Production of the sesquiterpene bisabolene from one-carbon compounds in an

engineered *Methanosarcina acetivorans*

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Abstract

The isoprenoid bisabolene, one of the simplest monocyclic sesquiterpenes, is a natural plant product that, in addition to its biological function, serves as a precursor for many industrial products. Due to the low concentration of bisabolene and the long harvest cycle, industrial production of this isoprenoid in plants is economically challenging. Chemical synthesis of bisabolene also suffers from significant disadvantages, such as low yields, toxic side products and high costs. Archaea appear suitable producers of isoprenoids, as their membrane lipids consist of isoprenoid ethers, which are synthesized via a variant of the mevalonate pathway. Archaeal model species have versatile metabolic capacities, which makes them suitable candidates for biotechnological applications. Here, we engineered *Methanosarcina acetivorans* for production of α-bisabolene from one-carbon substrates by introducing a bisabolene synthase from *Abies grandis*. Expression of a codon-optimized bisabolene synthase gene in a *M. acetivorans* wild-type strain resulted in 10.6 mg bisabolene/ liter of culture. Overexpressing genes of the mevalonate pathway only slightly increased bisabolene yields, which, however, were reached much earlier during incubations than in the corresponding wild-type strain. The data presented argue for the suitability of *M. acetivorans* for the biotechnical production of certain isoprenoids.

Introduction

Isoprenoids are natural products composed of C5-isoprene units and are among the most diverse compounds synthesized by biological systems. With more than 35,000 known isoprenoids, these compounds vary in size, structure, and biological function. They play essential roles in various cellular processes, including regulation of gene expression, energy conservation, cell membrane structure, signaling, cell defense, and as vitamins (Chandran et al., 2011). Beyond their biological functions, isoprenoids have numerous biotechnological applications, as biofuels, insecticides, pharmaceuticals, colorants, flavorings, fragrances, and precursors for semisynthetic approaches (Lei et al., 2022). Depending on the type of substance required, there are various strategies for meeting the increasing demand for economically relevant isoprenoids. The first option is their extraction from plant material, which, however, faces various challenges. On the one hand, the isolation of isoprenoids produced by plants often requires substantial energy and resource consumption. On the other hand, the quality of the product fluctuates due to different environmental conditions (Immethun et al., 2013). Alternatively, isoprenoids can be produced by chemical synthesis from petrochemical raw materials. Beside the problem of finiteness of the resource, the complexity and thus the yield pose a problem. It also requires significant amounts of energy while producing toxic by-products (Chemler et al., 2006; Winter and Tang 2012). Thus, biotechnical approaches represent favorable tracks for the production of isoprenoids. Microorganisms exhibit rapid growth and can utilize inexpensive carbon sources to produce products without the generation of toxic by-products, thereby offering a cost-effective and environmentally benign production process (Chemler et al., 2006; Ajikumar et al., 2008).

Bisabolene is one of the simplest monocyclic sesquiterpenes (Souček et al., 1961) and is characterized by a remarkable diversity of applications in various industrial branches. Despite its low concentration in plants, which makes economically viable isolation from plant sources difficult, bisabolene has considerable industrial potential (Zhao et al., 2021). This low

availability in nature means that alternative production methods, such as biotechnological approaches, are becoming increasingly important. In the cosmetics and perfume industry, bisabolene is employed as a fragrance and flavoring agent due to its pleasant and balsamic-woody aroma (Wang et al., 2017). Another, particularly innovative, application of bisabolene is as a starting material for the biosynthesis of bisabolane, a potential alternative fuel to D2 diesel. This application illustrates the potential of bisabolene to contribute to the development of sustainable and renewable energy sources (Peralta-Yahya et al., 2011).

The MVA (mevalonate) and MEP (methylerythritol phosphate) pathways are two biochemical pathways for the synthesis of isoprenoids, which occur in many organisms. The MEP pathway (Zhao et al., 2013) is used by many bacteria, plants and algae to synthesize the isoprenoid precursor isopentenyl diphosphate (IPP) and its isomer dimethylallyl diphosphate (DMAPP). On the other hand, the MVA pathway is the classical pathway for the synthesis of isoprenoids in archaea, eukaryotes and some bacteria. The canonical eukaryotic MVA pathway's crucial steps include the enzyme acetoacetyl-CoA thiolase catalyzing the condensation of two acetyl-CoA molecules to form acetoacetyl-CoA. Subsequently, HMG-CoA synthase combines two acetoacetyl-CoA molecules to produce 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA (HMG-CoA), which is then reduced to mevalonate by HMG-CoA reductase (Miziorko 2011). Mevalonate is phosphorylated to mevalonate-5-diphosphate by mevalonate kinase. Mevalonate-5-diphosphate is decarboxylated to isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP) by mevalonate diphosphate decarboxylase. IPP, the principal isoprenoid building block, is isomerized to DMAPP. Both IPP and DMAPP serve as precursors for synthesizing more complex isoprenoids. Studies on *Methanocaldococcus jannaschii* and *Aeropyrum pernix* established modified versions of this pathway in the Archaea (Fig. 1) (Grochowski et al., 2006; Komeyama et al., 2023). Within this pathway the three enzymes phosphomevalonate dehydratase, anhydromevalonate phosphate decarboxylase, and isopentenyl phosphate kinase are used to catalyze the dehydration of mevalonate-5-phosphate to *trans*-anhydromevalonate 5-

phosphate, and its decarboxylation to isopentenyl phosphate, which is then phosphorylated to IPP.

Methanosarcina acetivorans belongs to the methanogenic archaea, the only organisms that produce methane (CH_4) as means of their energy metabolism. These archaea are essential for the complete remineralization of organic material in oxygen-depleted environments (Whitman et al., 2006). Species of the genus *Methanosarcina* are characterized by their metabolic versatility. They can utilize a variety of one- and two-carbon substrates for growth, including methanol, methylamines, methyl sulfides, acetate and carbon monoxide (CO), to produce methane (Schöne and Rother 2018).The latter capacity might be a particular advantage that makes *M. acetivorans* a good candidate for isoprenoid production because large amounts of acetate are formed during growth on CO (Rother and Metcalf 2004). Since the isoprenoid precursors IPP and DMAPP and acetate are generated from acetyl-CoA, catabolic levels of the starting material should be available in the cell. Furthermore, archaea do not employ the MVA pathway for the formation of secondary metabolites, but for the synthesis of their membrane lipid precursors (Jain et al., 2014), requiring a comparably high turnover. Thus, the prospect of *M. acetivorans* being able to produce IPP not only in trace amounts makes it a promising candidate for isoprenoid production. Indeed, this organism produced up to 850 mg/L of isoprene when isoprene synthase was heterologously synthesized (Aldridge et al., 2021).

Despite the fact that the biochemical and bioenergetic aspects of methanogenic energy metabolism are well understood and that sophisticated tools for their genetic manipulation are available for some model methanogens, their industrial application is currently limited to their ability to produce methane, either in anaerobic digestion, or employing power-to-gas concepts (Angenent et al., 2018; Enzmann et al., 2018; Contreras et al., 2022). In order to expand the biotechnological utility of *M. acetivorans*, production of α-bisabolene in recombinant strains was studied using different energy substrates and cultivation regimes.

Materials and Methods

Strains, growth, and transformation

Escherichia coli strains DH10B (Grant et al., 1990) and WM1788 (for propagating R6K replicons) (Haldimann and Wanner 2001) were grown and transformed employing standard conditions (Ausubel et al., 2003). *Methanosarcina acetivorans* strains, listed in Table 1, were cultivated in high salt (HS) medium (Metcalf et al., 1996) containing trace elements and vitamins (Sowers and Noll 1995). Either 26 mL glass (Balch) tubes (Ochs, Bovenden, Germany) containing 10 mL or 5 mL of medium, or 100 ml serum bottles (Ochs) containing 50 mL of medium were used. 125 mmol/L methanol (Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany) plus 40 mmol/L sodium acetate (Carl Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany), supplemented from anaerobic, sterile stock, or 150 kPa carbon monoxide (CO) (Air Liquide, Düsseldorf, Germany), added through sterile filters, served as energy substrates. For induction of the tetracycline-inducible promoter, cultures were transferred two or three times into media containing 100 μmol/L tetracycline (tet) (Carl Roth). Growth was monitored photometrically at 578 nm (OD_{578}) either directly (i.e., undiluted) in Balch tubes using a Genesys 20 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Langenselbold, Germany) or using an Ultrospec 2000 spectrophotometer (Pharmacia Biotech, Uppsala, Sweden) for measurements of diluted culture samples. In the presence of different isoprenoids growth of *M. acetivorans* was monitored nephelometrically using a cell growth quantifier (CGQ) (Aquila Biolabs GmbH, Baesweiler, Germany) (Bruder et al., 2016) in serum bottles with 50 mL media as described (Richter et al., 2024). Bisabolene producing *M. acetivorans* were cultivated overlaid with dodecane (10% v/v, Sigma-Aldrich) to extract the isoprenoid from the medium.

Methanosarcina acetivorans was transformed as described (Oelgeschläger and Rother 2009). Markerless deletion of *ssu*, MA2965, or MA3852, concomitant with inserting *trans*-genes was conducted as described for *hpt* (Pritchett et al., 2004).

Generation of plasmids

Plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 2. DNA fragments deriving from PCR (oligonucleotides used are listed in Table 3) and used for cloning were sequenced by Microsynth Seqlab using the BigDye Terminator Cycle Sequencing protocol.

Isoprenoid synthases to be produced in *M. acetivorans* were identified through a review of the literature. The retrieved genes, trimmed of plastid localization signals, were codon-optimized for *M. acetivorans* using Geneious Prime (v. 2019.2.3 Biomatters Ltd., Auckland, New Zealand) using a custom codon usage table and subsequently optimized manually, to a codon adaptation index of 0.6-0.8. The fusion of the tet-inducible promoter PmcrB(tetO1) (Guss et al., 2008) and the respective isoprenoid synthase gene was obtained commercially. The synthesis products were then moved to the *M. acetivorans/E. coli* shuttle vector pMR08 (Oelgeschläger and Rother 2009) via SphI and SpeI. In the case of AgBIS (Table 2), the synthesized plasmid was first used as a template for PCR amplification with the primers o_SphI_pmcrB_tetO1_for and o_SpeI_HindIII_AgBIS_rev (Table 3) to remove the His$_6$-tag encoding sequence, before moving the fusion to pMR08.

The ten genes encoding mevalonate pathway enzymes from *M. mazei* were divided into three modules, in order to facilitate cloning and to identify potential bottlenecks of carbon flow through the pathway. Module MVA I consists of the genes MM_0870, MM_0871 and MM_0335. MVA II consists of the genes MM_1526, MM_1525, MM_1524 and MM_1871. MVA III consists of the genes MM_1762, MM_1763, MM_1764 (Fig. 1). In the case of MVA I and MVA II, all genes were combined into a synthetic operon and the fusion product was synthesized fused to a tet-inducible promoter. The synthesis product was then moved to pMssu in the case of MVA I, and to the plasmid pMA_3852 in the case of MVA II via NotI. Since the genes assembled in the MVA III module are present in a natural operon of *M. mazei*, the entire operon was amplified by PCR from the *M. mazei** genome (Ehlers et al., 2005) using the primers o_NdeI_Operon_MM1762_1764_for and o_Operon_MM1762_1764_BamHI_rev

(Table 3). The resulting PCR product was cloned into plasmid pJK028a via NdeI and BamHI,

thereby creating a PmcrB(tetO3) fusion. The fusion was PCR amplified using the primers

o_NotI_pmcrB_tetO3_Operon_MM1762_64_for and

o_pmcrB_tetO3_Operon_MM1762_64_NotI_rev, and the resulting PCR product was cloned

into plasmid pMA2965 via NotI.

Analysis of bisabolene

For the determination of bisabolene, the dodecane phase of the respective culture was removed

and centrifuged at 10,000 g for 5 min. 200 µL of the organic phase was transferred to an air-

tight vial and 2 µl was injected into a GC-2010 Plus gas chromatograph (Shimadzu Europa

GmbH, Duisburg, Germany) operated with nitrogen as the carrier gas at an inlet pressure of

124.6 kPa, and equipped with an Optima 5 column (Macherey Nagel, Dueren, Germany). The

temperature of the GC oven was initially maintained at 60 °C for 3 min and then increased to

280 °C at a rate of 12 °C per minute. This temperature was then held for 5 minutes. The injector

was held at 300°C and the temperature of the flame ionization detector was also set at 300°C.

Data were recorded and analyzed using lab solution software version 5.98 (Shimadzu Europa

GmbH, Duisburg, Germany). A bisabolene isomer mixture (Thermo Fisher scientific,

Darmstadt, Germany) was used to generate a calibration curve.

Results and Discussion

Production of different monoterpenes in M. acetivorans

In a previous study, *M. acetivorans* was genetically amended by introducing the gene for isoprene synthase from *Populus alba*, which resulted in a strain producing the hemiterpene isoprene (Aldridge et al., 2021). We wanted to extend on this finding and genetically engineer *M. acetivorans* to synthesize larger isoprenoids. Through a review of the literature on isoprenoid synthases from plants or bacteria for synthesis in *M. acetivorans*, we chose the monoterpenes α-pinene, limonene, and linalool to be produced via α-pinene synthase from *Pinus taeda*, limonene synthase from *Mentha spicata*, and linalool synthase from *Streptomyces clavuligerus*, respectively. The codon usage of the *trans*-genes was adapted to that of *M. acetivorans*, and the corresponding gene was fused with to a well-established strong promoter established inducible by tet (Guss et al., 2008). The gene fusion was placed onto an autonomously replicating vector, and the resulting plasmid was subsequently transferred into *M. acetivorans* WWM73, used as a "wild type" in this study. Transformants obtained were analyzed for the presence of the respective isoprenoids. However, none of the isoprenoids in question could be detected, regardless whether gene expression had been induced by tet, or not. Also, extraction of the isoprenoids from the medium by growing the cultures in the presence of an overlay of paraffin oil or dodecane (10%, v/v), which should also have a concentrating effect, was attempted. However, in none of the cultures could the respective isoprenoid be detected.

The exact reason why none of the monoterpenes was produced was not thoroughly investigated and, thus, remains unclear. Still, considering the antimicrobial property of isoprenoids (Wang et al., 2019), together with a certain "leakiness" of the inducible promoter employed (Guss et al., 2008), it is possible that the producing phenotype was selected against and quickly lost. To gather some general evidence for this notion, the antimicrobial activity of several isoprenoids on *M. acetivorans* was investigated. To this end, different isoprenoids, α-pinene, linalool, geraniol, terpineol, borneol, and bisabolene, were added to the medium at

varying concentrations (0.1 mmol/L, 0.5 mmol/L, 1 mmol/L, and 2.5 mmol/L) and growth of

M. acetivorans on methanol plus acetate was assessed by means of CGQ measurements (see

Materials and Methods, (Fig. 2). α-pinene completely inhibited growth of *M. acetivorans*

already at 0.5 mmol/L (Fig. 2A), indicating a profound antimicrobial effect on the organism. A

similar effect was observed using 0.5 mmol/L geraniol, with only minimal cell proliferation

detectable (Fig. 2B). Linalool (Fig. 2C), terpineol (Fig. 2D), and borneol (Fig. 2F) required 1

mmol/L to be present for the same effect. Notably, bisabolene exhibited the least severe

antimicrobial effect on *M. acetivorans*. In the presence of 2.5 mmol/L, *M. acetivorans* still

grew, albeit at a slower rate than without it (Fig. 2E). Thus, all six isoprenoids tested had a

negative impact on the growth of *M. acetivorans*, with bisabolene exerting the least pronounced.

Whether this effect is (partly) due to the solubility of the respective isoprenoid, was not

investigated here.

Inspired by these results, we decided to introduce a bisabolene synthase into

M. acetivorans to produce this sesquiterpene as a proof of principle for a more complex

isoprenoid. After introduction of an episomal vector containing the gene for α-bisabolene

synthase from *Abies grandis* (and lacking the N-terminal signal peptide) under the control of a

tet-inducible promoter into *M. acetivorans*, the resulting strain WWM73/pAgBIS was

cultivated with or without tet induction. On methanol plus acetate, 0.5 ± 0.2 mg/L culture

bisabolene was obtained (Fig. 3). Cultivation on CO led to a notable increase in bisabolene

production, reaching 1.7 ± 0.6 mg/L (Fig. 3). The difference between the two C-sources might

be due to the fact that *M. acetivorans* produces acetyl-CoA only for anabolic purposes on

methanol plus acetate, but as a catabolic intermediate when growing on CO (Schöne et al.,

2022). Our data indicated the suitability of *M. acetivorans* as production host for the isoprenoid

bisabolene. Still, the amounts of bisabolene produced were not competitive to known bacterial

production systems. Thus, we aimed to optimize the strain and the cultivation procedure.

Increasing bisabolene production in M. acetivorans

First, we were interested in optimizing induction and growth conditions of WWM73/pAgBIS. After transferring the WWM73/pAgBIS strain twice into tet-containing media maximum bisabolene yield was achieved, as was previously shown for a PmcrB(tetO1)-*uidA* fusion (Guss et al., 2008). Thus, this procedure was adopted for all subsequent experiments. Next, the question was addressed if growth and bisabolene production are coupled, as many biotechnological systems rely on separating growth phase and production phase (Klamt et al., 2018). To this end, tet-induced WWM73/pAgBIS was grown on methanol plus acetate to stationary phase and further incubated (Fig. 4). Since each culture had to be sacrificed for each measurement, due to sample preparation from the dodecane overlay, each time point is represented by three independent cultures. Bisabolene production continued after the culture reached stationary phase and increased even further, when methanol and acetate was fed (Fig. 4A, arrows). Employing this "fed-batch" approach, bisabolene yields could be increased around sixfold (compared to the beginning of the stationary phase, day 4, Fig. 4A) to 10.6 ± 0.6 mg/L after 23 days, when the experiment was terminated. During growth on CO WWM73/pAgBIS produced a maximum of 7.5 ± 2.8 mg/L bisabolene, which was achieved already after 9 days (Fig. 4B), a concentration reached only after 19 days when methanol plus acetate was the energy source (Fig. 4A). Addition of CO led to considerable cell lysis, probably due to the acetate and formate produced (Rother and Metcalf 2004) and had, therefore, no beneficial effect on bisabolene production in *M. acetivorans*. Comparing the yield of bisabolene obtained here with published values, the *M. acetivorans* "wild type" produces from methanol plus acetate approx. 20 times more than a non-optimized *Yarrowia lipolytica* wild-type strain (carrying a bisabolene synthase gene) produces (from waste cooking oil) (Zhao et al., 2021) and about twice as much as a *Synechocystis* wild-type strain (carrying a bisabolene synthase gene) produces (from CO_2) (Rodrigues and Lindberg 2021).

The experiments conducted thus far do not suggest that the cellular level of AgBIS might be limiting the bisabolene yield. Conversely, both the difference in bisabolene yield (Fig. 3) and in rate of production (Fig. 4) suggests that the cellular level of acetyl-CoA can become rate-limiting depending on the growth substrate. The availability of the isoprenoid precursors IPP and DMAPP, i. e., the flux of intermediates through the MVA pathway, seemed another attractive avenue to further increase bisabolene production. We therefore aimed to overproduce enzymes of the MVA pathway in *M. acetivorans*. To minimize unwanted recombination events, the genes from the closely related *M. mazei* Gö1 were used for this purpose. The complete MVA pathway comprises nine enzymes, which require a total of ten genes for their production (Fig. 1, MM_ numbers). To facilitate cloning, the metabolism was organized into three "modules," and the coding genes were integrated markerlessly (Pritchett et al., 2004) into one of three established chromosomal integration sites: *ssu* (MVA I), MA3852 (MVA II), and MA2965 (MVA III) (Guss et al., 2005; Sattler et al., 2024). In order to regulate gene expression, the "weakest" tet-inducible promoters, PmcrB(tetO3) or PmcrB(tetO4) (Guss et al., 2008) were placed in front of each construct. The double-integrated strains MVA12, MVA13, and MVA23, as well as the triple-integrated strain MVA231, were generated analogously by re-using the integration constructs after their segregation. All double- or triple-integrated strains containing module III carried a single mutation within gene MM_1763 ($D_{31}N$), which, however, was predicted to not interfere with the activity of the corresponding gene product. Subsequently, the self-replicating plasmid pAgBIS was introduced into these MVA background strains. After the generation of the strains overexpressing enzymes of the MVA pathway, their bisabolene production was determined under tet-induced conditions in cultures grown on methanol plus acetate. None of the strains produced bisabolene to significantly increased concentrations compared to the "wild type" (Fig. 5). Only the strain with all enzymes of the MVA pathway from *M. mazei* (MVA231) with 3.2 +/- 0.6 mg/L showed a somewhat increased amount of bisabolene if compared to the "wild-type" strain. In conclusion, the overproduction of the MVA

pathway had only a small, if any, positive effect on bisabolene production, which lends support

to the argument that the availability of IPP and DMAPP is not a critical bottleneck during

bisabolene synthesis under the experimental conditions employed. Since acetyl-CoA might

already be limiting flux through the MVA pathway with methanol plus acetate as substrate,

increasing the amounts of downstream enzymes would not have much of an effect. Another

potential reason for this observation could be a limitation in the conversion of IPP and DMAPP

to geranyl pyrophosphate (GPP) and/or farnesyl pyrophosphate (FPP), essential intermediates

for bisabolene synthesis (Fig. 1). To at least tentatively address this question, the MVA231

strain carrying pAgBIS was cultivated on CO in the presence of tet and the amount of

bisabolene determined. At the end of the strain's growth (day 7) it had produced 8.8 +/- 1.2

mg/L bisabolene (Fig. 6), which is nearly twofold more than the "wild-type" under the same

condition (compare to Fig. 4B), which argues for a beneficial effect of the MVA-encoding

trans-genes. Notably, the MVA231 strain carrying pAgBIS continued to produce bisabolene

(unlike the "wild type"), to a maximal concentration (without feeding CO again) of 10.1 ±1.1

mg/L. Possibly, in this strain carbon could flow better through the MVA pathway towards

bisabolene than towards acetate, leading to delayed cell lysis compared to the "wild type".

Additional re-feeding CO resulted in 12.2 ±2.2 mg/L, the highest bisabolene concentration

achieved (Fig. 6), and similar to that achieved on methanol plus acetate (Fig. 4). However, as it

took less than half the incubation time (11 versus 23 days, compare Fig. 4A and Fig. 6),

increasing the cellular level of acetyl-CoA (via growth on CO) and of MVA pathway enzymes

(via expressing *M. mazei* genes), substantially improved bisabolene production in

M. acetivorans.

In summary, the optimized *M. acetivorans* strain MVA231 on CO produced the highest

amount of bisabolene in the shortest time under the experimental culture conditions used, with

about 12 mg bisabolene/L culture. *M. acetivorans* in terms of titer still cannot compete with

other highly engineered microorganisms such as *Y. lipolytica* (>280 mg bisabolene/L culture)

(Zhao et al., 2021) or *E. coli* (>900 mg bisabolene/L culture) (Peralta-Yahya et al., 2011). Still,

the fact that our engineered host can use a waste stream gas (e. g., off-stream gas of the steel

industry) instead of complex, and expensive, organic compounds (like fats and sugar), not only

promises a higher value added due to lower cost of the feedstock, but also a (small) step towards

a more circular, and, therefore, more sustainable biotechnological application.

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Author contribution

M.R. conceived and supervised the study, A.M. and M.R. designed experiments, A.M., L.V.S.,

and T.W. acquired the data, all authors analyzed and interpreted the data, A.M. drafted the

manuscript, all authors revised the manuscript.

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Tables

Table 1: *M. acetivorans* strains used in this study.

Strain	Genotype	Reference
WWM73	Δ*hpt*::PmcrB-*tetR*-ΦC31-int-attP	(Guss et al., 2008)
MVA I	Δ*ssu*::PmcrB(tetO1)-MM0870-MM0871-MM0335	This study
MVA II	ΔMA3852::PmcrB(tetO3)-MM1526-MM1525-MM1524-MM1871	This study
MVA III	ΔMA2965::PmcrB(tetO3)-MM1762-MM1763-MM1764	This study
MVA12	MVA I, ΔMA3852::PmcrB(tetO3)-MM1526-MM1525-MM1524-MM1871	This study
MVA13	MVA I, ΔMA2965::PmcrB(tetO3)-MM1762-MM1763($D_{31}N$)-MM1764	This study
MVA23	MVA II, ΔMA2965::PmcrB(tetO3)-MM1762-MM1763($D_{31}N$)-MM1764	This study
MVA231	MVA23, Δ*ssu*::PmcrB(tetO1)-MM0870-MM0871-MM0335	This study

Table 2: Plasmids used in this study[a].

Plasmid	Genotype and/or construction	Reference
pWM321	*M. acetivorans/E. coli* shuttle vector	(Metcalf et al., 1997)
pMR08	pWM321, PmcrB-*tetR*	(Oelgeschläger and Rother 2009)
pJK028a	φC31-*attB* vector (for genomic integration) with PmcrB(tetO3) promoter fusion to *uidA*	(Guss et al., 2008)
pMssu	Platform vector for chromosomal integration into the *ssu* locus (MA0063-MA0065)	(Sattler et al., 2024)
pMA2965	Platform vector for chromosomal integration into MA2965	(Sattler et al., 2024)
pMA3852	Platform vector for chromosomal integration into MA3852	(Sattler et al., 2024)
pUC57-BsaI-free	General cloning	Biocat GmbH, Heidelberg, Germany
pUC57_tetO1_Pt_APS	Codon optimized α-pinene synthase gene from *Pinus taeda* fused to PmcrB(tetO1) promoter	Biocat

pUC57_tetO1_Ms_LMS	Codon optimized limonene synthase gene of *Mentha spicata* fused to PmcrB(tetO1) promoter	Biocat
pUC57_tetO1_Sc_LIS	Codon optimized linalool synthase gene of *Streptomyces clavuligerus* fused to PmcrB(tetO1) promoter	Biocat
pUC57/tetO1_AgBIS_His$_6$	Codon optimized bisabolene synthase gene (with 3' His$_6$-tag encoded) of *Abies grandis* fused to PmcrB(tetO1) promoter	Biocat
pUC57_tetO4_MVA I	Artificial operon of the *M. mazei* genes MM_0335, MM_0870 and MM_0871 fused to PmcrB(tetO4) promoter	Biocat
pUC57_tetO3_MVA II	Artificial operon of the *M. mazei* genes MM_1526, MM_1525, MM_1524 and MM_1871 fused to PmcrB(tetO3) promoter	Biocat
pJK028a_MVA III	MM_1762, MM_1763 and MM_1764 from *M. mazei* (PCR amplified) fused to PmcrB(tetO3)	This study
pJK028a_MVA III(D$_{31}$N MM1763)	MM_1762, MM_1763 and MM_1764 from *M. mazei* (PCR amplified) fused to PmcrB(tetO3)	This study
pAPS	PmcrB(tetO1)-APS fusion (pUC57_tetO1_Pt_APS) moved to pMR08	This study
pLMS	PmcrB(tetO1)-LMS fusion (pUC57_tetO1_Ms_LMS) moved to pMR08	This study
pLIS	PmcrB(tetO1)-LIS fusion (pUC57_tetO1_Sc_LIS) moved to pMR08	This study
pAgBIS	PmcrB(tetO1)-AgBIS fusion PCR amplified, moved to pMR08	This study
pMssu_MVAI	PmcrB(tetO4)_MVA I fusion (pUC57_tetO4_MVA I)moved to pMssu	This study
pMA3852_MVA II	PmcrB(tetO3)_MVA II fusion pUC57_tetO3_MVA II) moved to pMA3852	This study
pMA2965_MVA III	PmcrB(tetO3)_MVA III fusion (pJK028a_MVA III) moved to pMA2965	This study

pMA2965_MVA III D$_{31}$N MM1763	PmcrB(tetO3)_MVA III D$_{31}$N MM1763 fusion (pJK028a_MVA III D$_{31}$N MM1763) moved to pMA2965	This study

a: sequences are available upon request.

Table 3: Oligonucleotides used in this study.

Oligonucleotide	Sequence (5'→3')
o_SphI_pmcrB_tetO1_for	AAAGCATGCTTCATTTATCGGAGAACAC
o_SpeI_HindIII_AgBIS_rev	AAAACTAGTAAGCTTAAAGCGGAAGCG
o_NdeI_Operon_MM1762_1764_for	TTTCATATGGTTTCATGTTCTGCGC
o_Operon_MM1762_1764_BamHI_rev	AAAGGATCCTTAAAGAGCGTTCC
o_NotI_pmcrB_tetO3_Operon_MM1762_64_for	TTTGCGGCCGCGCATGCTTCATTTATCG
o_pmcrB_tetO3_Operon_MM1762_64_NotI_rev	TTTGCGGCCGCCTTAAAGAGCGTTCC

Figures

Figure 1: Scheme of the formation of archaeal membrane lipids composed of isoprene subunits

linked to glycerol-1-phosphate via ether bonds. The isoprene precursors IPP and DMAPP are

derived from acetyl-CoA (generated for anabolic purposes from methanol and during

catabolism from CO) via the mevalonate (MVA) pathway. The enzymes involved are boxed.

To enhance the endogenous MVA pathway, the corresponding genes from *M. mazei* (see MM_

numbers) were integrated into the genome of *M. acetivorans* in three modules (MVAI: blue numbers; MVAII: orange numbers; MVAIII: green numbers). CoA, coenzyme A; HMG, 3-hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl; DMAP, dimethylallyl phosphate; $FMNH_2$, reduced flavin mononucleotide; IPP, isopentenyl pyrophosphate; DMAPP, dimethylallyl pyrophosphate; GPP, geranyl pyrophosphate; GGPP, geranylgeranyl diphosphate; FPP, farnesyl pyrophosphate; DH1P, dihydroxyacetone phosphate; G1P, *sn*-glycerol-1-phosphate; GGGP, 3-*O*-geranylgeranyl-*sn*-glyceryl-1-phosphate; DGGGP, 2,3-bis-*O*-geranylgeranyl-*sn*-glyceryl-1-phosphate; IPS, isoprenoid synthase.

Figure 2: Growth of *M. acetivorans* in the presence of isoprenoids. Strain WWM73 cultivated on HS medium with methanol and acetate. Linalool (A), terpineol (B), geraniol (C), α-pinene (D), borneol (E) and bisabolene (F) were added in concentrations of 0.1 mmol/L, 0.5 mmol/L, 1 mmol/L or 2.5 mmol/L, respectively. A preculture was inoculated to an OD_{578} of 0.05 into

medium containing the different isoprenoids. The cultures were then incubated at 37 °C and

shaken at 130 rpm. Cell growth was measured nephelometrically at 515 nm using backscatter

measurement in the Cell Quantifier (from AquilaBiolabs). The diagrams indicate mean values

and their standard deviations (as error bars) from experiments performed in (at least) triplicates.

Figure 3: Bisabolene formation in *M. acetivorans* WWM73/pAgBIS. Gas chromatographic

analysis of the organic dodecane phase of cultures grown on methanol plus acetate or on CO,

for three days in the presence (+) or absence (-) of 100 μmol/L tet. The bars represent mean

values and their standard deviations (as error bars) from experiments performed in (at least)

triplicates.

Figure 4: Correlation between cell mass and bisabolene yield. Cultures of *M. acetivorans* WWM73/pAgBIS were cultured on methanol plus acetate (A) or on CO (B) in the presence of 100 μM tet. Cultures were overlaid with dodecane (10% v/v) to extract the bisabolene from the medium. Bisabolene in the organic phase was quantified gas chromatographically (see Materials and Methods) (left y-axis). Growth (right y-axis) was determined photometrically at 578 nm (OD_{578}). The arrows indicate the addition of 125 mmol/L methanol and 40 mmol/L acetate (A) or 150 kPa CO (B). Shown are mean values and their standard deviations (as error bars) from experiments performed in triplicates.

Figure 5: Effect of *M. mazei* MVA pathway enzymes on bisabolene production in *M. acetivorans*. Strains WWM73, MVA I, II, III, 12, 13, 23 and 231 carrying pAgBIS were cultured in HS medium with methanol plus acetate in the presence of 100 μmol/L tet and overlaid with dodecane (10% v/v)) for eight days. Bars represent mean values and their standard deviations (as error bars) from experiments carried out in triplicates.

Figure 6: Correlation between cell mass and bisabolene yield for MVA231/pAgBIS. Cultures of MVA231/pAgBIS were cultured with CO in the presence 100 μmol/L tet. Cultures were overlaid with dodecane (10% v/v) to extract the bisabolene from the medium. Bisabolene in the organic phase was quantified gas chromatographically (see Materials and Methods) (left y-axis). Growth (right y-axis) was determined photometrically at 578 nm (OD_{578}). The arrow

494   indicates the addition 1.5 atm CO. Shown are mean values and their standard deviations (as

495   error bars) from experiments performed in triplicates.