specific glycerol formation rate (mmol h^{-1} g_{cdw} ⁻¹)
WT/pEKEx2-Lbadh	3.14 ± 0.13	1.17 ± 0.07	2.7 ± 0.1	1.19 ± 0.01	0.19 ± 0.01	0
Δp fkA/pEKEx2-Lbadh	2.88 ± 0.08	0.60 ± 0.01	4.8 ± 0.2	0.05 ± 0.01		0
Δ gapA/pEKEx2-Lbadh	1.20 ± 0.04	0.15 ± 0.03	7.9 ± 0.9	θ		0.08 ± 0.04

catalyzed either by an ATP-dependent glucokinase encoded by glk (Park et al. [2000\)](#page-9-0) or by the polyphosphate- or ATPdependent glucose kinase PpgK (Lindner et al. 2010). It can be assumed that glucose uptake during biotransformation with the Δ *gapA* mutant occurs via this alternative pathway, as the observed glucose consumption rate of 2.5 nmol min−¹ mg_{cdw}^{-1} (Table [5](#page-7-0)) at glucose concentrations >10-fold above the apparent K_s values of IolT1 and IolT2 (2.8 and 1.9 mM, respectively) is in the range determined for PTS-independent glucose uptake at 1 mM glucose (0.7 nmol min⁻¹ mg_{cdw}⁻¹) (Lindner et al. [2011](#page-9-0)). Overexpression of either iolT1 or iolT2 together with ppgK was shown to allow almost wild-type growth rates in a PTS-negative mutant (Lindner et al. [2011\)](#page-9-0) and thus would probably also allow higher biotransformation rates of a Δ *gapA* mutant. Alternatively, expression of the glucose facilitator gene glf from Zymomonas mobilis could help to increase glucose uptake (Weisser et al. [1995](#page-9-0); Parker et al. [1995\)](#page-9-0).

Overall, we could demonstrate the potential of C. glutamicum for NADPH-dependent reductive whole-cell biotransformation and show that deletion of either pfkA or gapA is beneficial to improve the NADPH per glucose yield, presumably by cyclization of the PPP.

Acknowledgments This work was supported by the Ministry of Innovation, Science, Research and Technology of North Rhine-Westphalia (BioNRW, Technology Platform Biocatalysis, RedoxCell support code—W0805wb001b).

Open Access This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License which permits any use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author(s) and the source are credited.

References

- Abe S, Takayarna K, Kinoshita S (1967) Taxonomical studies on glutamic acid producing bacteria. J Gen Appl Microbiol 13 (3):279–301
- Akinterinwa O, Cirino PC (2011) Anaerobic obligatory xylitol production in Escherichia coli strains devoid of native fermentation pathways. Appl Environ Microbiol 77(2):706–709
- Babul J (1978) Phosphofructokinases from Escherichia coli. Purification and characterization of the nonallosteric isozyme. J Biol Chem 253 (12):4350–4355
- Bäumchen C, Bringer-Meyer S (2007) Expression of g/f_{Zm} increases D-mannitol formation in whole cell biotransformation with resting cells of Corynebacterium glutamicum. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 76(3):545–552
- Becker J, Wittmann C (2011) Bio-based production of chemicals, materials and fuels—Corynebacterium glutamicum as versatile cell factory. Curr Opin Biotechnol. doi[:10.1016/j.copbio.2011.11.012](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.copbio.2011.11.012)
- Blombach B, Riester T, Wieschalka S, Ziert C, Youn JW, Wendisch VF, Eikmanns BJ (2011) Corynebacterium glutamicum tailored for efficient isobutanol production. Appl Environ Microbiol 77 (10):3300–3310
- Chemler JA, Fowler ZL, McHugh KP, Koffas MA (2010) Improving NADPH availability for natural product biosynthesis in Escherichia coli by metabolic engineering. Metab Eng 12(2):96–104
- Chin JW, Cirino PC (2011) Improved NADPH supply for xylitol production by engineered Escherichia coli with glycolytic mutations. Biotechnol Prog 27(2):333–341
- Doo EH, Lee WH, Seo HS, Seo JH, Park JB (2009) Productivity of cyclohexanone oxidation of the recombinant Corynebacterium glutamicum expressing chnB of Acinetobacter calcoaceticus. J Biotechnol 142(2):164–169
- Eggeling L, Bott M (eds) (2005) Handbook of Corynebacterium glutamicum. CRC, Boca Raton, pp 535–568
- Eguchi T, Kuge Y, Inoue K, Yoshikawa N, Mochida K, Uwajima T (1992) NADPH regeneration by glucose dehydrogenase from Gluconobacter scleroides for l-leucovorin synthesis. Biosci Biotechnol Biochem 56(5):701–703
- Eikmanns BJ, Kleinertz E, Liebl W, Sahm H (1991) A family of Corynebacterium glutamicum/Escherichia coli shuttle vectors for cloning, controlled gene expression, and promoter probing. Gene 102(1):93–98
- Eikmanns BJ, Rittmann D, Sahm H (1995) Cloning, sequence analysis, expression, and inactivation of the Corynebacterium glutamicum icd gene encoding isocitrate dehydrogenase and biochemical characterization of the enzyme. J Bacteriol 177(3):774–782
- Ernst M, Kaup B, Müller M, Bringer-Meyer S, Sahm H (2005) Enantioselective reduction of carbonyl compounds by whole-cell biotransformation, combining a formate dehydrogenase and a (R)-specific alcohol dehydrogenase. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 66 (6):629–634
- Fasan R, Crook NC, Peters MW, Meinhold P, Buelter T, Landwehr M, Cirino PC, Arnold FH (2011) Improved product-per-glucose yields in P450-dependent propane biotransformations using engineered Escherichia coli. Biotechnol Bioeng 108(3):500–510
- Hanahan D (1983) Studies on transformation of Escherichia coli with plasmids. J Mol Biol 166(4):557–580
- Hanahan D, Jessee J, Bloom FR (1991) Plasmid transformation of Escherichia coli and other bacteria. Methods Enzymol 204:63– 113
- Hermann T (2003) Industrial production of amino acids by coryneform bacteria. J Biotechnol 104(1–3):155–172
- Inui M, Kawaguchi H, Murakami S, Vertes AA, Yukawa H (2004) Metabolic engineering of Corynebacterium glutamicum for fuel ethanol production under oxygen-deprivation conditions. J Mol Microbiol Biotechnol 8(4):243–254
- Ishige T, Honda K, Shimizu S (2005) Whole organism biocatalysis. Curr Opin Chem Biol 9(2):174–180
- Jojima T, Fujii M, Mori E, Inui M, Yukawa H (2010) Engineering of sugar metabolism of Corynebacterium glutamicum for production of amino acid L-alanine under oxygen deprivation. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 87(1):159–165
- Kabus A, Niebisch A, Bott M (2007) Role of cytochrome bd oxidase from Corynebacterium glutamicum in growth and lysine production. Appl Environ Microbiol 73(3):861–868
- Kaup B, Bringer-Meyer S, Sahm H (2004) Metabolic engineering of Escherichia coli: construction of an efficient biocatalyst for D-mannitol formation in a whole-cell biotransformation. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 64(3):333–339
- Kaup B, Bringer-Meyer S, Sahm H (2005) D-Mannitol formation from D-glucose in a whole-cell biotransformation with recombinant Escherichia coli. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 69(4):397–403
- Kimura E (2003) Metabolic engineering of glutamate production. Adv Biochem Eng Biotechnol 79:37–57
- Kruger NJ, von Schaewen A (2003) The oxidative pentose phosphate pathway: structure and organisation. Curr Opin Plant Biol 6 (3):236–246
- Lindner SN, Knebel S, Pallerla SR, Schoberth SM, Wendisch VF (2010) Cg2091 encodes a polyphosphate/ATP-dependent glucokinase of Corynebacterium glutamicum. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 87(2):703–713
- Lindner SN, Seibold GM, Henrich A, Krämer R, Wendisch VF (2011) Phosphotransferase system-independent glucose utilization in Corynebacterium glutamicum by inositol permeases and glucokinases. Appl Environ Microbiol 77(11):3571–3581
- Lindner SN, Meiswinkel TM, Panhorst M, Youn JW, Wiefel L, Wendisch VF (2012) Glycerol-3-phosphatase of Corynebacterium glutamicum. J Biotechnol. doi[:10.1016/j.jbiotec.2012.02.003](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiotec.2012.02.003)
- Litsanov B, Brocker M, Bott M (2012a) Towards homosuccinate fermentation: metabolic engineering of Corynebacterium glutamicum for anaerobic succinate production from glucose and formate. Appl Environ Microbiol. doi[:10.1128/AEM.07790-11](http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AEM.07790-11)
- Litsanov B, Kabus A, Brocker M, Bott M (2012b) Efficient aerobic succinate production from glucose in minimal medium with Corynebacterium glutamicum. Microb Biotechnol 5(1):116–128
- Meissner D, Vollstedt A, van Dijl JM, Freudl R (2007) Comparative analysis of twin-arginine (Tat)-dependent protein secretion of a heterologous model protein (GFP) in three different Gram-positive bacteria. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 76(3):633–642
- Miller JH (ed) (1972) Experiments in molecular genetics. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York
- Mimitsuka T, Sawai H, Hatsu M, Yamada K (2007) Metabolic engineering of Corynebacterium glutamicum for cadaverine fermentation. Biosci Biotechnol Biochem 71(9):2130–2135
- Niebisch A, Bott M (2001) Molecular analysis of the cytochrome bc_1 -aa₃ branch of the Corynebacterium glutamicum respiratory chain containing an unusual diheme cytochrome c_1 . Arch Microbiol 175(4):282–294
- Okino S, Noburyu R, Suda M, Jojima T, Inui M, Yukawa H (2008) An efficient succinic acid production process in a metabolically engineered Corynebacterium glutamicum strain. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 81(3):459–464
- Omumasaba CA, Okai N, Inui M, Yukawa H (2004) Corynebacterium glutamicum glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase isoforms with opposite, ATP-dependent regulation. J Mol Microbiol Biotechnol 8(2):91–103
- Panke S, Wubbolts M (2005) Advances in biocatalytic synthesis of pharmaceutical intermediates. Curr Opin Chem Biol 9(2):188–194
- Park SY, Kim HK, Yoo SK, Oh TK, Lee JK (2000) Characterization of glk, a gene coding for glucose kinase of Corynebacterium glutamicum. FEMS Microbiol Lett 188(2):209–215
- Parker C, Barnell WO, Snoep JL, Ingram LO, Conway T (1995) Characterization of the Zymomonas mobilis glucose facilitator gene product (glf) in recombinant Escherichia coli: examination of transport mechanism, kinetics and the role of glucokinase in glucose transport. Mol Microbiol 15(5):795–802
- Pfefferle W, Möckel B, Bathe B, Marx A (2003) Biotechnological manufacture of lysine. Adv Biochem Eng Biotechnol 79:59–112
- Rittmann D, Schaffer S, Wendisch VF, Sahm H (2003) Fructose-1, 6-bisphosphatase from Corynebacterium glutamicum: expression and deletion of the fbp gene and biochemical characterization of the enzyme. Arch Microbiol 180(4):285–292
- Sambrook J, Russell DW (eds) (2001) Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor
- Schäfer A, Tauch A, Jäger W, Kalinowski J, Thierbach G, Pühler A (1994) Small mobilizable multi-purpose cloning vectors derived from the Escherichia coli plasmids pK18 and pK19: selection of defined deletions in the chromosome of Corynebacterium glutamicum. Gene 145(1):69–73
- Schneider J, Wendisch VF (2010) Putrescine production by engineered Corynebacterium glutamicum. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 88 (4):859–868
- Siedler S, Bringer S, Bott M (2011) Increased NADPH availability in Escherichia coli: improvement of the product per glucose ratio in reductive whole-cell biotransformation. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 92(5):929–937
- Siedler S, Bringer S, Blank LM, Bott M (2012) Engineering yield and rate of reductive biotransformation in Escherichia coli by partial cyclization of the pentose phosphate pathway and PTSindependent glucose transport. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 93 (4):1459–1467
- Smith KM, Cho KM, Liao JC (2010) Engineering Corynebacterium glutamicum for isobutanol production. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 87(3):1045–1055
- Stäbler N, Oikawa T, Bott M, Eggeling L (2011) Corynebacterium glutamicum as a host for synthesis and export of D-amino acids. J Bacteriol 193(7):1702–1709
- Stansen C, Uy D, Delaunay S, Eggeling L, Goergen JL, Wendisch VF (2005) Characterization of a Corynebacterium glutamicum lactate utilization operon induced during temperature-triggered glutamate production. Appl Environ Microbiol 71(10):5920–5928
- Tan I (2006) Applications of whole cell biotransformations for the production of chiral alcohols. Rheinische Friedrich-Wilhelms University of Bonn, Bonn, Dissertation
- Weisser P, Krämer R, Sahm H, Sprenger GA (1995) Functional expression of the glucose transporter of Zymomonas mobilis leads to restoration of glucose and fructose uptake in Escherichia coli mutants and provides evidence for its facilitator action. J Bacteriol 177(11):3351–3354
- Wendisch VF, Bott M, Eikmanns BJ (2006) Metabolic engineering of Escherichia coli and Corynebacterium glutamicum for biotechnological production of organic acids and amino acids. Curr Opin Microbiol 9(3):268–274
- Yamamoto S, Gunji W, Suzuki H, Toda H, Suda M, Jojima T, Inui M, Yukawa H (2012) Overexpression of glycolytic genes enhances Corynebacterium glutamicum glucose metabolism and alanine production under oxygen-deprived conditions. Appl Environ Microbiol. doi[:10.1128/AEM.07998-11](http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AEM.07998-11)
- Yokota A, Lindley ND (2005) Central metabolism: sugar uptake and conversion. In: Eggeling L, Bott M (eds) Handbook of Corynebacterium glutamicum. CRC, Boca Raton, pp 215– 240
- Yun JY, Lee JE, Yang KM, Cho S, Kim A, Kwon YE, Park JB (2012) Ethambutol-mediated cell wall modification in recombinant Corynebacterium glutamicum increases the biotransformation rates of cyclohexanone derivatives. Bioprocess Biosyst Eng 35(1–2):211–216