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# 1 The alcohol acetyltransferase Eat1 is located in yeast mitochondria

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# 14 Abstract

15 Eat1 is a recently discovered alcohol acetyltransferase responsible for bulk ethyl acetate 16 production in yeasts such as Wickerhamomyces anomalus and Kluyveromyces lactis. These 17 yeasts have the potential to become efficient biobased ethyl acetate producers. However, 18 some fundamental features of Eat1 are still not understood, which hampers the rational 19 engineering of efficient production strains. The cellular location of Eat1 in yeast is one of 20 these features. To reveal its location, Eat1 was fused with vEGFP to allow intracellular 21 tracking. Despite the current assumption that bulk ethyl acetate production occurs in the 22 yeast cytosol, most of Eat1 localised to the mitochondria of K. lactis CBS 2359 Δku80. We 23 then compared five bulk ethyl acetate-producing yeasts in iron-limited chemostats with glucose as carbon source. All yeasts produced ethyl acetate under these conditions. This 24 25 strongly suggests that the mechanism and location of bulk ethyl acetate synthesis are similar 26 in these yeast strains. Furthermore, an in silico analysis showed that Eat1 proteins from 27 various yeasts were mostly predicted as mitochondrial. Altogether, it is concluded that Eat1-28 catalyzed ethyl acetate production occurs in yeast mitochondria. This study has added new 29 insights to bulk ethyl acetate synthesis in yeast, which is relevant for developing efficient 30 production strains.

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# 31 Importance

32 Ethyl acetate is a common bulk chemical that is currently produced from petrochemical 33 sources. Several Eat1-containing yeast strains naturally produce high amounts of ethyl 34 acetate and are potential cell factories for the production of biobased ethyl acetate. Rational 35 design of the underlying metabolic pathways may result in improved production strains, but it 36 requires fundamental knowledge on the function of Eat1. A key feature is the location of Eat1 in the yeast cell. The precursors for ethyl acetate synthesis can be produced in multiple 37 38 cellular compartments through different metabolic pathways. The location of Eat1 determines 39 the relevance of each pathway, which will provide future targets for the metabolic 40 engineering of bulk ethyl acetate production in yeast.

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# 41 Introduction

42 Ethyl acetate is a valuable bulk chemical and an important aroma compound in fermented 43 foods (1). Industrially, ethyl acetate is produced from petrochemical resources, but biological 44 production routes have been explored in recent years. Yeasts are prominent natural ethyl 45 acetate producers. Ester production is well known in Saccharomyces cerevisiae, which 46 typically produces between 8 and 32 mg/L ethyl acetate in beer fermentations (2). Several 47 non-Saccharomyces yeast species produce ethyl acetate from carbohydrates at a much 48 higher yield than S. cerevisiae (3). Ethyl acetate yields up to 51.4 % of the theoretical 49 pathway maximum have been reported in Kluyveromyces marxianus (4). Other bulk ethyl 50 acetate producing yeasts include Wickerhamomyces anomalus (5, 6), Cyberlindnera fabianii (7) and Kluyveromyces lactis (8). 51

Alcohol acetyl transferases (AATs) are the main ethyl acetate producing enzymes which use acetyl-CoA and ethanol as substrate. Most research on ethyl acetate producing AATs in yeast is based on Atf1 and Atf2 from *S. cerevisiae* (9, 10). A *S. cerevisiae* strain lacking *atf1* and *atf2* produced 50 % less ethyl acetate compared to the parental strain (11). Homologs of Atf1 and Atf2 are present in bulk ethyl acetate producing yeasts (12, 13).

57 The prevailing hypothesis on the physiological function of bulk ethyl acetate production 58 suggests that it is produced as an overflow metabolite under conditions where the TCA cycle 59 does not function optimally (3, 14). Yeasts that naturally produce bulk amounts of ethyl 60 acetate are Crabtree-negative. They oxidise glucose and other carbohydrates to pyruvate in the cytosol. Under aerobic conditions, Crabtree-negative yeasts preferentially transport the 61 62 pyruvate to the mitochondria. There, it is further oxidised via pyruvate dehydrogenase to 63 acetyl-CoA (Figure 1, Reaction I) and subsequently oxidized in the TCA cycle (19). Ethyl 64 acetate is formed under conditions where the efficiency of the TCA cycle is impaired by e.g. 65 iron or oxygen limitation (15, 16). As a consequence, acetyl-CoA cannot enter the TCA cycle and accumulates in the mitochondria. It is assumed that yeasts use an AAT-catalysed 66

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67 reaction to relieve the acetyl-CoA accumulation and regenerate free CoA (3, 18). Ethyl
68 acetate is formed in the process. This hypothesis would imply that mitochondrial acetyl-CoA
69 accumulation causes ethyl acetate production (17).

70 Ethanol is the second substrate needed for ethyl acetate synthesis by AATs. Crabtree-71 negative yeasts typically do not form ethanol under aerobic conditions. However, unfavourable conditions, such as iron limitation, lead to ethanol formation in K. marxianus 72 73 even in the presence of oxygen (16, 20). Ethanol is produced from pyruvate via acetaldehyde 74 in the cytosol (Figure 1). The acetaldehyde may also be converted to acetate and further to 75 cytosolic acetyl-CoA via acetyl-CoA synthetase (Figure 1, Reaction II). This reaction is 76 essential in most yeasts as it supplies acetyl-CoA for fatty acid synthesis (21). However, 77 during aerobic growth on sugars, the acetyl-CoA flux in the cytosol is much lower compared 78 to the mitochondria (22). It is therefore unlikely that it contributes significantly to bulk ethyl 79 acetate synthesis. Moreover, bulk ethyl acetate synthesis in yeast does not occur in the 80 absence of oxygen (17). Under anaerobic conditions, carbohydrate catabolism occurs in the 81 cytosol, and mitochondrial acetyl-CoA cannot accumulate. These observations strongly 82 suggest that acetyl-CoA used to synthesise ethyl acetate is derived from the mitochondria.

83 Atf1, Atf2 and their homologs appear to be cytosolic, or located in the endoplasmic reticulum 84 (23-25). A translocation step would therefore be required to transfer acetyl-CoA from the 85 mitochondria to the cytosol. Some yeasts are able to translocate acetyl-CoA to the cytosol in 86 the form of citrate. This shunt relies on the presence of ATP-citrate lyase, which converts 87 citrate to acetyl-CoA and oxaloacetate at the expense of one ATP (Figure 1, Reaction III). 88 The reaction is typically present in oleaginous yeasts, such as Yarrowia lipolytica or 89 Rhodosporidium toruloides (26, 27). It is not known if ATP-citrate lyase is present in any of 90 the yeasts that produce high amounts of ethyl acetate. Without this enzyme, transport of acetyl-CoA from the mitochondria to the cytosol is unlikely. 91

92 The hypothetical function of bulk ethyl acetate production is the release of excess 93 mitochondrial acetyl-CoA. However, the previously assumed ethyl acetate producing 94 enzymes are located either in the cytosol or in the endoplasmic reticulum. These locations do 95 not match with the mitochondrial function of ethyl acetate formation. Recently, a new family of AATs was discovered, designated Eat1. This family catalyses ethyl acetate synthesis in S. 96 97 cerevisiae, K. marxianus, W. anomalus, K. lactis and other yeasts (28). It was shown that 98 Eat1 is responsible for 80% and 50% of ethyl acetate production in K. lactis and S. 99 cerevisiae, respectively. In this study, we show that Eat1 of K. lactis is located in the 100 mitochondria. In addition, we used in silico analyses and fermentations of bulk ethyl acetate 101 producing yeasts to support this view for the location of Eat1 in other yeasts as well.

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# 102 Results

# 103 Localisation of Eat1 in yeast

104 Huh et al. (2003) performed a global protein localisation study in S. cerevisiae (29). This 105 included the hypothetical protein YGR015C, which was later identified as the S. cerevisiae 106 homolog of Eat1 (28). The S. cerevisiae Eat1 was tracked to the mitochondria (29), which 107 suggests that Eat1 may be located in the mitochondria of bulk ethyl acetate producing yeast 108 as well. We initially tested the hypothesis by overexpressing the W. anomalus eat1 fused 109 with *mCherry* at the C-terminus from a multi-copy plasmid in S. cerevisiae. The fusion protein 110 was generally localised to the mitochondria of S. cerevisiae. However, we also observed a number of artefacts associated with heterologous overexpression of fluorescent protein 111 112 fusions, such as variations of the fluorescence within the cell population or protein 113 aggregation (unpublished result). To obtain more conclusive results, we fused Eat1 with yEGFP (yeast-enhanced green fluorescent protein) at the C-terminus in K. lactis CBS 2359 114 115  $\Delta ku$ 80. K. lactis CBS 2359 was chosen because it was previously demonstrated that Eat1 is 116 the main enzyme responsible for bulk ethyl acetate production in this yeast (28).

117 The location of Eat1-yEGFP in living cells of K. lactis CBS 2359 Δku80 eat1-yegfp was visualised using confocal microscopy. Eat1-yEGFP was clearly concentrated in structures 118 119 within the cell (Figure 2A). The mitochondria of these cells were stained with MitoTracker 120 Deep Red FM (Figure 2B). The overlay of the two images showed that the signals of yEGFP 121 and the mitochondrial marker overlap almost completely (Figure 2C). However, there are 122 some areas where Eat1 fluorescence did not overlap with MitoTracker. This may be an 123 artefact of the dye but could also indicate that Eat1 is located in multiple organelles. 124 Nevertheless, the in vivo experiments showed that Eat1 is mostly located in the mitochondria 125 of K. lactis CBS 2359 Aku80. To exclude that the Eat1-yEGFP fusion affected the function of 126 Eat1, we compared the ethyl acetate production of K. lactis CBS 2359 Aku80 eat1-yeafp and 127 its parental strain. The strains were cultivated in 50 mL YM medium without iron

supplementation. The strain producing the Eat1-yEGFP fusion was still able to synthesise ethyl acetate (Figure 3). Surprisingly, the ethyl acetate titre achieved by *K. lactis* CBS 2359  $\Delta ku80 \ eat1-yEGFP$  was 3.75-fold higher compared to *K. lactis* CBS 2359  $\Delta ku80$ . The reason for this increase is not clear, but it demonstrated that the Eat1-yEGFP fusion is still functional. These results show that ethyl acetate itself is primarily a mitochondrial product of *K. lactis* CBS 2359  $\Delta ku80$ .

134 Continuous fermentations indicate a common mechanism of ethyl acetate synthesis in yeast

135 As Eat1 is located in the mitochondria of S. cerevisiae and K. lactis CBS 2359  $\Delta ku80$ , we 136 were wondering whether it is located in the mitochondria of other bulk ethyl acetate 137 producing yeasts as well. The expression of GFP-fused proteins in these yeasts is 138 cumbersome because of their poor genetic accessibility. We attempted to transform W. 139 anomalus DSM 6766 and K. marxianus DSM 5422, but were not successful. To gain further 140 insight on the location of ethyl acetate synthesis in other yeast strains, we compared the 141 natural producers in vivo instead. We reasoned that if the conditions that trigger bulk ethyl 142 acetate formation are similar, the underlying pathways are likely shared as well, including the 143 cellular location of Eat1. However, there are no studies that accurately compare ethyl acetate 144 production by multiple yeasts under the same conditions. Moreover, many studies on bulk 145 ethyl acetate synthesis in yeast often did not control or measure parameters such as oxygen 146 levels or ethyl acetate evaporation (3). This makes metabolic comparisons between different 147 yeast species impossible. To resolve the issue, we examined bulk ethyl acetate production in 148 five yeast species under the same controlled conditions. We used aerobic, iron-limited 149 chemostats to induce ethyl acetate production in W. anomalus DSM 6766, C. fabianii CBS 150 5640, C. jadinii CECT 1946, K. marxianus DSM 5422, and K. lactis CBS 2359. When 1 mM 151 FeSO<sub>4</sub> was added to the medium, all five yeasts fully consumed the glucose, and virtually no 152 ethyl acetate or other fermentation products were formed (Figure 4). To induce ethyl acetate 153 production, iron was omitted from the medium. Sufficient iron impurities were present to 154 stably support between  $3.4 \pm 0.2$  and  $8.3 \pm 0.0$  g<sub>DW</sub>/L biomass (Figure 4A). Under iron-limited Downloaded from http://aem.asm.org/ on October 3, 2018 by guest

155 conditions, the yeast strains consumed between 54.5 ± 0.0 and 79.3 ± 0.0 g/L glucose 156 (Figure 4B). Iron limitation induced ethyl acetate production in the five yeast species (Figure 157 4C). The amount of ethyl acetate removed through gas stripping was added to the 158 concentrations measured in the liquid. The headspace contained 25.9 ± 0.0 % of the total 159 ethyl acetate produced. The highest ethyl acetate titres were obtained with W. anomalus 160 DSM 6766 and K. marxianus DSM 5422 (11.6 ± 0.2 and 10.7 ± 0.3 g/L, respectively). 161 However, K. marxianus DSM 5422 consumed more sugar, resulting in a lower ethyl acetate 162 yield (Figure 4D). W. anomalus DSM 6766 and C. fabianii CBS 5640 were the best ethyl 163 acetate producers in terms of yield. They produced 0.17  $\pm$  0.00  $g_{EA}/g_{qlucose}$  and 0.16  $\pm$  0.01 164 g<sub>EA</sub>/g<sub>alucose</sub>, respectively. K. lactis CBS 2359 produced the least ethyl acetate per glucose 165  $(0.04 \pm 0.01 \text{ g}_{\text{EA}}/\text{g}_{\text{alucose}})$ . The maximum theoretical pathway yield of ethyl acetate on glucose 166 is 0.49 g<sub>EA</sub>/g<sub>glucose</sub>.

167 Besides ethyl acetate, the yeasts also formed significant amounts of ethanol or acetate as 168 by-products (Figure 4E and 4F, respectively). Crabtree-negative yeasts generally do not 169 produce ethanol under aerobic conditions like the ones used in this study. However, iron 170 limitation results in a metabolic deregulation which leads to ethanol production (16, 20). W. 171 anomalus DSM 6766, C. fabianii CBS 5640 and C. jadinii CECT 1946 produced between 0.02 ± 0.01, and 0.01 ± 0.00  $g_{ethanol}/g_{glucose}$ . This was significantly lower compared to K. 172 173 marxianus DSM 5422 and K. lactis CBS 2359, which produced  $0.11 \pm 0.01$ , and  $0.23 \pm 0.01$ (Figure 4E). The yeasts also produced between 0.02  $\pm$  0.00, and 0.12  $\pm$  0.01 g<sub>acetate</sub>/g<sub>glucose</sub> 174 175 (Figure 4F).

The five tested yeasts produced ethyl acetate under aerobic and iron-limited conditions. However, there were significant levels of ethanol and acetate produced. These products indicate that glucose is catabolised in the cytosol as well, despite the aerobic conditions. The effect was most pronounced in *K. lactis* CBS 2359, which produced 6.1-fold more ethanol than ethyl acetate. Most of this ethyl acetate was produced by the mitochondrial Eat1 (Figure 2), despite the high carbon flux in the cytosol (Figure 4EF). The remaining four yeasts 182 produced ethyl acetate under the same iron-limited conditions as *K. lactis* CBS 2359, which

183 suggests that the ethyl acetate produced by these yeasts is of mitochondrial origin as well.

184 In silico indications for Eat1 localisation in yeast

185 Acetyl-CoA used for bulk ethyl acetate synthesis is produced in the mitochondria. We 186 investigated whether the five yeast strains are able to transport acetyl-CoA from the 187 mitochondria to the cytosol via citrate. The enzyme needed for the realisation of this pathway 188 is the cytosolic ATP-citrate lyase (Figure 1). We used BlastP to search for homologs of three 189 fungal ATP-citrate lyase proteins in W. anomalus, C. jadinii, C. fabianii, K. marxianus and K. 190 lactis. The ATP-citrate lyase homologs originated from Yarrowia lipolytica CLIB 122, 191 Aspergillus nidulans FGSC A4 and the Rhodosporidium toruloides IFO 0880. None of the 192 bulk ethyl acetate producing yeasts contained apparent ATP-citrate lyase homologs. The 193 absence of the ATP-citrate lyase suggests that ethyl acetate-producing yeasts cannot 194 transport acetyl-CoA to the cytosol (22, 26). Bulk ethyl acetate synthesis by Eat1 is therefore 195 more likely to be located in the mitochondria.

196 The sub-cellular location of proteins can also be predicted in silico based on their primary 197 sequence. We predicted the location of nine Eat1 homologs originating from nine bulk ethyl 198 acetate producing yeast species (28). The mitochondrial citrate synthase (Cit1) and the 199 cytosolic Atf1 and Atf2 from S. cerevisiae were included in the analysis as controls. Seven 200 tools were used in the analysis: MitoProt II (30), MultiLoc 2 (31), Yloc (32), WoLF PSORT 201 (33), Protein Prowler (34) and BacCelLo (35) and MitoFates (36). The Eat1 homologs were 202 generally predicted as mitochondrial (Figure 5). The Eat1 homologs of K. lactis, K. marxianus 203 and Wickerhamomyces ciferri were predicted as mitochondrial by all seven tools. The least 204 mitochondrial localisation predictions were given to the W. anomalus and C. fabianii Eat1 205 homologs. Most of the non-mitochondrial predictions were assigned by Protein Prowler, Mito 206 Prot II and MitoFates. These tools also did not identify the S. cerevisiae Eat1 protein as 207 mitochondrial. This indicates that the predictions made by these tools may not be reliable for the Eat1 homologs. On the other hand, MultiLoc2 and WoLF PSORT predicted all the proteins as mitochondrial, including the *S. cerevisiae* and *K. lactis* Eat1 homologs. These two tools also performed better compared to Protein Prowler (31, 37).

# 211 Discussion

212 In this study, we included the cellular location of Eat1 into the hypothetical model of bulk 213 ethyl acetate production in yeast. This AAT was previously linked to 80 % and 50 % of ethyl 214 acetate synthesis in K. lactis and S. cerevisiae, respectively (28). Results presented here 215 showed that Eat1 is a mitochondrial protein in both yeasts. However, the current model of 216 bulk ethyl acetate production assumes that cytosolic AATs are responsible for ethyl acetate 217 formation (17). The mitochondrial location of Eat1 in K. lactis CBS 2359 described in this 218 study disagrees with this assumption. It is also likely that bulk ethyl acetate by other yeast is 219 of mitochondrial origin as well. Ideally, confocal microscopy could be used to confirm this. 220 However, this is hampered by the lack of genetic tools needed to perform gene fusions in 221 other bulk ethyl acetate producing yeast. It is also not possible to discriminate between the 222 mitochondrial and cytosolic acetyl-CoA flux using <sup>13</sup>C tracking experiments as the same 223 carbon atoms are removed during the cleavage of pyruvate in both compartments. The 224 acetyl-CoA produced in the mitochondria is therefore identical to the one produced in the 225 cytosol. The in silico tools used in this study generally predicted that all known Eat1 226 homologs are mitochondrial. The apparent lack of ATP-citrate lyase homologs also seems to 227 indicate that acetyl-CoA cannot be transported to the cytosol. Mitochondrial acetyl-CoA may 228 play a role in ethyl acetate synthesis in S. cerevisiae as well. This yeast contains a functional 229 Eat1 homolog, but produces only traces of ethyl acetate (2). This is likely caused by the 230 Crabtree-positive nature of S. cerevisiae. When glucose is present in excess, the main 231 carbon flux in S. cerevisiae bypasses the mitochondria in favour of cytosolic ethanol 232 formation (19, 38). It is possible that the low ethyl acetate production in S. cerevisiae is 233 caused by the low mitochondrial acetyl-CoA flux.

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234 W. anomalus DSM 6766, C. fabianii CBS 5640, C. jadinii CECT 1946, K. marxianus DSM 235 5422 and K. lactis CBS 2359 are all Crabtree-negative yeasts. Under aerobic conditions, 236 such yeasts convert glucose to cytosolic pyruvate and further to mitochondrial acetyl-CoA. 237 Conditions such as iron limitation repress the synthesis of enzymes in the TCA cycle and 238 respiratory chain (39, 40). As a consequence, ethanol is produced in the cytosol even under 239 aerobic conditions (20, 41). In the mitochondria, iron limitation leads to the accumulation of 240 acetyl-CoA. The accumulation may be resolved by Eat1 in the mitochondria by forming ethyl 241 acetate (14, 18, 41). The mitochondrial localisation of Eat1 thus agrees with its proposed 242 physiological function of preventing the accumulation of acetyl-CoA in yeast. However, more 243 research is needed to confirm this hypothesis. It has been shown that Eat1 can function as a 244 thioesterase in vitro (28). This activity could relieve acetyl-CoA accumulation by releasing 245 acetate instead of ethyl acetate. However, it is possible that ethyl acetate formation provides 246 ancillary benefits to the yeasts. It has been shown that ethyl acetate inhibits the growth of 247 competitive microorganisms (42) and helps yeast disperse in the environment by attracting 248 fruit flies (43).

249 The demonstration that Eat1 is a mitochondrial enzyme is critical for improving ethyl acetate 250 production by microorganisms. Yeasts like K. marxianus and W. anomalus are naturally able 251 to produce ethyl acetate at high yields. However, they also produce considerable amounts of 252 ethanol and acetate as by-products. The acetyl-CoA and ethanol used for ethyl acetate 253 synthesis are produced in the mitochondria and cytosol, respectively. Cytosolic pyruvate is 254 the precursor of both substrates. Efficient ethyl acetate production would therefore require 255 precise control over the pyruvate flux so that acetyl-CoA and ethanol production are 256 stoichiometrically balanced. Alternatively, Eat1 can be used to produce ethyl acetate in 257 heterologous hosts. In such cases, consideration should be given to identifying the 258 localisation pre-sequence. In eukaryotes, N-terminal pre-sequences are cleaved from the 259 nascent protein during translocation to the mitochondria, giving rise to the mature protein 260 (44). Unrelated hosts may not be able to perform this cleavage. The presence of the N- terminal localisation sequence has resulted in lower protein activity and stability in some
cases (45, 46). Proper N-terminal processing of the Eat1 proteins may therefore improve the
activity of the protein in heterologous hosts.

Until now it was assumed that yeasts such as *K. lactis, K. marxianus* and *W. anomalus* produce ethyl acetate in the cytosol. The present study has established that the synthesis occurs in mitochondria instead. This finding agrees with the proposed biological function of bulk ethyl acetate synthesis. Our understanding of ester synthesis in yeast is hereby expanded, which will enable the design of more efficient processes for the production of biobased ethyl acetate.

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# 271 Materials and Methods

### 272 Strain and plasmid construction

273 Strains and plasmids that were used in this study are listed in Table 1. Wild type yeast 274 strains were obtained from culture collections. Kluyveromyces lactis CBS 2359  $\Delta ku80$  (47) 275 was a gift from Paul Hooykaas (Leiden University). Plasmid pCY 3040-01 was a gift from 276 Anne Robinson (Addgene plasmid # 36217). Plasmid pUG75 (48) was obtained from 277 Euroscarf (Plasmid #P30671). K. lactis CBS 2359 Δku80 eat1-yEGFP was constructed by 278 integrating the yeafp gene (49) in frame at the 3' end of eat1. A (GGTGGTAGTGGT), linker 279 was inserted between eat1 and yegfp. The native eat1 stop codon was removed. The linear 280 integration cassette contained the linker, yegfp and pAgTEF1-hphMX-tAgTEF1, flanked by 281 1000 bp sequence upstream and downstream of the integration site. The flanking regions, 282 yegfp and pAgTEF1-hphMX-tAgTEF1 were amplified from the K. lactis CBS 2359 Δku80 283 genome, pCY-3040-01 and pUG75, respectively. The parts were assembled to yield the 284 plasmid pYES2-KlaEat1-yEGFP-hphMX-1000 with the HiFi assembly kit (NEB), according to 285 manufacturer instructions. pYES2 (Invitrogen) was used as the backbone. The linear 286 integration cassette was PCR amplified from pYES2-KIaEat1-yEGFP-hphMX-1000. 1 µg of 287 the cassette was transformed into K. lactis CBS 2359  $\Delta ku80$  with the Li-acetate method (50). 288 Transformants were selected on plates containing 100 µg/mL hygromycin B. Correct clones 289 were confirmed by PCR and sequencing.

# 290 Cultivation conditions

Yeast and *E. coli* cultures were routinely cultivated in YPD (20 g/L glucose, 10 g/L yeast extract, 20 g/L peptone) or LB (10 g/L tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract, 10 g/L NaCl) medium, respectively. Bacteriological agar (15 g/L) was added to make plates. Ampicillin (50 µg/mL) and hygromycin B (100 µg/mL) were added to the media when appropriate. Yeast and *E. coli* were grown at 30 °C and 37 °C, respectively, unless stated otherwise. All strains were stored as glycerol stocks at -80 °C. Yeast and *E. coli* strains were revived by streaking frozen cultures on agar plates and cultivating until colonies appeared. Single colonies were used toinoculate liquid precultures used in further experiments.

299 The ethyl acetate production of K. lactis CBS 2359 Δku80 and K. lactis CBS 2359 Δku80 300 eat1-yEGFP was assessed as reported previously (28). The cells were grown in 250-mL 301 Erlenmeyer flasks containing 50 mL YM (yeast minimal) medium adapted from Thomas and 302 Dawson, 1978 (18). YM medium contained glucose (50 g/L), (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (2.5 g/L), KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 303 (2.5 g/L), 3-(N-morpholino) propanesulfonic acid (MOPS, 23.1 g/L), MgSO<sub>4</sub> (60 mg/L), Ca, 304 ZnSO<sub>4</sub> \*7 H<sub>2</sub>O (25.0 mg/L), MnCl<sub>2</sub> \*4H<sub>2</sub>O (4.0 mg/L), CuSO<sub>4</sub> \*5 H2O (2.5 mg/L), CaCl<sub>2</sub> \*2 H<sub>2</sub>O 305 (1.5 mg/L), H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub> (1.5 mg/L) Na<sub>2</sub>MoO<sub>4</sub> \*2 H<sub>2</sub>O (0.4 mg/L), CoCl<sub>2</sub> (0.2 mg/L) and KI (0.3 306 mg/L). The pH of the medium was set to 6.0 with 3 M NaOH. Iron was omitted from the 307 medium. The medium was supplemented with 1 mL 1000x vitamins mix according to 308 Verduyn et al. 1992 (51). The vitamins mix contained Biotin(0.05 mg/L), Ca-panthothenate (1 309 mg/L), Nicotinic acid (1 mg/L), Inositol (25 mg/L), Thiamine-HCI (1 mg/L), Pyridoxine-310 HCI (1 mg/L), 4-amino benzoic acid (0.2 mg/L). Erlenmeyer flasks (neck width 34 mm) were 311 inoculated with 0.5 mL preculture grown overnight in liquid YPD medium to an initial OD<sub>600</sub> of 312 0.03. The flasks were closed with aluminium foil and shaken at 250 rpm. Experiments were 313 performed as biological duplicates. Ethyl acetate evaporation was not measured in shake 314 flasks.

# 315 Continuous fermentations

The ethyl acetate production of *W. anomalus* DSM 6766, *C. fabianii* CBS 5640, *C. jadinii* 317 *CECT* 1946, *K. marxianus* DSM 5422, and *K. lactis* CBS 2359 was studied in aerobic 318 continuous fermentations. The culturing was performed in 1-L DasGip bioreactors 319 (Eppendorf). The working volume was 0.5 L. The pH was controlled at 5.0 ( $\pm$  0.05) by 320 automatic addition of 3 M KOH. The temperature was controlled at 30°C. Cultures were kept 321 aerobic by controlling the DO at 40%. Sufficient oxygen transfer was achieved by stirring the 322 fermenter at 1200 rpm and automatically varying the oxygen fraction from 21% to 100%. The 323 sparging was kept constant at 6 L/h. The defined feed medium was designed to emulate the 324 mineral composition of concentrated whey permeate augmented with ammonium sulphate 325 (52) as closely as possible. Distilled water (dH<sub>2</sub>O) was used to prepare the medium. The 326 medium contained (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (13.16 g/L), Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>\*2 H<sub>2</sub>O (2.08 g/L), NaCl (1.39 g/L), KCl 327 (1.89 g/L), MgSO<sub>4</sub> \*7 H<sub>2</sub>O (0.81 g/L), CaCl<sub>2</sub> \* H<sub>2</sub>O (0.139 g/L), ZnSO<sub>4</sub> \* 7 H<sub>2</sub>O (50 mg/L), 328 CuCl<sub>2</sub> \* 2H<sub>2</sub>O (6.6 mg/L), Na<sub>2</sub>MoO<sub>4</sub> \* 2 H<sub>2</sub>O (1 mg/L), H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub> (2 mg/L), MnSO<sub>4</sub> \* 1 H<sub>2</sub>O (1.51 329 mg/L),  $CoSO_4 * 7 H_2O$  (2 mg/L),  $NiSO_4 * 6 H_2O$  (1 mg/L) and 4 mL/L of a 1000x vitamin mix 330 (51). Glucose (80 g/L) was used as carbon source. 20 mL 37% HCl was added to the 20 L 331 medium vessel to lower the pH of the medium. The dilution rate was 0.1 h<sup>-1</sup>. Ethyl acetate 332 production was controlled by iron limitation. The producing (iron-limited) condition was 333 achieved by omitting all sources of iron from the medium. The non-producing (iron-334 rich/glucose-limited) condition was achieved by adding 1 mM FeSO<sub>4</sub> to the medium vessel. 335 Steady state was achieved after five culture volumes were exchanged during which 336 physiological parameters remained stable. The reported numbers are an average of three 337 sequential steady states achieved in one bioreactor. The amount of ethyl acetate in the 338 headspace was quantified by extracting 250 µL of the bioreactor headspace through a 339 septum with a syringe and analysing the ethyl acetate content immediately by gas 340 chromatography (GC). The concentration of ethyl acetate in the headspace was used to 341 calculate the mass flow of ethyl acetate continuously discharged from the fermenters. The 342 mass flow of ethyl acetate was related to the liquid flow of 0.05 L/h and added to the ethyl 343 acetate concentration in the liquid phase. Dry cell weight was determined in 50 mL 344 fermentation broth.

# 345 Confocal microscopy

Confocal microscopy was carried out on a LeicaTCS SP8 X system equipped with a 63x/1.20 numeric aperture water-immersion objective. Excitation of EGFP and MitoTracker Deep Red FM (Thermo Scientific) was performed using a white light laser selecting the lasers lines 488 nm and 633 nm, respectively. Confocal imaging was executed using internal filter-free 350 spectral Hybrid detectors. For EGFP detection, a spectral window of 495 to 545 nm was 351 selected, whereas MitoTracker Deep Red FM was detected using 640 to 670 nm. Images 352 with 1024x1024 pixels were acquired using the HyVolution software interface of Leica 353 operating in a sequential imaging configuration. The HyVolution software includes 354 deconvolution of the confocal images by Huijgens deconvolution software (53).

# 355 Bioinformatics

356 The subcellular locations of proteins was predicted with six tools: MitoProt II (30), MultiLoc 2 357 (31), Yloc (32), WoLF PSORT (33), Protein Prowler (34) and BacCelLo (35). Where 358 applicable, the prediction settings were set to fungal. MitoFates (36) was used to predict 359 mitochondrial pre-sequences under fungal prediction settings. BlastP under default settings 360 was used to look for homologs of ATP citrate lyase in C. fabianii CBS 5640, C. jadinii CECT 361 1946, K. marxianus DSM 5422, W. anomalus DSM 6766 and K. lactis CBS 2359. The ATP-362 citrate lyase from Yarrowia lipolytica CLIB122 (XP 503231.1), the ATP citrate lyase subunit 363 1 (XP\_660040.1) from Aspergillus nidulans FGSC A4 and the ATP-citrate synthase from 364 Rhodosporidium toruloides IFO 0880 (PRQ71611.1) were used as query (54-56).

## 365 Analytical

366 Glucose and organic acids were analyzed by HPLC on a Thermo Scientific ICS5000 HPLC 367 system, equipped with a Dionex DP pump, Dionex AS-AP autosampler, Dionex VWD UV 368 detector operated at 210 nm and a Shodex RI detector operated at 35 °C. An Aminex HPX-369 87H cation-exchange column (Bio-Rad) was used with a mobile phase of 0.008 M  $H_2SO_4$  and 370 was operated at 0.8 mL/min and 60 °C. 10 mM dimethylsulfoxide or 125 mM propionic acid 371 were used as internal standard.

Volatile compounds were analysed on two gas chromatography systems equipped with a flame ionization detector (GC-FID). In both cases, 0.5 µL of liquid or 250 µL headspace sample were analysed. For liquid samples, 2 mM 1-butanol was used as internal standard. The first system used a Shimadzu 2010 gas chromatograph equipped with a 20i-s autosampler. Samples were analysed on a Stabilwax column (30 m x 0.53 mm, 0.5 µm) coating, Restek). The column temperature was held at 60 °C for 1 minute and increased to
120 °C at a rate of 20 °C/minute. The split ratio was 20. The second system used an Agilent
7890B gas chromatograph equipped with an Agilent 7693 autosampler. The compounds
were separated on a Nukol<sup>™</sup> column (30 m x 0.53 mm, 1.0 µm coating, Supelco). The
column temperature was maintained at 50 °C for 2 minutes and increased to 200°C at a rate
of 50 °C/minute. The split ratio was 10.

Dry cell weight in continuous fermentations was measured by centrifuging 50 mL culture for 5 min at 4000 *x g*. The pellet was then washed with 50 mL ultrapure MilliQ water (MQ), resuspended in 3 mL MQ and dried overnight at 120 °C in a pre-weighted aluminum tray before weighing.

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Figure 1: Potential pathways of ethyl acetate production via an AAT in yeast. The AAT catalysed reaction is indicated in orange. The three reactions forming acetyl-CoA during glucose catabolism are shown in green. Reaction I: pyruvate dehydrogenase (*pdh*), Reaction II: acetyl-CoA synthetase (*acs*), Reaction III: ATP-citrate lyase (*acl*).

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Figure 2. Visualisation of Eat1 in the mitochondria of *K. lactis* CBS 2359 Δku80 eat1-yegfp. 574 575 (A) Visualisation of Eat1-yEGFP. (B) Mitochondria visualised by MitoTracker Deep Red FM. (C) Overlay of the two signals. The images shown are representative of the entire cell 576

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population.

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Figure 3. Fermentation profiles of (A) *K. lactis* CBS 2359 Δku80 and (B) *K. lactis* CBS 2359
Δku80 *eat1-yEGFP* growing in shake flasks in 50 ml YM medium without iron
supplementation. The numbers shown are the averages of biological duplicates. Error bars
represent the standard deviation. Ethyl acetate evaporation was not measured.

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Figure 4. Cultivation parameters of five different yeast species that were grown in aerobic, pH-controlled chemostats in the presence or absence of 1 mM of FeSO<sub>4</sub>. The numbers shown are averages of three steady states. Error bars indicate standard deviation. The amount of ethyl acetate that was removed by gas stripping was determined by headspace measurements and was added to the amount that was measured in the liquid phase. (A) Biomass concentration. (B) Glucose consumption. (C) Ethyl acetate titre. (D, E, F) The yields of ethyl acetate, ethanol and acetate on glucose consumed, respectively.

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597 Figure 5. Predicted probabilities of mitochondrial localisation of the Eat1 proteins. Seven tools were used to predict the mitochondrial localisation of nine Eat1 homologs from 9 yeast 598 599 species. The numbers in the column represent the length of the pre-sequence, predicted by 600 MitoFates. Abbreviations: Wan - Wickerhamomyces anomalus, Wci - Wickerhamomyces 601 ciferrii, Kma - Kluyveromyces marxianus, Kla - Kluyveromyces lactis, Cja - Cyberlindnera jadinii, Cfa – Cyberlindnera fabianii, Huv – Hanseniaspora uvarum, Ecy – Eremothecium 602 603 cymbalarie, Sce - Saccharomyces cerevisiae, M - mitochondria, C - cytosol, E -604 endoplasmic reticulum, N/A - not available

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#### 606 Table 1: Strains and plasmids used and created during this study.

Strain	Characteristics	Source
Cyberlindnera fabianii CBS 5640	Wild type strain	CBS
Cyberlindnera jadinii CECT 1946	Wild type strain	CECT
Kluyveromyces marxianus DSM 5422	Wild type strain	DSMZ
Wickerhamomyces anomalus DSM 6766	Wild type strain	DSMZ
Kluyveromyces lactis CBS 2359	Wild type strain	CBS
Kluyveromyces lactis CBS 2359 Дки80	Disruption of KU80	(47)
Kluyveromyces lactis CBS 2359 Δku80 eat1-yegfp	Disruption of KU80, Eat1 labelled with a C-terminal yEGFP	This study
E. coli ΝΕΒ5α	Cloning strain	New England Biolabs
Plasmids		
pUG75	HvgR marker template	(48)
pCY-3040-01	vEGFP template	(49)
pYES2		Invitrogen
pYES2-KlaEat1-yEGFP-hphMX- 1000	Plasmid carrying the <i>yegfp</i> integration cassette targeting the 3'end of the <i>K. lactis eat1</i> locus with 1000 bp homologous regions	This study

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