Genetic modification of *Clostridium kluyveri* for heterologous *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol

production

Caroline Schlaiß[a,b], **Saskia T. Baur[b],** **James W. Marsh[c],** **Kurt Gemeinhardt[b],**

Largus T. Angenent[a,b,d,e,f,,#]

[a]AG Angenent, Max Planck Institute for Biology, Max-Planck-Ring 5, 72076Tübingen,

Germany

[b]Environmental Biotechnology Group, Department of Geosciences, University of

Tübingen, Schnarrenbergstraße 94-96, 72076 Tübingen, Germany

[c]Department of Microbiome Science, Max Planck Institute for Biology, Max-Planck-Ring

5, 72076 Tübingen, Germany

[d]The Novo Nordisk Foundation CO_2 Research Center (CORC), Aarhus University, Gustav

Wieds Vej 10C, 8000 Aarhus C, Denmark

[e]Department of Biological and Chemical Engineering, Aarhus University, Gustav Wieds

Vej 10D, 8000 Aarhus C, Denmark

[f]Cluster of Excellence – Controlling Microbes to Fight Infections, University of Tübingen,

Auf der Morgenstelle 28, 72074 Tübingen, Germany

Running Head: Heterologous *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol production of *C. kluyveri*

#Address correspondence to Largus T. Angenent, l.angenent@uni-tuebingen.de

*Present address: Largus T. Angenent, Department of Geosciences, University of

Tübingen, Schnarrenbergstraße 94-96, 72076 Tübingen, Germany

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ABSTRACT

The mesophilic microbe *Clostridium kluyveri* serves as the most commonly used model microbe to elucidate the physiology and biochemistry of ethanol-based chain elongation *via* reverse ß-oxidation. In this pathway, ethanol and acetate are converted into short- and medium-chain carboxylates. However, to date, no genetic system has been published in a peer-reviewed publication. Here, we report the development of versatile genetic tools for *C. kluyveri*, utilizing the pMTL *Clostridia* shuttle vector system and thiamphenicol as a selective marker. We identified the native restriction-modification system of *C. kluyveri* as a critical barrier to DNA transfer and overcame it by identifying and characterizing the crucial methyltransferase. To mimic the native DNA methylation pattern of *C. kluyveri*, we performed *in-vivo* methylation of the shuttle vector plasmid by expressing the methyltransferase in *Escherichia coli*, followed by DNA transfer *via* conjugation. After validating the genetic system, we demonstrated heterologous expression of different combinations of both NADH and NADPH-dependent alcohol dehydrogenases from *Clostridium acetobutylicum*. The expression of these genes was controlled by the P_{thl} promoter, which is commonly used in *Clostridia,* and the P_{adhE2} promoter, leading to *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol production of the mutant strains. This genetic system for *C. kluyveri* will not only enable further research on the metabolism of this microbe but also enable more profound insights into ethanol-based chain elongation in general.

IMPORTANCE

Medium-chain carboxylates are required in various everyday products, including cosmetics, pharmaceuticals, and fragrances, and show a natural antimicrobial property. Further, they represent food additives and serve as chemical building blocks for several other compounds. Traditionally, these carboxylates are produced from fossil resources, contributing to increased greenhouse gas emissions. Alternatively, they are derived from animal- or plant-based fat (*e.g.*, coconut oil), which competes with agricultural land that is needed for food production. However, microbial chain elongation, which is a biotechnological approach relying on microbes, such as *Clostridium kluyveri*, is sustainable and a promising alternative to the conventional production of medium-chain carboxylates. Notably, it enables the use of industrial waste streams (*e.g.*, off-gases, carbohydrate-rich industrial waste) as substrates, making the process more environmentally friendly. By applying our genetic system for *C. kluyveri*, a better understanding of microbial chain elongation can be achieved, and potentially even an extension of its product portfolio.

INTRODUCTION

Despite advances in renewable energy technologies, modern society remains heavily dependent on fossil fuels. This continued reliance contributes considerably to greenhouse gas emissions, which in turn accelerate climate change and the depletion of natural resources (1). Therefore, moving toward a more circular economy represents a critical challenge for sustainability to ensure long-term resilience for future generations. A key aspect of this transformation is the development of sustainable alternatives for essential chemical building blocks, which are conventionally assembled using fossil resources.

The development of sustainable alternatives represents a central challenge for modern environmental biotechnology. In particular, chemical building blocks that are in high demand from industry include short- and medium-chain carboxylates (SCCs and MCCs, respectively) (2). Both SCCs and MCCs contain a carboxylic group; while SCCs have carbon chains with a length of two to five carbon atoms, MCCs consist of six to twelve carbons (3) and their monetary value increases with an increasing chain length (4). MCCs serve as versatile chemical compounds with numerous industrial applications. Beyond functioning as essential building blocks for bioplastics (5, 6) and potential biofuel precursors through Kolbe electrolysis (7-9), these compounds have considerable utility across multiple sectors. They are widely incorporated into cosmetics, pharmaceuticals (2), fragrances (10), and rubber production (11). Additionally, MCCs feature prominently in food products as flavor additives (11, 12) and in animal feed formulations, where they provide valuable antimicrobial properties (13, 14). Also, they serve as precursors for alcohols such as *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol (15). Conventionally, MCCs are produced from petrochemicals (16), leading to environmental devastation and mobilization and release of carbon dioxide (CO_2). A

potential bio-alternative that is already applied on an industrial scale is the production

of MCCs from animal or plant fat, for example, coconut oil, palm kernel oil, and castor

oil (17, 18). However, the sustainability of this approach is contested because it

requires agricultural land, which is indispensable for growing food, especially given the

steadily increasing global population (19). Another promising biotechnological

alternative is microbial chain elongation to produce MCCs.

By using the reverse ß-oxidation pathway, microbes fuse a C2 compound to short-

chain carboxylates, resulting in a stepwise elongation of the carbon chain by two

carbon atoms at a time, respectively, up to a maximum chain length of six carbon atoms

(20). This elongation process can be achieved by reactor microbiomes using an open

culture of microbial consortia. The open cultures do not require sterile treatment and

are resilient to disturbances (21, 22). Another promising attempt, which was

demonstrated in several studies, is to couple syngas fermentation with chain

elongation by cultivating an acetogenic and a chain-elongating microbe in a co-culture

(23-26). First, the acetogenic microbe produces the intermediates ethanol and acetate

from a mixture of hydrogen, CO_2, and carbon monoxide. Second, the chain-elongating

microbe further elongates the intermediates to medium-chain carboxylates *via* reverse

ß-oxidation. Third, the acetogenic microbe reduces SCCs and MCCs into their

corresponding alcohol (*n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol). Besides open- and co-cultures,

medium-chain carboxylate production performed by pure cultures offers higher

production rates (27).

Clostridium kluyveri has been extensively used to study the physiology and

biochemistry of ethanol-based chain elongation *via* the reverse ß-oxidation pathway

(28-31). Therefore, it serves as a model microbe for microbial chain elongation. To

date, no genetic system for this microbe has been published in a peer-reviewed study.

Here, we developed a genetic system for *C. kluyveri* by mimicking its native

methylation pattern on a shuttle vector plasmid to circumvent its restriction-modification

defense system. As a proof of principle, we introduced and heterologously expressed

alcohol dehydrogenases from *Clostridium acetobutylicum* to enable *n*-butanol and *n*-

hexanol production. By applying the findings from this study, metabolic engineering of

C. kluyveri can be used to increase its productivity, expand its product portfolio, and

obtain more profound insights into the reverse ß-oxidation metabolism in general.

RESULTS

Plating optimization

To enable successful genetic modification, our initial focus was to optimize plating conditions for the reliable growth of single colonies, because a high plating efficiency increases the likelihood of isolating the correct clone. We systematically adjusted each variable to determine the optimal plating conditions. Of these, supplementing the DSMZ52 medium with a 10-fold concentration of vitamins and using cells in their early exponential growth phase had the most substantial positive impact on colony formation (**Table S1**). Other modifications, such as pour-plating with 0.8% Bacto agar, increasing the atmospheric pressure in the storage tanks to 0.6 bar, and placing a sterile filter paper (1 cm × 1 cm) soaked with ethanol in the lid of the Petri dish to ensure sufficient substrate supply, showed moderate positive effects (**Table S1**).

In contrast, using complex modified Reinforced Clostridial Medium (RCM) (32), which was supplemented with 20 mL/L ethanol and 2.5 g/L $NaHCO_3$ instead of DSMZ52 medium, and adding ethanol to the external plate atmosphere affected the plating efficiency negatively (**Table S1**). Further, using paper clips to increase ventilation resulted in a drastic reduction in colony formation (**Table S1**), most likely due to ethanol evaporation and plate desiccation from the enhanced airflow. Because hydrogen production of *C. kluyveri* resulted in large bubbles of the pour-plated medium, which complicated post-treatment, we decided to perform spread-plating whenever a minor reduction in plating efficiency was acceptable. For routine plating, we chose DSMZ52 medium with increased vitamin supplementation over RCM to reduce contamination risk and improve consistency. However, RCM medium was necessary during conjugation to support the growth of *E. coli*.

Antibiotic testing

Selection of cells carrying the desired plasmid requires two key factors: **1)** the sensitivity of the wild-type strain to the respective antibiotic, and **2)** the expression of an enzyme that ensures resistance to the antibiotic to which the wild-type strain is sensitive. Thiamphenicol resistance is a well-established marker in many clostridial strains, including strains closely related to *C. kluyveri* (33, 34). Therefore, we tested the sensitivity of the cells to thiamphenicol in liquid DSMZ52 medium and on plates and determined the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) after one week, which was 3 µg/mL (**Figure S1**). However, we chose to use a higher concentration of 5 µg/mL thiamphenicol in liquid medium to prevent the growth of wild-type cells due to spontaneous resistance or a reduction in antibiotic concentration caused by instability of the antibiotic at 37°C after prolonged incubation. Additionally, we used this concentration to select plasmid-carrying cells on solid media.

Identification of the crucial methylation pattern

A restriction assay of the pMTL83151 shuttle vector plasmid (35), using the cell lysate of *C. kluyveri*, showed digestion of the foreign DNA, producing fragment sizes of approximately 2 kbp and 0.5 kbp (**Figure 1A**). This result indicated that the native restriction and modification defense system of *C. kluyveri* (**Figure 1B**) is a critical barrier that must be overcome for successful genetic modification. PacBio sequencing of the native methylation pattern of the genomic DNA of *C. kluyveri* DSM555 revealed methylation at the following DNA sites: GATC, GWTAAT, CCAAG, CAAAAAT, and CCGG, suggesting the presence of multiple restriction-modification systems. *In-silico* analysis revealed that the observed restriction pattern of the unmethylated pMTL83151 corresponded to the CCGG as the critical methylation site, corresponding with the findings of Schneider, 2024 (36).

We identified a native methyltransferase in the REBASE database (37) that methylates

CCGG sites and is encoded by the genome of *C. kluyveri* (locus tag CKL_2671). To

counteract the restriction, we expressed this methyltransferase under the control of the

Isopropyl-ß-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG)-inducible P_{lac} promoter on the plasmid

pMeth (**Figure 2**) to mimic *C. kluyveri*-specific methylation of pMTL83151. As a result,

the restriction assay testing CCGG-methylated pMTL83151 showed reduced plasmid

digestion. Next, we optimized the methyltransferase expression by testing different

IPTG concentrations (10-1000 mM) for induction in *E. coli* TOP10. In a final restriction

digest (**Figure 1C**), we only observed minimal digestion of the shuttle vector after 24 h,

indicating that the restriction sites of the foreign DNA were protected by methylation

(**Figure 1D**). The lowest restriction activity occurred at IPTG induction concentrations

between 200 mM and 500 mM right after inoculation. Based on these results, we

established 500 mM IPTG as the standard concentration for inducing the expression

of the methyltransferase.

Triparental conjugational DNA transfer

The *E. coli* TOP10 strain, harboring both pMTL83151 and pMeth plasmids, exhibited

reduced growth rates. This growth inhibition was likely attributable to the metabolic

burden that was imposed by maintaining resistance to two antibiotics simultaneously

(chloramphenicol for pMTL83151 and ampicillin for pMeth), combined with the

additional cellular stress of protein expression that is induced by IPTG treatment. To

avoid additional burden on this strain by introducing a third plasmid to enable

conjugation, we instead performed triparental mating for shuttle vector transfer into the

C. kluyveri recipient using a modified transformation protocol (38). We retained *E. coli*

TOP10, containing both pMeth and the shuttle vector plasmid, as the donor strain and

E. coli HB101, carrying pRK2013, as the helper strain (39). To support the growth of

the *E. coli* strains and *C. kluyveri* on the same plate, we tested the growth of the two

E. coli strains on RCM plates supplemented with varying ethanol concentrations (86-

342 mM, 0.5-2.0% [v/v]) under a N_2/CO_2 atmosphere. Both *E. coli* strains exhibited

normal growth up to 257 mM ethanol. We decided to use the highest ethanol

concentration because it is the closest to the ethanol level that we use to cultivate

C. kluyveri (342 mM), making it the optimum condition for co-cultivating these three

strains.

We evaluated different mating durations (24, 48, 72, 96, and 120 h) by selecting

potentially transformed cells on plates containing thiamphenicol and trimethoprim. After

24 h, individual colonies were visible (**Figure S2A**). However, when extending mating

times from 48 h to 120 h, individual colonies became indistinguishable on selective

plates, requiring re-streaking to isolate single colonies (**Figure S2B)**. In the next step,

we successfully verified the presence of the shuttle vector plasmid inside *C. kluyveri*

cells *via* colony PCR (**Figure 3A**), and we sequenced the 16S rRNA gene to verify pure

cultures (**Figure 3B**). From these findings, we conclude that longer mating times

between 48 and 120 h enhance or at least do not adversely affect the transformation

efficiency of the cells.

Heterologous gene expression as proof of concept

To expand the product portfolio of *C. kluyveri*, we aimed to enable the conversion of *n*-

butyrate and *n*-caproate into *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol. This was achieved by

introducing the *adhE2* gene from *C. acetobutylicum* into the shuttle vector plasmid

pMTL83151 under the control of its native promoter, which is P_{adhE2}. *adhE2* encodes a

bifunctional alcohol dehydrogenase, which catalyzes both the conversion of acyl-CoA

to the corresponding aldehyde in the first step and the reduction of the aldehyde to the

respective alcohol in the second step (40). After successful transformation of the

plasmid into *C. kluyveri* cells, we observed the production of alcohols corresponding to

the chain length of the carboxylates produced. However, preliminary measurements of

the alcohols produced by *C. kluyveri* pPadhE2_adhE2 revealed relatively low alcohol

concentrations (*n*-butanol: 1.87 mM, *n*-hexanol: 3.15 mM). To increase alcohol

production, we tested two conditions: **1)** increasing the expression of the *adhE2* gene

by using a stronger promoter (41); and **2)** introducing an NADPH-dependent alcohol

dehydrogenase because NADPH represents a more powerful co-factor than NADH

(42) and the use of NADH by AdhE2 potentially lowers the NADH/NAD+ ratio too much.

Therefore, using NADPH as an alternative co-factor could be advantageous for *n*-

butanol and *n*-hexanol production

To address these limitations, we enhanced *adhE2* expression by replacing the native

promoter with the reportedly stronger P_{thl} promoter from *C. acetobutylicum* (43, 44),

which resulted in higher *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol concentrations (*n*-butanol: 2.73 mM,

n-hexanol: 3.25 mM) compared to the P_{adhE2} promoter. To further increase alcohol

production, we introduced the *bdhB* gene from *C. acetobutylicum*, encoding butanol

dehydrogenase B. Unlike AdhE2, BdhB uses NADPH as a co-factor for converting

aldehydes to alcohols (45, 46). Since BdhB exclusively catalyzes the second step from

the aldehyde to the alcohol (47), we retained AdhE2 to ensure acyl-CoA conversion to

the corresponding aldehyde. Thus, we tested three constructs on the shuttle vector

plasmid pMTL83151: **1)** pPadhE2_adhE2; **2)** pPthl_adhE2; and **3)** pPthl_adhE2_bdhB

and used the pMTL83151 vector as the negative control in a growth experiment

(**Figure 4**). We successfully transformed *C. kluyveri* cells with the three constructs and

the negative control and evaluated the resulting phenotypes. Notably, during the

conjugation process, we observed that DNA transfer for the plasmid encoding both

adhE2 and *bdhB* was only successful after 72 h of mating.

n-Butanol and *n*-hexanol production of the different strains

In bottle experiments, *C. kluyveri* pPadhE2_adhE2, *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2_bdhB, and the negative control exhibited comparable growth with doubling times between 4.5 and 6 h (**Figure 4A**). In comparison, the three replicates of *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2 started to grow at different times after inoculation, thus, leading to higher standard deviations, not only for the OD_{600} but also for substrate and product concentrations for this strain. However, the growth rates were similar to the other strains tested (data not shown). Unfortunately, several attempts to repeat the growth experiment failed due to a high mutation rate in the promoter region of *adhE2* in *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2. Average *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol production was first observed after 33 h for *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2_bdhB and after 38 h for *C. kluyveri* pPadhE2_adhE2 (**Figures 4B,C**). Due to the extended lag phase and high standard deviations (up to 54% for *n*-butanol and 173% for *n*-hexanol), *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2 was the last strain starting to produce *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol (first production observed between 61 h and 81 h, data not shown), resulting in a slower average alcohol production than the other replicates.

Regarding *n*-butanol production, *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2_bdhB reached a maximum concentration of 4.2 ± 0.0 mM, whereas *C. kluyveri* pPadhE2_adhE2 and *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2 exhibited similar *n*-butanol production levels (**Figure 4B**). In line with this observation, *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2_bdhB also achieved the highest *n*-hexanol concentration (3.7 ± 0.6 mM), followed by *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2 (2.3 ± 0.4 mM). *C. kluyveri* pPadhE2_adhE2 produced the lowest amount of *n*-hexanol (2.2 ± 0.4 mM) (**Figure 4C**). The difference in *n*-hexanol production between *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2 and *C. kluyveri* pPadhE2_adhE2 likely would have been notably higher if *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2 had exhibited more consistent growth across the replicates. Also, a longer experiment duration might have further highlighted a potential disparity.

Interestingly, both strains carrying P_{thl} started producing the corresponding alcohols at

lower n-butyrate and n-caproate concentrations (28.6 ± 10.3 mM and 15.6 ± 12.1 mM,

and 34.2 ± 1.4 mM and 21.7 ± 2.3 mM, respectively) (**Figures 4B,C)**. In contrast,

C. kluyveri pPadhE2_adhE2 started *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol production at

42.6 ± 2.6 mM *n*-butyrate and 38.7 ± 5.3 mM *n*-caproate (**Figures 4B,C** and

Figures S3C,D). Remarkably, *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2_bdhB converted most acyl-

CoA into the corresponding alcohol, formed more *n*-butyrate than the other strains, and

reached the highest OD_{600} (**Figures 4A** and **Figures S3C,D)**. It produced 30% less *n*-

caproate than the other alcohol-producing strains and approximately 35% less than

the negative control (**Figure S3D)**. Due to the lower *n*-caproate production, its

conversion rate for substrate carbon into product carbon (*n*-butyrate, *n*-caproate, *n*-

butanol, and *n*-hexanol) only reached 53%, whereas the other strains converted 62-

67% of it (**Figures 4B,C and Figure S3**). Further, *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2_bdhB

showed a higher acetate-to-ethanol ratio at the end of the experiment (0.16) than the

other strains (0.10-0.12) (**Figures S3A,B)**.

DISCUSSION

Our results show that: **1)** adapting the growth conditions for *C. kluyveri* on solid DSMZ52 medium; **2)** determining the MIC of thiamphenicol; and **3)** counteracting restriction modification barriers enabled successful DNA transfer of a shuttle vector plasmid into *C. kluyveri* cells *via* conjugation after 24 h of mating. However, extending the mating time to 48 h improved the transformation efficiency. Notably, transferring the plasmid pPthl_adhE2_bdhB (8.234 kbp) was only successful after 72 h, suggesting that shuttle vectors with critical genes or an increased size may require extended mating times. This extension has been shown to improve conjugation efficiencies overall (48).

All generated strains, but the negative control, showed plasmid-based gene expression of the *adhE2* and *bdhB* genes from *C. acetobutylicum*. This led to phenotypically modified *C. kluyveri* strains that were capable of producing *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol. In line with our expectations, both replacing P$_{adhE2}$ with the reportedly stronger P$_{thl}$ promoter and introducing a second, NADPH-dependent butanol dehydrogenase resulted in enhanced *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol production. The clear variability observed in the lag phase duration among the replicates of *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2 distorted the calculated mean values. This statistical distortion resulted in an artificial lowering of the estimated growth rate because the extended lag phases of some replicates disproportionately influenced the overall growth calculations. This bias not only lowers the slope of the OD$_{600}$ but also needs to be considered for the graphs representing the substrates and products. A potential explanation for the extended lag phase is cell stress caused by the P$_{thl}$ promoter, which is stronger than P$_{adhE2}$. Because AdhE2 catalyzes both reactions of acyl-CoA to aldehyde and aldehyde to alcohol, it may have a higher affinity towards the first reaction in *C. kluyveri*. Hence, the promoter

exchange could lead to aldehyde accumulation, which is known to be toxic (49, 50),

causing cell stress and impaired cells.

The batch experiment provided compelling evidence supporting the hypothesis that

the combination of the P_{thl} promoter and solely the *adhE2* gene exhibits toxicity. This

toxicity was demonstrated conclusively by metabolic impairment: across three

independent growth experiments, none of the *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2 replicates

produced detectable levels of either *n*-butanol or *n*-hexanol. In contrast, only one

experiment resulted in the successful production of the alcohols. Sequencing of the

non-alcohol-producing cultures revealed that all contained a deletion in the P_{thl} region

(**Figure S4A**), suggesting a selection pressure against the expression of *adhE2*.

Additionally, sequencing *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2 cultures, which produced *n*-butanol

and *n*-hexanol, revealed a less defined baseline in the promoter region (**Figure S4B**),

indicating that a fraction of the cells had already mutated. Given these findings, we

cannot rule out that an unmutated pure culture of *C. kluyveri* pPthl_adhE2 could have

performed better. Nonetheless, while using a stronger promoter enhanced the

production of *n*-hexanol, adding the butanol dehydrogenase presumably helped

accelerate aldehyde removal. This prevented toxic accumulation and resulted in a

stable, mutation-free strain.

Furthermore, we observed reduced formation of *n*-caproate by *C. kluyveri*

pPthl_adhE2_bdhB despite reaching the highest OD_{600} of all strains. This might be due

to a more balanced use of the co-factors NADH and NADPH. Both co-factors are

utilized to prevent excessive depletion of NADH, which would result in a reduced

$NADH/NAD^+$ ratio. This results in a higher NADH reducing capability and increased

alcohol production (51). Additionally, improved recycling of the co-factors could explain

the lower final concentration of *n*-caproate. Since NADH and NADPH are used as

electron donors for alcohol production, they are less available for other processes,

such as the formation of carboxylates (28). As a result, these reactions occur less

frequently, leading to a decrease in *n*-caproate production.

The genetic system demonstrated in this study enabled plasmid-based gene

expression, leading to heterologous production of *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol by

C. kluyveri. Besides expanding the product portfolio of this microbe, our research

represents the first step towards developing a broader toolkit for *C. kluyveri*, including

genome editing techniques (*e.g.*, homologous recombination, CRISPR-based

methods). Consequently, the genetic accessibility of the model microbe for chain

elongation is a precondition for further research on the reverse ß-oxidation pathway,

which holds strong industrial potential. Therefore, gaining a deeper understanding of

this pathway, both on a genetic level and in terms of the enzymes involved in their

central energy metabolism, is crucial to enhancing its productivity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Microbial strains, media, and cultivation

C. kluyveri DSM555 was obtained from the DSMZ (Braunschweig, Germany) and used as the wild-type strain. Unless stated otherwise, all *C. kluyveri* strains in this study were cultivated in DSMZ52 medium for which 2.5 g/L $NaHCO_3$ was used to buffer the medium instead of Na_2CO_3. Cultures were grown in 100-mL medium with a headspace of 140 mL under an N_2/CO_2 (80/20) atmosphere. Both liquid cultures and plates (containing 0.8% [v/v] Bacto agar) were incubated at 37°C until visible growth was observed. When required, the medium was supplemented with 5 µg/mL thiamphenicol and 10 µg/mL trimethoprim for selection. All genetic manipulations of *C. kluyveri* were conducted under strict anoxic conditions.

Unless otherwise noted, *E. coli* HB101 pRK2013 and *E. coli* TOP10 strains were grown in liquid Luria-Bertani (LB) medium or on LB plates containing 1.5% agar. For plasmid selection and maintenance, the medium was supplemented with 100 µg/mL ampicillin (for liquid cultures), 100 µg/mL carbenicillin (for plates), 30 µg/mL chloramphenicol, or 30 µg/mL kanamycin. IPTG was added at a concentration of 500 mM to induce the expression of the methyltransferase encoded on pMeth.

Optimization of the plating efficiency

The variables (**Table S1**) were systematically adjusted one at a time to determine the optimal plating conditions, while all other conditions remained identical. The resulting outcomes were compared to the previously identified best conditions. Both the modified condition and the previously best-performing combination of conditions were tested using the same culture conditions and inoculation volume (4% [v/v]) with simultaneous incubation. The inoculum was serially diluted by increasing the dilution

factor by a magnitude of 10, reaching a final dilution of 1:100,000, and each dilution

was plated in duplicates for both conditions. Colony counts were performed by

capturing images using the UVP GelStudio system (Analytic Jena, Jena, Germany)

and analyzed with the integrated colony-count software. The plating conditions yielding

the highest colony count were determined to be the updated optimal combination, and

the following variable was tested accordingly.

Restriction digest

10 mL of a late exponential phase *C. kluyveri* culture were harvested, washed twice

with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) buffer (137 mM sodium chloride, 2.7 mM

potassium chloride, 10 mM sodium phosphate dibasic, and p1.8 mM potassium

phosphate monobasic), and resuspended in 300 µL PBS buffer. Cells were lysed using

bead-beating (30 sec, 6.5 m/s; FastPrep-24™, MP BioMedicals, Santa Ana, USA).

The lysing procedure was performed four times, and in between, the cells were kept

on ice for 3 min. The lysis was centrifuged at $2000 \times g$ for 20 min at 4°C. To assess the

sensitivity of the respective plasmid to the native restriction enzymes of *C. kluyveri*,

5 µL of the supernatant were added to 13 µL plasmid (200 ng) and 2 µL rCutSmart™

buffer (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, Massachusetts, USA). The prepared reaction

mix was stored at 37°C for 1 to 24 h. Results were analyzed *via* gel electrophoresis

and potential corresponding restriction sites were analyzed *in silico* with SnapGene

(GSL Biotech LLC, San Diego, USA).

PacBio sequencing

High molecular weight DNA (25 ng/µL) was isolated with the NucleoSpin Microbial DNA

Mini kit for DNA (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany) and sheared using 35 kb settings

with a Megaruptor 2 instrument (Diagenode, SA, Lüttich, Belgium). Average insert

sizes were approximately 10 kb. Sheared fragments were used to prepare libraries

with the HiFi SMRTbell Express Template Prep Kit 2.0 (Pacific Biosciences, Menlo

Park, California, USA). The libraries were size-selected with a BluePippin system

(SageScience, Beverly, USA) with 17 kb cutoff in a 0.75% DF Marker S1 High-Pass 6-

10 kb vs3 gel cassette (Biozym, Hamburg, Germany). The library was sequenced with

sequencing primer v2 (Pacific Biosciences, #101-847-900) and 4 h of pre-extension

time on a single SMRT Cell with the Sequel II system using Binding Kit 2.0.

Methylation profiling

Reads were demultiplexed using Lima (52) and converted into High-Fidelity (HiFi)

reads retaining kinetic information with Circular Consensus Sequencing (53). BAM files

were converted to FASTQ with bam2fastx (54). Reads shorter than 1000 bp and the

lowest 5% of reads based on quality scores were discarded using Filtlong (55).

Trycycler (56) was used to subsample reads and generate a consensus sequence from

12 assemblies independently generated with Flye (57), Miniasm (58), and Raven (59).

HiFi reads were then aligned with the consensus assembly using pbmm2 (60), and

ipdSummary (61) was used to detect and classify DNA base-modifications from the

kinetic signatures. MotifMaker (62) was used to identify statistically significant

methylated motifs, with a minimum score threshold of 60. Motifs were retained if they

were identified for 90% or more possible sites in the genome. The native

methyltransferase of *C. kluyveri,* responsible for methylating the critical CCGG sites,

was identified using the REBASE database (37).

Plasmid construction

Plasmids (**Table S2**) were constructed with *E. coli* TOP10 and the respective primers

(**Table S3)**. The pUC19 vector (63) served as the backbone for the methylation plasmid

pMeth. The gene encoding the critical methyltransferase (CKL_2671) from *C. kluyveri*

was PCR amplified (Q5 polymerase, New England Biolabs (NEB), Ipswich, MA, USA)

from genomic DNA (NucleoSpin, Microbial DNA, Macherey-Nagel) and inserted into

the multiple cloning site *via* Gibson Assembly (NEBuilder, NEB). The lambda t1

terminator was introduced downstream of the CKL_2671 gene *via* PCR, amplifying the

plasmid with overlapping primers and transferring the linear DNA inside *E. coli*. The

same method was applied to remove the nucleotide sequence between the promoter

and the start codon of CKL_2671 to utilize the promoter present in the backbone (P_{lac}).

In the final step, the origin of replication (ORI) was exchanged from the pSC101 ORI

to the p15a ORI (64) by Gibson Assembly (NEBuilder, NEB) to ensure a low copy

number and compatibility with the shuttle vector plasmids for *C. kluyveri*. For *n*-butanol

and *n*-hexanol production, pMTL83151 (35) served as the backbone for all shuttle

vector plasmids. The DNA fragments *adhE2*, *bdhB*, P_{adhE2}, and P_{thl} from

C. acetobutylicum were PCR amplified (Q5 polymerase, NEB) from genomic DNA, and

the respective fragments were inserted into the plasmids *via* Gibson Assembly

(NEBuilder, NEB).

Triparental conjugational DNA transfer

We inoculated LB medium supplemented with ampicillin, chloramphenicol, and IPTG

(to induce the expression of the methyltransferase) with the donor strain *E. coli* TOP10,

carrying the desired plasmid and incubated the culture overnight. When both the donor

strain and the helper strain *E. coli* HB101 pRK2013, which was grown in LB medium

supplemented with 30 µL kanamycin, reached an OD_{600} of 0.6-0.8, 1 mL of each

culture was harvested by centrifugation (17,900 × *g*, 3 min). The resulting pellets were

suspended and mixed in PBS buffer. We again centrifuged the *E. coli* mixture (17,900

× *g*, 3 min) and transferred the received cell pellet into the anoxic chamber.

Subsequently, 2 mL of mid-exponential *C. kluyveri* wild-type culture (OD_{600}: 0.4-0.7)

was harvested *via* centrifugation (9.800 × *g*, 4 min) and resuspended in 50 µL RCM

under an N_2 atmosphere. This cell suspension was used to resuspend the *E. coli* cell

pellet. The cell mixture was then spot-plated on RCM plates (1.5% [v/v] agar)

containing 500 mM IPTG and 257 mM ethanol (1.5% [v/v]). Plates were incubated at

37°C in an N_2/CO_2 (80/20) atmosphere for up to 120 h. After mating, cells from the

mating spots were transferred *via* striking onto DSMZ52 plates containing

thiamphenicol to select for the respective plasmid. After cells had grown on the first

selective plate, they were streaked onto a thiamphenicol and trimethoprim-containing

DSMZ52 plate to select against *E. coli* strains. The resulting colonies were then further

analyzed.

Molecular methods for analysis of genetically modified *C. kluyveri*

Direct colony PCR was conducted on both colonies and liquid cultures to confirm the

presence of the respective plasmid in *C. kluyveri* cells. Individual colonies were picked

and resuspended in 25 µL of 10 mM NaOH to extract the DNA template. For PCR

performed on liquid cultures, 100 µL of culture was sampled. In both cases, the cells

were lysed at 98°C for 10 min using a ThermoMixerC (Eppendorf, Hamburg,

Germany). For the PCR reactions, 1 µL of the lysate was utilized in two separate 10 µL

PCR reactions (PhirePlant (ThermoScientific™, Waltham, USA)) – one using plasmid-

specific primers and the other using *C. kluyveri*-specific primers. The results of the

reactions were analyzed *via* gel electrophoresis. Additionally, a 30 µL PCR reaction

targeting the 16S rRNA gene was performed using 3 µL of the lysate as a template.

The resulting PCR product was purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit

(QIAGEN, Venlo, Netherlands) and subsequently analyzed *via* Sanger sequencing

(GENEWIZ, Leipzig, Germany) to verify a pure culture of *C. kluyveri*.

Analysis of compound concentration

To determine the concentrations of carboxylates (*e.g.*, acetate, *n*-butyrate, *n*-caproate)

and alcohols (*n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol), an Agilent 7890B gas chromatograph (Agilent

Technologies, Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA) that were equipped with a DB-Fatwax UI

capillary column (30 m x 0.25 mm x 0.25 μm) and flame ionization detector (FID) was

used. Hydrogen served as the carrier gas, and the temperature program consisted of

an initial temperature of 40°C for 3 min, ramped at 12°C/min to 160°C, followed by a

further ramp of 20°C/min to 230°C with a 5-min hold. Ethyllactate was used as an

internal standard at a concentration of 2 mM for quantifying carboxylates. The sampling

volume was 1 mL of culture that was centrifuged (17,900 *g*, 3 min), and from which we

stored the supernatant at -20°C until further analysis. Before measuring, the samples

were thawed and filtered through a 0.2 μm polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) sterilefilter.

For the analysis, samples were diluted at ratios of 1:2 for *n*-butanol and *n*-hexanol and

1:50 for MCCs measurements.

For ethanol concentration measurements, undiluted samples were analyzed using the

LC-20 high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) system (Shimadzu,

Nishinokyo Kuwabara-cho, Japan). The system was equipped with an Aminex-HPX-

87H column, and 5 mM sulfuric acid was utilized as the mobile phase at a flow rate of

0.6 mL/min (LC-20AD). The oven temperature was maintained at 65°C (CTO-20AC),

and the samples were cooled at 15°C in the autosampler unit.

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L.T.A. initiated the work. C.S., S.T.B., and L.T.A. designed the experiments. C.S.,

S.T.B., J.W.M., and K.G. performed laboratory experiments and analyzed the data.

L.T.A. and S.T.B. supervised the project. C.S., L.T.A., J.W.M., and S.T.B. wrote the

manuscript, while all edited the paper and approved the final version.

We declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1. Restriction modification system of C. kluyveri. *A) Restriction digest of the unmethylated pMTL83151 plasmid after 4 h. The solid-lined box in the 2nd lane shows the unrestricted, circular plasmid (~4.5 kbp), whereas the dashed-lined box in the 4th lane shows the vector digested by* C. kluyveri *cell lysate (fragment sizes: ~2 kbp, ~0.5 kbp). The linearized pMTL83151 vector in the 3rd lane (~4.5 kbp) and the mixture of circular plasmids pMTL83151 and pMeth (5th lane) serve as controls. B) In bacterial cells, DNA restriction serves as a defense mechanism against foreign DNA that either lacks methylation at the critical sites or shows a different methylation pattern from the native DNA of the respective bacterium. C) Restriction digest of* C. kluyveri-*specific methylated pMTL83151 after 24 h. Because the expression of the methyltransferase (CKL_2671) of* C. kluyveri *was controlled by the* P*lac promoter, we tested different IPTG levels for*

induction (10°mM to 1 M). All induction levels result in minor restriction of pMTL83151 highlighted with dashed boxes (fragment sizes: ~2 kbp and ~0.5 kbp), however, the restriction was clearly reduced and minimized. Best results with the least restriction were obtained for the induction with 500 mM IPTG. D) As a result of the same methylation pattern as the native DNA, the foreign DNA is protected from restriction by the bacterial restriction modification system. Created with BioRender.com.

Figure 2. *Plasmid map of pMeth based on pUC19. CKL_2671 was amplified from C. kluyveri genomic DNA and cloned into the multiple cloning site of pUC19. The T7 terminator was cloned into the plasmid and the ORI of puC19 was exchanged to the p15A ORI. Created with BioRender.com.*

Figure 3. *Verification of pMTL83151 inside* C. kluyveri *cells. A) We screened 18* C. kluyveri *colonies (lanes 1-18) for the presence of the plasmid pMTL83151 and verified its presence* via *colony PCR of the respective clones. Negative and positive (fragment size: ~1 kbp) controls are shown on the right side. The band corresponding to a longer fragment in the positive control results from the circular pMTL83151 plasmid, which served as template. B) Sanger Sequencing results of the 16S rRNA gene from the screened clones. All clones showed clear signals, confirming pure* C. kluyveri *pMTL83151 cultures. We show only one of the sequencing results here, which represents all tested clones. Created with BioRender.com.*

Figure 4. Results of the growth experiment. A) The growth behavior was measured by OD₆₀₀, showing that all strains but C. kluyveri *pPthl_adhE2 showed comparable growth. B)* C. kluyveri *pPthl_adhE2_bdhB reached the highest* n-*butanol concentration, whereas* C. kluyveri *pPadhE2_adhE2 and* C. kluyveri *pPthl_adhE2 showed comparable production levels. C) We observed the highest* n-*hexanol levels for* C kluyveri *pPthl_adhE2_bdhB, followed by* C. kluyveri *pPthl_adhE2. Created with MATLAB2024b.*