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Received 22 June 2010/Accepted 31 July 2010

We report development of a genetic system for making targeted gene knockouts in *Clostridium thermocellum*, a thermophilic anaerobic bacterium that rapidly solubilizes cellulose. A toxic uracil analog, 5-fluoroorotic acid (5-FOA), was used to select for deletion of the *pyrF* gene. The $\Delta pyrF$ strain is a uracil auxotroph that could be restored to a prototroph via ectopic expression of *pyrF* from a plasmid, providing a positive genetic selection. Furthermore, 5-FOA was used to select against plasmid-expressed *pyrF*, creating a negative selection for plasmid loss. This technology was used to delete a gene involved in organic acid production, namely *pta*, which encodes the enzyme phosphotransacetylase. The *C. thermocellum* Δpta strain did not produce acetate. These results are the first examples of targeted homologous recombination and metabolic engineering in *C. thermocellum*, a microbe that holds an exciting and promising future in the biofuel industry and development of sustainable energy resources.

Conversion of cellulosic biomass using saccharolytic fermentative microorganisms without the addition of purified cellulase and hemicellulase enzymes is a promising approach for low-cost production of renewable fuels and chemicals (22, 23). Thermophilic, cellulolytic bacteria are one departure point for development of microorganisms with the requisite capabilities for such consolidated bioprocessing (CBP), with *Clostridium thermocellum* being exemplary in this regard. As reviewed elsewhere (6, 22), *C. thermocellum* is a Gram-positive organism able to ferment cellulose and products of cellulose solubilization to ethanol, acetic acid, lactic acid, formic acid, hydrogen, and CO_2 . *C. thermocellum* appears to be a cellulose-utilizing specialist (6, 8) and produces a multienzyme cellulose-solubilizing complex termed a cellulosome (2, 3, 9).

Metabolic engineering is required in order to increase the yield of ethanol or other desired products from mixed-product fermentation, such as that carried out by *Clostridium thermo-cellum*. Comprehensive work directed to this end has been carried out with genetically tractable organisms, such as *Escherichia coli*, resulting in high or near-theoretical yields achieved for ethanol (35, 36), other native products (21, 25), and non-

native products (7, 12). In these organisms, genetic systems involving both positive and negative selection markers have been employed in order to facilitate reuse of the same marker and to develop marker-free strains. One prominent system in the category involves use of the gene encoding the enzyme orotidine 5-phosphate decarboxylase (PyrF) (4, 11, 20, 27–29, 39). PyrF participates in *de novo* pyrimidine biosynthesis but is also a target for the antimetabolite 5-fluoroorotic acid (5-FOA) (4). Thus, cells lacking *pyrF* are uracil auxotrophs and resistant to 5-FOA, creating an opportunity whereby ectopic expression of *pyrF* can be selected or counterselected (4).

Reliable genetic tractability has been elusive for *Clostridium* species. Prior to this report, the only *Clostridia* species in which gene deletion via homologous recombination has been demonstrated are Clostridium acetobutylicum, Clostridium perfringens, and Clostridium septicum. In the first organism, the use of a replicating plasmid for transformation followed by selection and screening for plasmid segregation resulted in a single clone that when analyzed contained a disruption in the gene of interest but not by the expected recombination events (13). The last two organisms have either an unusually high transformation frequency or feasibility for acquiring DNA from E. coli via conjugation, allowing the use of suicide plasmids (1, 16, 19). By comparison, the recently reported method of C. thermocellum transformation consists of a complex and cumbersome electroporation protocol using a custom pulse delivery system (37, 38). In our hands, efficiency of the C. thermocellum electrotransformation system does not compare with that of typical model organisms and does not enable the use of nonreplicating plasmids as a means of gene manipulation. Alternatively, group II intron technology has been used to inactivate gene

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^{∇} Published ahead of print on 6 August 2010.

TABLE 1. Oligonucleotides used in this stud	TABLE	1.	Oligonucle	eotides	used	in	this	stud
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Primer	Sequence (5'-3')
X00105	
X00106	
X00109	CCTGATAAATGCTTCAATAATATTGAAAAAGGAAGAGTATCCAGTATTCTGACATGGGTG
X00110	
X00967	
X00968	
X00969	
X00970	
X00973	
X00974	
X01840	ATCAGTTATTACCCACTTTTCGGGGAAATGTGCGCGGAACCCATTGCGAAGATCTGGACC
X01841	
X01842	CCGTTGTAGGATTAGACCCTAGGGACGATATTAACAGTGC
X01843	
X01893	
	CATGAGTGCTGCAATGGGAG
X02005	TATCCTTGTACCTTACGCC
X02051	CTAATAACCCTCATGTCAAG
X01905	
X03061	AAGAAACCATTATTATCATGACATTAACCTATAAAAAAGGTCTAGAGAGTCGTGACTAAGAACGTC
X03062	CGTTTCACTTCTGAGTTCGCGAATTCAAGAACGCAGGATTGAATAGAG
X03063	CTCTATTCAATCCTGCGTTCTTGAATTCGCGAACTCAGAAGTGAAACG
	GAATTGTGAGCGGATAACAATTTCACACAGGAAACAGCTTCTAGAACAAGGGTTACCGGAATTTAC
X03079	CAAATAAACGAAAATTTTAAGGAGGACGAAAGATGTTTATTGATACATTAATTGAAAAAGATTA
X03080	ACCCGGATAACTTCTTTTGTCATACCTTGCTTTATTACTTCCTGTCTCGCAACGCACTG
X03852	CAGTGAGGCACCTATCTCAGCGATCTGTCAATTCGCGGCCGCGAAAAGTGGGTAATAACTG
X03853	CTGCAGGTCGACTCTAGAGGATCCCCGGGTACCGCGGCCGCGATCGCTTGCCTGTAACTTAC
X03886	ATTACGCCAAGCTTGCATGCCCTGCAGGTCGACTCTAGAGCGTCGTTCATGTTTCTGTGG
	TGTAAGTTACAGGCAAGCGATCGCGGCCGCGGTACCCGGGCCATTGCGAAGATCTGGACC
	AAGGATAATCCTTCCGTTGTAGGATTAGACCCTACTAGTAGCCCTTCAAACTTCCCAAAG
	CACTAGGGCTCGCCTTTGGGAAGTTTGAAGGGCTACTAGTAGGGTCTAATCCTACAACGG
	CTTTTTTAAAAGTCAATCCCGTTTGTTGAACTACTGTACAAGGGACGATATTAACAGTGC
	TGTCTCGCAACGCACTGTTAATATCGTCCCTTGTACAGTAGTTCAACAAACGGGATTGAC
	TGTAAGTTACAGGCAAGCGATCGCGGCCGCGGTACCCGGGCAGGCA
	CTTTGGGAAGTTTGAAGGGCTGCGGCTTTAATAACCCTCAG
	CTGAGGGTTATTAAAGCCGCAGCCCTTCAAACTTCCCAAAG
	GACATATTGAGCCTGAACCGGTAGTTCAACAAACGGGATTGAC
	GTCAATCCCGTTTGTTGAACTACCGGTTCAGGCTCAATATGTC
	ATTACGCCAAGCTTGCATGCCCTGCAGGTCGACTCTAGAGTGTCATCTCCCTTTTCTGCG
X05850	GCTTCTTAAGACAGGAAAGC

targets in clostridia that were previously characterized as genetically intractable, but systems described to date have a temperature restriction that make such approaches incompatible with thermophilic clostridia (14, 15, 34).

The only C. thermocellum mutant characterized genetically was isolated following a random mutagenesis and enrichment for cells that did not adhere to cellulose (43). The random mutagenesis approach is limited, in the sense that it does not lend itself well to reverse genetics, as many desired mutations lack selectable or screenable phenotypes. For instance, attempts have been made, with little success, to isolate saccharolytic thermophiles containing lesions in the *pta-ack* operon responsible for acetate production by selective enrichment using antimetabolites (26). In contrast, the creation of a Thermoanaerobacterium saccharolyticum Δpta -ack strain has been achieved using selectable markers that serve as a proxy for the events leading to targeted gene deletion (32). Motivated by the potential of microbial cellulose processing and the attributes of C. thermocellum, we undertook to develop a gene deletion system based on the *pyrF* gene.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Media, culture conditions, and reagents. C. thermocellum DSM 1313 was cultured in DSM 122 broth (37) with addition of 50 mM MOPS (morpholinepropanesulfonic acid) and 10 mM sodium citrate, herein referred to as rich medium. Cellobiose or Avicel was added at 5 g/liter unless otherwise noted, and 0.8% Difco agar was used for solid medium preparation. A uracil-free version of the rich medium, herein referred to as defined medium, omitted yeast extract and contained 3 µg/ml pyridoxamine hydrochloride, 0.3 µg/ml biotin, 0.6 µg/ml p-aminobenzoic acid, and 0.3 µg/ml vitamin B₁₂. Alternatively, MJ medium (17), which contains urea instead of ammonium sulfate as a nitrogen source, was used as a uracil-free chemically defined medium. No difference was seen between MJ and the uracil-free version of DSM 122 when performing genetic selections. C. thermocellum was grown anaerobically at 55°C unless otherwise noted. E. coli was grown aerobically at 37°C in LB broth (Fischer Scientific). Saccharomyces cerevisiae was grown in YPD medium or synthetic uracil dropout medium (MP Biomedicals). For C. thermocellum, thiamphenicol (Tm) was used in a range from 3 to 48 µg/ml as indicated, at 55°C (at 60°C and above, nonspecific growth was observed, indicating a potential decrease in the stability of Tm at elevated temperatures). For E. coli, 20 µg/ml chloramphenicol (Cm) and 15 µg/ml ampicillin (Ap) were used. When appropriate, 40 µg/ml uracil was used to supplement C. thermocellum growth. Where indicated, 500 µg/ml 5-FOA was added (Zymo Research). All reagents, unless noted, were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.

Molecular cloning and plasmid construction. Primer design for amplification of DNA from *C. thermocellum* 1313 was based on the available *C. thermocellum*

TABLE 2. Plasmids and	l strains used in this study
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Plasmid or strain	Source or reference	
Plasmids		
pUC19	General purpose cloning vector, Ap	NEB^{a}
pMU102	pMU104, region between the FokI and EcoRI sites has been deleted, Cm	This study
pMU104	pNW33N, E. coli-C. thermocellum shuttle vector, Cm	BGSC ^b
pMU110	pMQ87, S. cerevisiae-E. coli shuttle vector, Ura ⁺ , Gm	This study
pMU111	pMU110 with <i>aac1</i> (Gm) replaced by <i>cat</i> from pMU104, Ura ⁺ , Cm	This study
pMU113	pMU111 with C. thermocellum gapDHp driving cat, Ura ⁺ , Cm	This study
pMU245	E. coli-C. thermocellum cloning vector, Ap	This study
pMU357	S. cerevisiae-E. coli-C. thermocellum shuttle vector for expressing genes in C. thermocellum, C. thermocellum gapDHp, Ura ⁺ , Cm	This study
pMU440	S. cerevisiae-E. coli-C. thermocellum shuttle vector, C. thermocellum $\Delta pyrF$ cassette, Ura ⁺ , Cm	This study
pMU482	<i>E. coli-C. thermocellum</i> shuttle vector, <i>C. thermocellum</i> $\Delta pyrF$ cassette, Cm	This study
pMU582	pMU110, C. thermocellum cbp promoter, cbp gene, T1T2 terminator, Ura ⁺ , Gm	This study
pMU597	pMU582, <i>C. thermocellum cbp</i> gene replaced by <i>C. thermocellum pyrF</i> gene, creating <i>cbpp-pyrF</i> cassette, Ura ⁺ , Gm	This study
pMU612	pMU102 containing <i>cbpp-pyrF</i> cassette, Cm	This study
pMU749	pMU245, CEN6/ARSH4, ura3, S. cerevisiae-E. coli-C. thermocellum vector, Ura ⁺ , Ap	This study
pMU769	pMU749 with $\Delta pyrF$::gapDHp-cat cassette, Ura ⁺ , Ap, Cm	This study
pMU1016	pMU749 with Δpta ::gapDHp-cat cassette, Ura ⁺ , Ap, Cm	This study
pMU1162	pMU1016 with <i>cbpp-pyrF</i> cassette, Ura ⁺ , Ap, Cm	This study
Strains		
E. coli Top10	Cloning strain	Invitrogen ^c
S. cerevisiae InvSC1	Ura3 ⁻ for gap repair cloning	Invitrogen ^c
C. thermocellum M0003	Wild-type C. thermocellum DSM 1313	DSMZ^d
C. thermocellum M0970	DSM 1313 $\Delta pyrF$	This study
C. thermocellum M0971	DSM 1313 $\Delta pyrF \Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$	This study
C. thermocellum M1061	DSM 1313 <i>ApyrF</i> pMU612	This study
C. thermocellum M1062	DSM 1313 $\Delta pyrF$ pMU102	This study

^a New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA.

^b Bacillus Genetic Stock Center; http://www.bgsc.org/.

^c Carlsbad, CA.

^d Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen GmbH, Germany.

^e Ap, ampicillin; Cm, chloramphenicol; Gm, gentamicin.

ATCC 27405 genome (http://genome.jgi-psf.org/cloth/cloth.home.html). The oligonucleotides and the plasmids/strains used in this study are listed in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. The 5' and 3' flanking regions (~1 kb) of *pyrF* and *pta* were amplified and assembled using yeast gap repair cloning to create gene deletion plasmids (30). The *pyrF* and *pta* deletion vectors (pMU769 and pMU1162, respectively) contained *cat* (encoding chloramphenicol acetyltransferase) expressed from the *C. thermocellum gapDH* promoter (*gapDHp*) positioned between the 5' and 3' flanking regions (see Fig. 3A). The *pyrF* complementing construct (pMU612) contained *pyrF* expressed from the *C. thermocellum* cellobiose phosphorylase gene (*cbp*) promoter (*cbpp*). All DNA manipulations and cloning procedures were performed per the method of Maniatis et al. (24). For maps of vectors and details of vector constructions, see Fig. SA1 in the supplemental material.

Transformation of C. thermocellum and selection of mutants. The transformation protocol used was modified substantially from the previously reported protocol (37). The pulse generator was custom built and utilized a solid-state insulated-gate bipolar transistor (IGBT) instead of a power tetrode as the highvoltage switch (Infineon; part no. FZ200R65KF2). The device was charged with a high-voltage power supply from Emco (part no. F101). The charge was stored in an 8-kV, 32-µF capacitor made by General Atomics (part no. 39742). Pulse duration and interval were controlled by an arbitrary function generator (Tektronix; part no. AFG3101). All manipulations were done under anaerobic conditions. Cultures were grown to mid-log phase (optical density at 600 nm [OD₆₀₀] of 0.4 to 0.8) in rich medium and harvested by centrifugation $(2,200 \times g \text{ for } 12)$ to 14 min). Cells were washed twice in autoclaved, deionized water, and the final pellet was resuspended in 200 µl deionized water. For each transformation, 20 µl of cell suspension was added, along with 1 to 8 μg of plasmid DNA, to a 0.1-cm gap electroporation cuvette (Fisher Scientific). A series of 60 square pulses were applied to the sample (see Fig. SA2, showing a pulse diagram, in the supplemental material). The period of the pulses was 300 µs, and the amplitude was 1.9 kV, resulting in an applied field strength of 19 kV/cm. After pulsing, cells were recovered overnight (15 to 18 h) at 51°C in 3 to 5 ml rich medium. For liquid

selection, recovered cultures were inoculated (10% [vol/vol]) into either rich medium supplemented with 3 to 6 µg/ml thiamphenicol (Tm) or uracil-free MJ medium when selecting for uracil prototrophy. For selecting transformants on solid medium, the recovery cultures were plated by mixing them in rich medium containing agar and 3 to 6 µg/ml Tm or MJ medium containing agar followed by a short incubation at room temperature in the anaerobic chamber to allow medium solidification before incubation of the plates at 55°C. To select $\Delta pyrF$ mutants, transformants were grown in 3 μ g/ml Tm. The cultures were then diluted to approximately 10^8 cells/ml, and 100 μl of the diluted culture was plated as agar suspensions in rich medium containing 5-FOA. 5-FOA-resistant colonies were screened by PCR using primers X02004 and X02005 (Table 1), which anneal outside the regions of homology used to delete pyrF (Fig. 1A). More than 99% of the colonies screened were pyrF mutants that resulted from homologous recombination events as opposed to spontaneous mutations (see Results for more details). The pyrF::gapDHp-cat mutants were isolated as described in Results, and the same primer set was used to screen $\Delta pyrF::gapDHp-cat$ mutants.

To select *pta::gapDHp-cat* mutants, the $\Delta pyrF$ strain transformed with pMU1162 was grown in 5 ml of rich medium supplemented with 6 to 12 $\mu g/ml$ Tm or in MJ medium for about 14 to 16 h. Various volumes of the cultures (ranging from 10 μ l to 1 ml) were plated as agar suspensions of rich medium containing 5-FOA and 48 $\mu g/ml$ Tm. Resistant colonies were screened by PCR using primers X02051 and X05980 (Table 1), which anneal outside the regions of homology used to delete *pta* (see Fig. 3A).

Fermentation conditions and analytical methods. Batch fermentations in anaerobic tubes with the wild-type (WT), $\Delta pyrF$, and $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strains were performed at 55°C in rich medium under a nitrogen atmosphere utilizing cellobiose or Avicel as the primary carbon source. The fermentation products were analyzed using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) as previously described (32). Growth rate measurements were performed in a 200-µl volume in a 96-well plate at 55°C. The optical density at 600 nm was read by a Powerwave XS plate reader customized by the manufacturer to incubate up to 68°C (BioTek). The plates were shaken continuously and read at 3-min intervals. Each

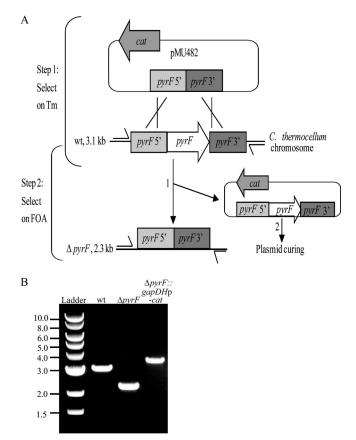


FIG. 1. Creation of a C. thermocellum $\Delta pyrF$ strain. (A) Relevant features of the pyrF deletion vector, pMU482, are the positive marker for transformation (cat) and the flanking regions of homology that target deletion of pyrF (pyrF 5' and pyrF 3'). The chromosomal pyrF locus contains the pyrF gene in the context of the flanking DNA. Step 1, plating on Tm allows selection of transformants harboring pMU482; step 2, plating on 5-FOA selects for deletion of pyrF from chromosome and insertion into pMU482 (numbered 1) and loss of pMU482 containing pyrF (numbered 2). Primers used for PCR are indicated by the one-sided arrows, and the sizes of the expected amplicons are shown to the left. (B) DNA gel showing colony PCR results using primers X02204 and X02205 on wild-type (lane 2), $\Delta pyrF$ (lane 3), and $\Delta pyrF::gapDHp-cat$ (lane 4) strains. The numbers on the left indicate the band sizes in kb for the NEB 1-kb ladder used as a marker (lane 1).

sample was measured in quadruplicate. The specific growth rate (µ) was determined by measuring the slope of the natural log-transformed OD readings. A 2-h sliding window of OD readings between 0.08 and 1.00 was used for determination of the maximum growth rate, μ_{max} . In all cases, the R^2 value was greater than 0.99.

RESULTS

Isolation of a C. thermocellum $\Delta pyrF$ strain. A schematic depicting events leading to deletion of *pyrF* is shown in Fig. 1A. The current transformation efficiency of C. thermocellum does not allow use of nonreplicating plasmids for genetic manipulation. Thus, to delete pyrF, WT C. thermocellum was transformed with a replicating allelic exchange vector, pMU482, using Tm selection (step 1). Single colonies representing transformants were propagated in liquid medium with Tm selection prior to plating on 5-FOA (step 2). As a control, the WT strain harboring an empty vector encoding Tm resistance, pMU102,

was subjected to the same selective pressures. After 2 days of incubation, a substantial number of CFU resulted with pMU482, whereas only occasional spontaneous 5-FOA-resistant mutants arose with pMU102.

5-FOA-resistant colonies were screened by PCR using primers that anneal outside the regions of homology used to delete pyrF (Fig. 1A). As expected, in the presence of pMU482, a number of 5-FOA resistant colonies exhibited double recombination events, leading to the deletion of pyrF. These events were easily detected using diagnostic PCR, in which the expected amplicon for the WT is 3.1 kb and that for the $\Delta pyrF$ strain is 2.3 kb (Fig. 1A and B). The pyrF locus was sequenced to confirm gene deletion.

Characterization and complementation of the C. thermocel*lum* $\Delta pyrF$ strain. A *pyrF*-complementing plasmid, pMU612, was constructed that contained the native C. thermocellum pyrF gene under the control of the native C. thermocellum cellobiose phosphorylase gene (cbp) promoter (cbpp). Either pMU612 or pMU102 was transformed into the $\Delta pyrF$ strain to evaluate known pyrF phenotypes, for example, 5-FOA sensitivity/resistance and uracil auxotrophy/prototrophy. Plasmid-free versions of the WT strain and the $\Delta pyrF$ strain were used as controls. All strains were tested on four variations of solid media: a rich medium, with and without supplementation of 5-FOA, and a uracil-free defined medium, with and without supplementation of uracil. The numbers of CFU are listed in Table 3. As expected, the wild-type strain was sensitive to 5-FOA, whereas the $\Delta pyrF$ strain was resistant. The occurrence of spontaneous 5-FOA resistance in the WT background was 0.3%. Additionally, growth of the $\Delta pyrF$ strain was severely impaired in the defined medium lacking uracil, and addition of uracil supported normal growth. These results indicated that *pyrF* can be used as both a positive and a negative selection marker in C. thermocellum.

Comparisons made with the $\Delta pyrF$ strain containing either pMU102 or pMU612 further validated the use of pyrF-based selections. The $\Delta pyrF$ strain containing pMU102 was resistant to 5-FOA and a uracil auxotroph mimicking the parental $\Delta pyrF$ strain (Table 3). The $\Delta pyrF$ strain containing pMU612 was complemented, with respect to uracil prototrophy, as indicated by its ability to grow on a defined medium lacking uracil (Table 3). This confirms that pyrF is functionally expressed from the *cbp* promoter on pMU612. Surprisingly, the complemented strain was as resistant to 5-FOA as the $\Delta pyrF$ strain. Since the

TABLE 3. Phenotype and complementation of the $\Delta pyrF$ strain

		CFU ^a			
Strain or genotype	Rich medium	Rich medium + 5-FOA	Defined medium	Defined medium + uracil	
WT	1.0×10^7	3.0×10^{4}	1.8×10^{7}	1.2×10^{7}	
$\Delta pyrF$	6.9×10^{7}	5.7×10^{7}	1.0×10^{3}	2.7×10^{7}	
$\Delta pyrF$ pMU102	4.7×10^{7}	4.0×10^{7}	4.0×10^{5}	7.0×10^{7}	
$\Delta pyrF$ pMU612	2.3×10^7	$1.0 imes 10^7$	3.7×10^{7}	5.1×10^{7}	

^a Each strain was dilution plated on the indicated medium, and the number of CFU resulting after 48 h is shown from a representative data set of three independent experiments. The phenotypes of the $\Delta pyrF$ strain were consistent with respect to uracil auxotrophy and 5-FOA resistance in all of the experiments, whereas the overall number of CFU varied based on the plating efficiency.

occurrence of spontaneous 5-FOA-resistant mutants was low, the likely explanation for this finding is that selection of plasmid loss in the presence of 5-FOA is unusually high. However, an alternative possibility is that the absence of antibiotic selection might be responsible for plasmid loss. To investigate this, colonies representing the $\Delta pyrF$ strain harboring pMU612 that appeared in the presence of 5-FOA were screened for the presence of the plasmid. Twenty colonies were tested, and none contained pMU612. In contrast, 19 out of 20 colonies representing the $\Delta pyrF$ strain harboring pMU102 plated on 5-FOA contained the control plasmid, indicating that lack of antibiotic selection alone is insufficient to achieve high rates of plasmid loss. Collectively, the results shown in Table 3 indicated that *pyrF* can be used as a negative selection to identify plasmid loss in *C. thermocellum*.

Optimization of the cat marker for use in single copy on the chromosome. In order to create a marked mutation, a positive selection was needed to select for a chromosomal integration event and a negative selection was needed to select for loss of the replicating knockout plasmid. The latter component can be achieved using the $\Delta pyrF$ strain and ectopic expression of pyrFfrom a plasmid. To achieve the former, the cat marker, which provides Tm resistance at thermophilic temperatures from a multicopy plasmid (33), was investigated for its ability to provide Tm resistance when harbored in a single copy on the chromosome at the *pyrF* locus. An allelic replacement vector, pMU769, was constructed to delete the *pyrF* gene and replace it with cat controlled by the native glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase gene (gapDH) promoter of C. thermocellum. The vector contained gapDHp-cat elements positioned between 5' and 3' pyrF flanking DNA. To replace pyrF with gapDHp-cat, C. thermocellum transformants containing pMU769 were subjected to two simultaneous selections in liquid rich medium. Thiamphenicol was used to select for plasmid-encoded gapDHp-cat, while 5-FOA was used to select against chromosomal pryF. Recovered cultures were evaluated by PCR using primers that anneal upstream and downstream of *pyrF*. Using these conditions, replacing the *pyrF* gene with gapDHp-cat would increase the PCR amplicon size by ~ 300 bp compared to the WT. The result of this is shown in Fig. 1B (compare lanes 2 and 4). The strain represented in lane 4 is a plasmid-free $\Delta pyrF$::gapDHp-cat strain that was resistant to Tm concentrations of up to 48 µg/ml. This informed us that cat expressed from the gapDH promoter was functional in a single copy on the C. thermocellum chromosome and could be used as a marker for allele replacement.

Deletion of the *C. thermocellum pta* gene using *pyrF* and *cat* selection. Mixed acid fermentation of *C. thermocellum* involves coproduction of lactic acid, acetic acid, formic acid, and ethanol (Fig. 2). For *C. thermocellum* strain DSM 1313, acetic acid is the major coproduct that needs to be eliminated to create a strain with increased ethanol yield. The production of acetic acid from acetyl coenzyme A (CoA) involves two enzymatic activities that are catalyzed by Pta and Ack.

The scheme used to replace *pta* with *cat* expressed from the *gapDH* promoter in the *C. thermocellum* $\Delta pyrF$ background is shown in Fig. 3A. MJ medium lacking uracil was used to select $\Delta pyrF$ mutant clones restored to uracil prototrophy as a result of being transformed with pMU1162 (Fig. 3A, step 1). Single colonies representing transformants were propagated in liquid

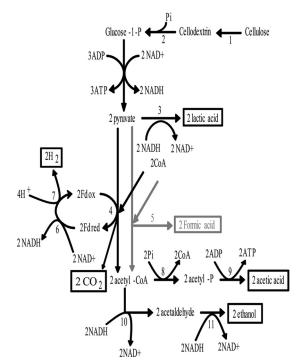


FIG. 2. Mixed acid fermentation of *C. thermocellum*. The primary fermentation products are highlighted in black boxes. Formic acid, highlighted in a gray box, is a fermentation end product that has been observed with *C. thermocellum* but was not under the conditions used in this study. The following key intermediates and enzymatic steps are noted: 1, extracellular cellulose hydrolysis; 2, intracellular phosphoro-lytic cleavage of cellodextrins by cellobise phosphorylase; 3, lactate dehydrogenase; 4, pyruvate ferredoxin oxidoreductase; 7, ferredoxin dependent hydrogenase; 8, phosphotransacetylase; 9, acetate kinase; 10, acetaldehyde dehydrogenase; 11, alcohol dehydrogenase.

medium with Tm selection prior to plating on Tm plus 5-FOA (Fig. 3A, step 2). Colonies resistant to both Tm and 5-FOA were screened by PCR using primers that anneal outside the regions of homology used to delete *pta* (Fig. 3A). More than 75% of the colonies screened indicated the occurrence of homologous recombination events at the *pta* locus. Clones in which *pta* was replaced by the *gapDHp-cat* cassette were discernible by a 0.5-kb increase in the size of the amplicon. For simplicity, the *pta* mutants generated in the $\Delta pyrF$ background strain are designated the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain hereinafter (excluding the background strain, with the $\Delta pyrF$ mutant genotype). The expected amplicon was 3.3 kb for the WT and 3.8 kb for the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain (Fig. 3A and B). The *pta* locus was sequenced to confirm allele replacement.

Growth analysis and fermentation profile of the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain. The growth of the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain was compared to those of the WT and $\Delta pyrF$ strains in rich medium, with and without uracil supplementation. Although initial rates of growth of the $\Delta pyrF$ and WT strains were similar (Fig. 3C), the $\Delta pyrF$ strain slowed abruptly at an OD of ~0.7, while the WT continued to grow until it reached an OD of ~1.6 (Fig. 3C), suggesting that the rich medium was uracil limited. Supplementing the medium with an additional 40 $\mu g/ml$ uracil eliminated the growth defect of the $\Delta pyrF$ strain

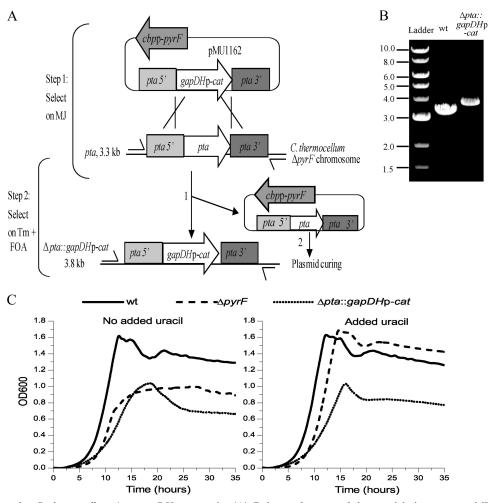


FIG. 3. Creation of a *C. thermocellum* $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain. (A) Relevant features of the *pta* deletion vector, pMU1162, are the dual selection cassette for transformation and plasmid loss (*cbpp-pyrF*) and the allelic replacement cassette containing *gapDHp-cat* between the flanking regions (*pta* 5' and *pta* 3'). The chromosomal *pta* locus contains the *pta* gene in the context of the flanking DNA. Step 1, plating on MJ allows selection of transformants harboring pMU1162; step 2, plating on Tm plus 5-FOA selects replacement of *pta* with the *gapDHP-cat* cassette and insertion of *pta* into pMU1162 (numbered 1) and loss of *pyrF*-containing plasmid (numbered 2). Primers used for PCR are indicated by the one-sided arrows, and the sizes of the expected amplicons are shown to the left. (B) DNA image showing the results of colony PCR using primers X02051 and X02099 on the wild type (lane 2) and a putative $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain (lane 3). The numbers on the left indicate the band sizes in kb for the NEB 1-kb ladder used as a marker (lane 1). (C) Growth analysis of the WT, $\Delta pyrF$, and $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strains in rich medium with or without supplementation of uracil. The graphs indicate the OD₆₀₀ of each culture over time. The μ_{max} for the WT, $\Delta pyrF$, and $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strains were 0.55 h⁻¹, 0.58 h⁻¹, and 0.38 h⁻¹, respectively, and did not change significantly upon addition of uracil.

and resulted in a growth curve that was indistinguishable from that of the WT strain (Fig. 3C). Even with additional uracil supplementation to compensate for the $\Delta pyrF$ mutation, the maximum specific growth rate (μ_{max}) of the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain was about one-third lower than that of either the WT or the $\Delta pyrF$ strain, and the final OD was also reduced (Fig. 3C). This indicates that the growth defect of the $\Delta pyrF$ strain and is distinct from the growth defect of the $\Delta pyrF$ strain and is a result of the *pta* mutation.

End product analysis was performed on batch fermentations started at pH 7.0 with 5 g/liter cellobiose as the primary carbon source under anaerobic conditions with a nitrogen atmosphere and 80-ml working volume. As shown in Fig. 4A, after 48 h of fermentation, the WT and $\Delta pyrF$ strains produced about 1 g/liter acetic acid, whereas the acetic acid production of the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain was indistinguishable from background levels (average, 0.03 g/liter). All three strains produced comparable amounts of ethanol and lactic acid. Due to the growth defect of the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain, a 96-h sample point was taken, but acetate levels did not change, measuring 0.031 g/liter. The average dry cell masses for the WT, $\Delta pyrF$, and $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strains were 0.54 g, 0. 54 g, and 0.35 g, respectively, indicating that the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain made about one-third less biomass than the WT and $\Delta pyrF$ strains. This was expected, based on the growth defect of the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain observed previously (Fig. 3C).

The elimination of the acetic acid pathway is expected to cause a decrease in ATP gained per mole of glucose consumed (22, 32). Cellulosome synthesis is considered to be an ATP-expensive process. Therefore, we examined the cellulolytic capacity of the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain and determined the fermentation product profile on Avicel, a refined, crystalline

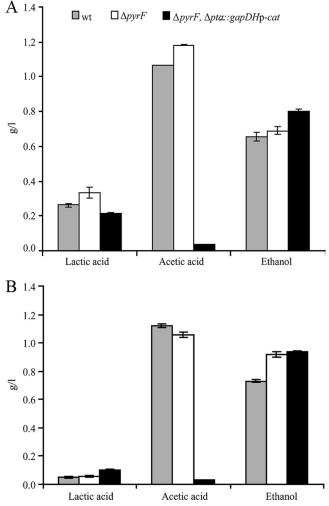


FIG. 4. Batch fermentation analysis of the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain at 55°C in rich medium supplemented with uracil. (A) Measurement of lactic acid, acetic acid, and ethanol resulting from the consumption of 5 g/liter cellobiose in 48 hours by the WT, $\Delta pyrF$, and $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strains. Error bars represent data from triplicate fermentations. (B) Measurement of lactic acid, acetic acid, and ethanol resulting from the consumption of 5 g/liter Avicel in 48 hours by the wild-type, $\Delta pyrF$, and $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strains. Error bars represent data from triplicate fermentations.

cellulose. Batch fermentations were performed starting at pH 7.0 using 5 g/liter Avicel as the primary carbon source under anaerobic conditions with a nitrogen atmosphere and 80-ml working volume. As seen in Fig. 4B, after 48 h of fermentation the WT and the parental $\Delta pyrF$ strain both produced about 1 g/liter acetic acid, whereas the *Dpta::gapDHp-cat* strain produced ~ 0.03 g/liter acetic acid. All three strains produced comparable levels of ethanol and lactic acid. Even after 96 h of fermentation, the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain did not produce more than 0.03 g/liter acetate. Avicel is a solid substrate, and nonhydrolyzed material can be estimated by measuring the dry weight of the fermentation. Table 4 shows that the average dry weights for all of the strains at the end of 96 h of fermentation were comparable, and this translates into ~89% Avicel hydrolysis. However, the fermentation dry weight does not distinguish residual Avicel from dry cell mass. For Avicel fermentations, the latter can be estimated by assuming that the dry cell mass produced from 5 g/liter Avicel is similar to that produced from 5 g/liter cellobiose (see above). Using this logic, all strains showed >95% solubilization of Avicel. Therefore, despite a growth defect, the cellulose hydrolysis capacity of the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain was comparable to that of the WT strain.

DISCUSSION

To create a gene deletion system for *C. thermocellum*, which has low transformation efficiency and requires replicating plasmids, we needed to develop multiple positive and negative selectable markers to allow selection of both allele replacement and loss of the replicating plasmid used to deliver the allelic replacement cassette. Key factors responsible for achieving this result involved exploiting the native capacity of the host in question. To this end, we utilized the native *gapDH* promoter to express *cat* and confer resistance to thiamphenicol. In addition, *C. thermocellum* was sensitive to the antimetabolite 5-FOA, allowing us to create, as in other model systems, a native dual selection marker around *pyrF* (4). The use of native elements when developing a genetic system serves to constrain the experimental space by eliminating functional uncertainty, allowing focus on other areas such as transformation.

In this report we have simplified electroporation-based transformation of *C. thermocellum* and obtained reliable and reproducible results. In contrast to the original protocol (37, 38), the generation of competent cells has been simplified such that the isoniacin incubation, cellobiose solution wash, and custom-built electroporation cuvettes are no longer required. Best results are obtained with a custom pulse generator, but success can be achieved with a commercial device (the latter being the scope of a separate study). Furthermore, the gene deletion system we developed utilizes replicating plasmids and does not rely on high-efficiency transformation. Development of the *pyrF*-based genetic selections, in addition to the reliable electrotransformation protocol, removes a significant barrier to routine transformation and genetic manipulation of *C. thermocellum*.

TABLE 4. Dry weight and Avicel conversion profile of the $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$ strain

		% Avicel conversion		
Strain or genotype	DW (g/liter) ^a	DW-based calculation ^b	Dry cell mass-based calculation ^c	
WT $\Delta pyrF$ $\Delta pta::gapDHp-cat$	0.532 (0.133) 0.508 (0.034) 0.537 (0.033)	89.4 89.8 89.3	100.1 100.7 95.9	

^{*a*} The average dry weight (DW) from triplicate samples of each strain at the end of 96 h of fermentation on Avicel is indicated with the standard deviation (SD).

^b The percent conversion of Avicel is calculated based on the starting Avicel concentration (5 g/liter) and the final DW, which includes residual Avicel and dry cell weight.

^c The percent conversion of Avicel is calculated based on the starting Avicel concentration (5 g/liter) and the estimated final Avicel concentration. We assumed that the dry cell mass for each strain after 96 h of fermentation is roughly equivalent to that obtained from cells that have consumed 5 g/liter cellobiose (data reported in the text). Therefore, the estimated final Avicel concentration was calculated by subtracting dry cell mass from DW.

The genetic tools described in this report were applied in the context of metabolic engineering to delete *pta* and create a *C*. thermocellum strain that does not produce acetate. This is a major metabolic perturbation, and like various bacteria in which the acetate production pathway has been eliminated, the C. thermocellum pta mutant displayed growth defects (10, 18, 32, 42). Adaptation and evolutionary approaches have been shown to ameliorate this effect but have not been explored in this study (10, 18, 32, 42). Thus, it is unclear if the growth defects associated with the C. thermocellum Δpta strain are stable or part of a cellular adjustment process associated with redirecting carbon and energy flux. Possible explanations for growth limitation include redox imbalance and/or perturbation in acetyl-CoA flux (5, 40). The fate of acetyl-CoA is related to the pool of reduced ferredoxin, which if used to make hydrogen results in acetate production (31). Elimination of the ability to make acetate requires the cell to utilize alternate pathways to oxidize ferredoxin. If such pathways are present, strain adaptation and evolution should improve growth. However, if they are lacking from the system, further metabolic engineering would be required to provide such an activity. The other significant phenotype of the C. thermocellum Δpta strain was, in spite of a growth defect, that the cellulolytic capability was not compromised. This implies that the ATP yield associated with acetate production is not essential for cellulosome production and is consistent with an ATP-conserving model of oligosaccharide uptake (41). According to this model, upon cellulose hydrolysis, C. thermocellum preferentially assimilates cellodextrins up to 4 subunits as opposed to cellobiose, which is the primary cellulose hydrolysis end product of other cellulolytic organisms, such as Trichoderma reesei. This allows more hexose units to be transported into the cell per unit ATP. Additionally, C. thermocellum expresses cellobiose and cellodextrin phosphorylases that can use inorganic phosphate to phosphorolytically cleave β-glucan bonds, generating glucose-1-phosphate in the process. These aspects of cellulose utilization allow C. thermocellum to conserve ATP per hexose monomer consumed and more than compensate for the ATP-expensive process of cellulase synthesis.

Unlike the *T. saccharolyticum pta-ack* mutant, the *C. thermocellum* Δpta strain did not exhibit significantly increased ethanol production (32). Moreover, the *C. thermocellum* Δpta strain showed a notable difference in lactic acid production when fermenting Avicel versus cellobiose compared to the wild-type strain (Fig. 4). These results might be an indication of fundamental differences between the carbon fluxes through pyruvate in these two organisms. Future effort in developing a *C. thermocellum* homoethanologenic strain would involve deletion of lactate dehydrogenase, carbon flux analysis, and adaptation/evolution efforts. Nevertheless, the genetic system developed here demonstrates a step toward engineering a *C. thermocellum* homoethanologenic strain.

The recalcitrance of cellulose is the major challenge to utilizing lignocellulosic biomass as a feedstock. In this regard, *C. thermocellum* is now a unique platform, in that it is highly cellulolytic and amenable to genetic manipulation. The work presented here is a foundation for future metabolic engineering that will enable *C. thermocellum* to serve as a biocatalyst for the production of cellulosic fuels and chemicals with high yield and titer. The same technology can be used to explore the regulation of cellulosome synthesis and the roles of various structural and functional components of this multiprotein complex, providing a better understanding of how this fascinating microbe hydrolyzes cellulose. Advancements in these areas, facilitated by the described genetic tools, opens the way for further development of *C. thermocellum* and related CBP organisms as biocatalysts in the conversion of lignocellulosic biomass to sustainable fuels and chemicals.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was supported by Mascoma Corporation, a grant from the BioEnergy Science Center (BESC), and Oak Ridge National Laboratory, a U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) Bioenergy Research Center supported by the Office of Biological and Environmental Research in the DOE Office of Science.

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