1	Exploring Proteomes of Robust Yarrowia lipolytica Isolates Cultivated in
2	Biomass Hydrolysate Reveal Key Processes Impacting Mixed Sugar Utilization,
3	Lipid Accumulation, and Degradation
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ABSTRACT. Yarrowia lipolytica is an oleaginous yeast exhibiting robust phenotypes 14 beneficial for industrial biotechnology. The phenotypic diversity found within the undomesticated 15 16 Y. lipolytica clade from various origins illuminates desirable phenotypic traits not found in the conventional laboratory strain CBS7504, which include xylose utilization, lipid accumulation, and 17 growth on undetoxified biomass hydrolysates. Currently, the related phenotypes of lipid 18 accumulation and degradation when metabolizing non-preferred sugars (e.g., xylose) associated 19 20 with biomass hydrolysates are poorly understood, making it difficult to control and engineer in Y. 21 *lipolytica*. To fill this knowledge gap, we analyzed the genetic diversity of five undomesticated Y. lipolytica strains and identified singleton genes and genes exclusively shared by strains exhibiting 22 desirable phenotypes. Strain characterizations from controlled bioreactor cultures revealed that the 23 24 undomesticated strain YB420 used xylose to support cell growth and maintained high lipid levels while the conventional strain CBS7504 degraded cell biomass and lipids when xylose was the sole 25 26 remaining carbon source. From proteomic analysis, we identified carbohydrate transporters, 27 xylose metabolic enzymes and pentose phosphate pathway proteins stimulated during the xylose 28 uptake stage for both strains. Furthermore, we distinguished proteins in lipid metabolism (e.g., lipase, NADPH generation, lipid regulators, β -oxidation) activated by YB420 (lipid maintenance 29 phenotype) or CBS7504 (lipid degradation phenotype) when xylose was the sole remaining carbon 30 31 source. Overall, the results relate genetic diversity of undomesticated Y. lipolytica strains to complex phenotypes of superior growth, sugar utilization, lipid accumulation and degradation in 32 biomass hydrolysates. 33

35 **IMPORTANCE**

Yarrowia lipolytica is an important industrial oleaginous yeast due to its robust phenotypes for 36 37 effective conversion of inhibitory lignocellulosic biomass hydrolysates into neutral lipids. While lipid accumulation has been well characterized in this organism, its interconnected lipid 38 degradation phenotype is poorly understood during fermentation of biomass hydrolysates. Our 39 investigation into the genetic diversity of undomesticated Y. lipolytica strains, coupled with 40 detailed strain characterization and proteomic analysis, revealed metabolic processes and 41 regulatory elements conferring desirable phenotypes for growth, sugar utilization, and lipid 42 accumulation in undetoxified biomass hydrolysates by these natural variants. This study provides 43 a better understanding of the robust metabolism of Y. lipolytica and suggests potential metabolic 44 45 engineering strategies to enhance its performance.

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47 Key words: bioreactor characterization, proteomic analysis, xylose metabolism, xylose
48 transporters, lipid accumulation, lipid degradation, lipid regulators.

49 INTRODUCTION

Yarrowia lipolytica is an important oleaginous yeast for industrial biotechnology. Wildtype 50 51 strains can accumulate a remarkable 40% of cell weight in neutral lipids from lignocellulosic biomass or agricultural wastes (1). These microbial lipids are a promising alternative to petroleum 52 and animal oils for the sustainable production of advanced fuels and oleochemicals. In addition, 53 Y. lipolytica is exceptionally robust to chemical inhibitors and stressful environments, which are 54 critical biocatalyst properties to achieve sustainable production of chemicals from low-cost 55 biomass feedstocks. It can tolerate broad pH ranges (2), high salt concentrations (3), and organic 56 solvents (e.g., ionic liquids) (4, 5); in fact, most Y. lipolytica isolates exhibit robust growth in up 57 to 60% (v/v) undetoxified dilute acid-pretreated switchgrass hydrolysates that are normally 58 59 inhibitory to microbes (6). Thus, a better understanding of the mechanisms that underpin Y. lipolytica' s natural robustness would not only enable development of niche strains for novel 60 biocatalysis but would also provide fundamental knowledge that may be applied to other 61 62 industrially-relevant organisms.

63 Recently, significant research has focused on manipulating the metabolism of the conventional laboratory strain CBS7504 (W29), isolated from a Paris sewer and well domesticated 64 in laboratory (7), for enhanced lipid production and utilization of pentose (e.g., xylose) and hexose 65 (e.g., glucose) sugars in inhibitory lignocellulosic biomass hydrolysates. To increase lipid 66 67 production in Y. lipolytica, numerous metabolic engineering strategies have been implemented that successfully redirected carbon flux to lipid metabolism (8) including overexpression of lipid 68 biosynthesis enzymes (9) and/or disruption of the competitive β -oxidation pathway (10) and 69 70 altered expression of regulators (e.g., SNF1) of lipid accumulation (11). The most lipogenic Y. lipolytica strain reported to date achieved 90% lipid content by simultaneous restoration of leucine 71

and uracil biosynthesis, overexpression of diacylglycerol transferase (DGA1), deletion of peroxisome biogenesis enzyme peroxin-10 (PEX10), deletion of multifunctional β -oxidation enzyme (MFE1), and optimization of culture conditions (12).

To maximize lipogenesis from biomass hydrolysates requires efficient utilization of both 75 76 hexose and pentose sugars. Y. lipolytica does not efficiently use xylose as a sole carbon source, 77 albeit it processes genes for the complete xylose catabolic pathway (13). Activation of this cryptic pathway has been accomplished through adaptive evolutionary approaches resulting in improved 78 79 xylose utilization (14). Furthermore, overexpression of endogenous xylose catabolic genes (15-17) and heterologous expression of xylose reductase and xylitol dehydrogenase from 80 81 Scheffersomyces stipitis (17, 18) have successfully increased xylose consumption rates. Several transporters have also been identified in Y. lipolytica showing increased expression levels during 82 83 xylose assimilation and combinatorial overexpression of the endogenous xylitol dehydrogenase with several of these transporters has also achieved improved growth on xylose (19). While the 84 85 production phenotypes are well characterized, fundamental understanding of complex phenotypes responsible for superior growth, sugar utilization, and lipid accumulation - or degradation -86 87 during fermentation of biomass hydrolysates are still lacking.

Complementary to these engineering efforts, recent investigation into the genetic diversity of undomesticated *Y. lipolytica* strains revealed emergent robust phenotypes not present in the conventional strain CBS7504. Characterization of fifty-seven undomesticated *Y. lipolytica* isolates on inhibitory undetoxified biomass hydrolysates revealed select strains with enhanced growth, lipid production, and pentose-sugar assimilation relative to CBS7504 (6). In this study, *Y. lipolytica*'s natural genetic diversity is further explored using a combination of detailed strain characterization and proteomic analysis. Coupled together, these analyses uncover the underlying

mechanisms behind these poorly understood complex phenotypes during fermentation of biomass
hydrolysates. The results presented here will aid engineering efforts to better control lipid
accumulation or degradation phenotypes for optimally producing advanced biofuels and/or
oleochemicals from biomass hydrolysates.

99 **RESULTS**

100 Comparative genomics reveals unique genotypes of undomesticated *Yarrowia* strains

Phylogenetic tree of Y. lipolytica isolates shows close similarity between genomes. 101 102 Phylogenetic species analysis distinguished the first evolutionary split dividing the Yarrowia clade into two ancestral roots (Figure 1A). The first root contained the undomesticated YB419 and the 103 conventional strains CBS7504 and CLIB122 (a species crossed between CBS7504 and CBS6124-104 105 2 (7)). The second root contained the remaining four non-conventional isolates, depicting YB392 and YB420 as the most divergent from YB567 followed by YB566. This result was surprising 106 107 since YB392, YB419 and YB420 were all isolated from corn milling plants within Illinois (20). 108 Interestingly, the closest related species to the *Yarrowia* clade is *Sugiyamaella lignohabitans*, an 109 efficient pentose utilizing and facultative anaerobic yeast (21).

Undomesticated Y. lipolytica isolates contain unique genes not found in conventional 110 strains. The undomesticated strains were characterized for unique genes that may contribute to 111 their distinctive phenotypes. A singleton gene signifies a gene appearing exclusively in one of the 112 113 genomes within the pangenome (i.e., conventional strains CBS7504 and CLIB122; undomesticated strains YB392, YB419, YB420, YB566 and YB567). Of the undomesticated Y. 114 lipolytica strains, YB419 contained the most singletons (23 genes) followed by YB420 (17 genes), 115 116 while the remaining 3 isolates contained 5 or fewer singletons (Figure 1B, Table S1). Two of the undomesticated strains YB566 and YB567, exhibiting better xylose assimilation from switchgrass 117

hydrolysates (SGH) (6), exclusively share 10 genes not found in other three strains. (Figure 1B,
Table S2). Likewise, six genes are exclusively shared among the undomesticated strains YB392,
YB419 and YB420, exhibiting better lipid accumulation (Figure 1B, Table S3) (6).

121 Y. lipolytica strains of different origins thrive in undetoxified biomass hydrolysates and 122 **exhibit distinct phenotypes.** To better understand how the genetic diversity influences the robust 123 phenotypes in cell growth, mixed sugar co-utilization, and lipid accumulation, we characterized CBS7504 (Figure S1), YB392 (Figure S2), YB419 (Figure S3), YB420 (Figure S4), YB566 124 (Figure S5) and YB567 (Figure S6) in 50% (v/v) undetoxified biomass hydrolysates. Unlike the 125 previous studies (6), we characterized these strains in computer-controlled bioreactors (Figure 2A). 126 127 In general, all strains grew well in undetoxified biomass hydrolysates. However, there were distinct phenotypes among strains associated with cell growth, mixed sugar co-utilization, and 128 lipid accumulation. Here, two representative Y. lipolytica strains, CBS7504 and YB420, were 129 selected for in-depth analysis due to their distinctive differences in xylose and lipid metabolism 130 131 and members of two different ancestral roots.

The conventional Y. lipolytica strain CBS7504 grew well in undetoxified biomass 132 hydrolysates, achieving maximum cell mass (39.3 ± 3.3 OD600nm) within 28 hours of 133 134 fermentation from the co-utilization of 2.90 ± 0.05 (% w/v) glucose and 0.80 ± 0.03 (% w/v) xylose (Figure 2B). Lipids accumulated during growth, reaching a maximum of 2.10 ± 0.60 g/L at 21 135 hours into the fermentation (Figure 2D). Upon glucose exhaustion, cell mass and accumulated 136 lipid levels steadily declined for the remaining 48 hours of fermentation despite the continued 137 138 consumption of xylose. At 72 hours of fermentation, CBS7504 consumed a total of 2.10 ± 0.02 (% w/v) xylose and produced 0.91 ± 0.01 (% w/v) xylitol (yielding 0.44 ± 0.00 xylitol/xylose). The 139 undomesticated Y. lipolytica strain YB420 also grew robustly in undetoxified biomass 140

hydrolysates but showed contrasting phenotypes with CBS7504. Over 45 hours of fermentation, YB420 showed less co-utilization of glucose $(2.80 \pm 0.03 \, [\% \, w/v])$ and xylose $(0.40 \pm 0.03 \, [\% \, w/v])$ and less lipid production $(1.6 \pm 0.5 \, g/L)$ than CBS7504 (Figure 2C and E). However, upon glucose depletion, YB420 maintained cell mass and lipids while consuming a total of $2.1 \pm 0.01 \, (\% \, w/v)$ xylose and producing $0.61 \pm 0.04 \, (\% \, w/v)$ xylitol (yielding 0.30 ± 0.006 xylitol/xylose). The differences observed in xylose utilization to support maintenance of lipids and cell growth prompted a systems-level comparison between the two strains CBS7504 and YB420.

148 Proteomic analysis reveals key processes impacting sugar utilization and lipid degradation

Proteome alterations in growth stages. Proteomic samples were collected during the 149 exponential growth phase when glucose was assimilated (S1 and S2) and stationary phase when 150 xylose was assimilated (S3 and S4) for both strains in biomass hydrolysate cultures. Differences 151 in protein abundances were compared for S2, S3 and S4 against S1 for each strain (Figure 3A, 3B, 152 3D and 3E). As expected, there were only minor proteome differences between glucose 153 154 assimilation phase samples (S1 and S2) (Figure 3A, 3D). However, Y. lipolytica strains dramatically altered their proteomes during stationary phase samples (samples S3 and S4) when 155 xylose was assimilated, and lipid levels were maintained by YB420 but degraded by CBS7504 156 157 (Figure 3B, 3E). For CBS7504, 673 protein abundances changed throughout the stationary phase (samples S3 and S4) (Figure 3C) while 800 protein abundances were changed in YB420 (Figure 158 159 3F). Since the largest proteome differences were found between exponential (S1 and S2) and 160 stationary (S3 and S4) phase samples, we chose to characterize xylose assimilation and lipid degradation phenotypes using proteins with significant changes in abundance at S3 and/or S4 161 162 relative to S1.

Proteome alterations in xylose assimilation. CBS7504 consumed xylose slightly faster 163 than YB420 but converted more of it into xylitol (0.44 ± 0.002 %w/w of xylose) rather than 164 165 maintaining cell mass or lipid content (Figure 2B, 2C). This led us to investigate protein abundances in the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) where xylose is introduced into central 166 metabolism. Despite the quick assimilation of xylose, during xylose assimilation (S3 and S4) 167 168 CBS7504 only upregulated the protein abundance of transketolase (TKL, YALI0D02277g) in the PPP (Figure 4A, Table S4). Interestingly, CBS7504 downregulated the protein abundance of 169 170 ribose-phosphate pyrophosphokinase (PRS1, YALI0B13552g) which converts ribose-5-phosphate 171 into 5-phosphoribosyl 1-pyrophosphate (PRPP) to feed downstream biosynthetic pathways (i.e., 172 histidine, pyrimidine and purine metabolism) associated with cell growth, correlating with the decreased cell mass, increased xylitol production and lipid degradation phenotypes of CBS7504. 173 Meanwhile, during xylose assimilation (S3 and S4) YB420 produced less xylitol (0.30 ± 0.006 174 175 %w/x of xylose) and maintained cell mass and lipid content (Figure 2C). Regarding the PPP, six 176 proteins were upregulated and none downregulated in YB420 during the stationary phase (Figure 4B, Table S4). Not surprisingly, these upregulated proteins include xylitol dehydrogenase (Xyl2, 177 YALI0E12463g) and xylulokinase (Xyl3, YALI0F10923g) which together convert xylitol into 178 179 xylulose-5P. Notably, YB420 also upregulated 2 proteins annotated (in panther database) for xylulose kinase (YALI0D15114g) and ribulokinase (YALI0E13321g) activities. Additionally, 180 181 YB420 increased the protein abundance of D-arabinitol 2-dehydrogenase (ADH, 182 YALI0F02211g).

Transporters. In total, 87 transporters were identified with statistically significant
 abundance changes when comparing stationary phase (S3 and/or S4) to exponential growth phase
 (S1) (Figure 4C, Table S4). While most are annotated for ion and inorganic molecular entity

transmembrane transport activities, we focused on the 28 active transmembrane transporters to 186 identify those with altered protein abundances during xylose assimilation. Specifically, six of these 187 188 transporters are annotated with carbohydrate transmembrane transporter activity and have been 189 studied for xylose assimilation in Y. lipolytica (Figure 4D) (14). YALI0C06424g is a carbohydrate 190 symporter with the largest increase in abundance for both strains. This protein is similar to Snf3p 191 and Rgt2p proteins of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* that are involved in glucose sensing and signaling as well as fructose and mannose transport (22). Both CBS7504 and YB420 strains also increased 192 193 the abundance of YALI0F06776g, an observation that is in agreement with previous transcriptomics data measuring Y. lipolytica's growth response to xylose as the sole carbon source 194 195 (14). Though these two transporters exhibited similar upregulation patterns during growth on xylose across both strains, albeit with varied magnitudes, other transporters were more strain 196 specific: YALI0D00363g, YALI0F25553g, and YALI0C04730g. YALI0D00363g was strongly 197 upregulated in S4 for CBS7504, but not in YB420, while YB420 increased the protein abundance 198 199 of YALI0F25553g at both S3 and S4 and YALI0C04730g S3 but not in CBS7504. Interestingly, individual overexpression of these 3 carbohydrate symporters (YALI0D00363g, YALI0F25553g 200 or YALI0C04730g) supported growth on plates containing xylose as the sole carbon source (19). 201 202 Lastly, YALI0D01111g was downregulated in CBS7504 during xylose assimilation S3 and S4 and at S4 in YB420. 203

204 Proteome alterations in lipid metabolism. CBS7504 demonstrated lipid degradation while 205 YB420 maintained lipid content during the stationary/xylose assimilation growth stage samples 206 (S3 and/or S4) (Figures 2D, 2E, and 5A). To understand the cause of lipid 207 degradation/maintenance, we compared proteins involved in fatty acid degradation and 208 triacylglycerol (TAG) metabolism. In the TAG synthesis pathway, CBS7504 increased the

abundance of both bifunctional glycerol-3-phosphate/glycerone-phosphate O-acyltransferase 209 210 (SCT1, YALI0C00209g), converting glycerol-3-phosphate (gly-3P) into lysophosphatidic acid 211 (LPA), and acyl-CoA dependent diacylglycerol acyltransferase I (DGA1, YALI0E32769g), which converts diacylglycerol (DAG) into TAG (Figure 5B, Table S5). Likewise, YB420 increased the 212 of abundance DGA1, but also lysophosphatidate acyltransferase (ALE1, YALIOF19514g) and 213 214 phosphatidic acid phosphohydrolase (PAP, YALI0D27016g), which together convert LPA into TAG (Figure 5C, Table S5). However, YB420 downregulated the abundance of diacylglycerol 215 216 diphosphate phosphatase/phosphatidate phosphatase (LPP1, YALI0B14531g) which has the same 217 metabolic function as PAP (KEGG E.C.3.1.3.4). Considering the β -oxidation pathway, both strains showed increased protein abundance of 218 acyl-coenzyme A oxidases 1 (POX1, YALI0E32835g), 2 (POX2, YALI0F10857g), and 6 (POX6, 219 YALI0E06567g) and multifunctional β -oxidation protein (MFE1, YALI0E15378g) (Figure 5A, 220 221 5B). However, CBS7504 also showed increased abundance of POX3 (YALI0D24750g), POX4 222 (YALI0E27654g) and 3-oxyacyl-thiolase (POT1, YALI0E18568g), all involved in the breakdown of TAGs into free fatty acids (FFA). Both strains decreased the abundance of acetyl-CoA 223 carboxylase (ACC1, YALI0C11407g) but CBS7504 also decreased abundance of fatty acid 224

synthase subunit 1 (FAS1, YALI0B15059g). Interestingly, YB420 increased the abundance of
malic enzyme (ME, YALI0E18634g), which generates NADPH pools that are required for the
FAS complex in oleaginous organisms (23), but shows little to no involvement in lipid production
in *Y. lipolytica* (24-26).

Lipase. In total, ten lipases were identified with statistically significant abundance changes
during the stationary phase (S3 and/or S4) relative to exponential growth phase (S1) (Figure 5B,
5C; Table S5). While none include the well-studied triacylglycerol lipase 3 (TGL3,

YALI0D17534g) or TLG4 (YALI0F10010g), four of the identified lipases are annotated for TGL
activity (PTHR23025). Interestingly, CBS7504 increased the protein abundance of all four TGLs
in stationary phase while YB420 only increased the protein abundance of one.

NADPH generation. We identified five differentially abundant proteins involved in the 235 generation of NADPH, the reducing equivalent required to sustain fatty acid synthesis (Figure 5B, 236 237 C; Table S5). While both YB420 and CBS7504 strains increased the protein abundance of sorbitol dehydrogenase (MnDH1, YALI0B16192g) during stationary phase. Only YB420 increased 238 239 abundances of the other 4 proteins including malic enzyme (ME, YALIOE18634g), succinate 240 semialdehyde dehydrogenase (UGA2, YALI0F26191g), 6-phosphogluconolactonase (SOL3, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase 241 YALI0E11671g) and NADP-dependent (ZWF1, YALI0E22649g). 242

Regulators of lipid synthesis. Nitrogen limitation (i.e., high carbon to nitrogen ratio) is a 243 common strategy to increase lipid synthesis from glucose (27), and numerous studies have reported 244 245 regulators of lipid accumulation and genes affected by nitrogen limitation. Our analysis identified eight of these regulators with statistically significant abundance changes during the stationary 246 phase (S3 and/or S4) relative to exponential growth phase (S1) – all of which have been previously 247 248 reported to influence lipid accumulation (11, 28, 29). Of these, YB420 increased the protein abundance of HLH transcription factor YAS2 (YALI0E32417g), a subunit of the SWI/SNF 249 250 chromatin remodeling complex POR1 (YALI0D12628g), AMP-activated serine/threonine protein 251 kinase SNF1 (YALI0D02101g) and heat shock transcription factor HSF1 (YALI0E13948g) 252 (Figure 5C, Table S5). Meanwhile, CBS7504 increased the protein abundance of cytoplasmic pre-253 60S factor REI1 (YALI0B08734g) and decreased the protein abundance of a zinc finger protein

(YALI0E30789g), sterol regulatory element binding protein UPC2 (YALI0B15818g) and SNF1activating kinase 1 SAK1 (YALI0D08822g) (Figure 5B, Table S5).

256 **Proteome alterations in regulatory elements.** In total, 46 gene-specific regulator proteins (from panther and TFDB) were identified with statistically significant abundance changes during 257 the stationary phase (S3 and/or S4) relative to exponential growth phase (S1) (Figure 6, Table S6). 258 259 Thirteen of these regulatory proteins had significant changes in both CBS7504 and YB420 (Figure 6). The protein with the largest increase in abundance, YALI0C07821g, is annotated as glucose 260 261 transport transcription regulator RGT1-related (PTHR31668) but only has the conserved domain, 262 GAL4 (smart00066) with S. cerevisiae RGT1p. Interestingly, four of these regulatory proteins have distinct, strain specific abundance patterns: RFX1, ASG1, STP1, and FHL1. RFX1, 263 regulatory factor X in S. cerevisiae, is a major transcriptional repressor of DNA-damage-regulated 264 genes (30). ASG1, an activator of stress-related genes, activates genes in β -oxidation, 265 glucogenesis, glyoxylate cycle, triacylglycerol breakdown, peroxisomal transport, and helps 266 267 assimilate fatty acids in S. cerevisiae (31). STP1, involved in species-specific tRNA processing, activates transcription of amino acid permease genes and is directly involved in pre-tRNA splicing 268 in S. cerevisiae (32, 33). Finally, FHL1 (fork-head like) in S. cerevisiae functions as a transcription 269 270 regulator of ribosomal protein transcription (34).

271

272 **DISCUSSION**

Lipid accumulation and lipid degradation patterns from cultures fermenting non-preferred sugars prevalent in biomass hydrolysates (i.e., xylose) are complex phenotypes making them difficult to control and engineer in *Y. lipolytica* (15, 35, 36). By comparing proteomes of natively robust undomesticated *Y. lipolytica* strain YB420 with the conventional strain CBS7504, we

identified key proteins supporting cell growth and lipid accumulation with xylose as the soleremaining carbon source.

279 Once all the glucose was consumed, YB420 continued to accumulate lipids and sustained cell mass from xylose, while CBS7504 degraded lipids, decreased cell mass and produced more 280 xylitol (Figure 2). This more efficient use of xylose, demonstrated by YB420, is supported by the 281 282 greater number of PPP proteins upregulated during xylose assimilation, including Xyl2 and Xyl3 which are critical for flux of xylose through the PPP (Figure 4B). Meanwhile, the almost 283 284 unchanged abundances of proteins found in CBS7504 in the PPP agree with the increased xylitol secretion, decreased cell mass and lipid degradation phenotypes observed (Figure 4A). 285 Interestingly, both strains showed similar xylose uptake profiles despite varying cell mass and lipid 286 profiles. This suggests that transporters YALI0C06424g and YALI0F06776g are likely 287 responsible and/or specific for xylose uptake, as indicated by increased protein abundances for 288 289 both transporters across each strain only during the xylose assimilation phase (Figure 4D).

290 In lipid metabolism, YB420 increased proteins involved in TAG biosynthesis while CBS7504 increased proteins involved in β -oxidation and TAG lipase activity, strongly supporting 291 the lipid maintenance and lipid degradation phenotypes of YB420 and CBS7504, respectively 292 293 (Figure 5). Accordingly, YB420 increased the abundance of NADPH-generating enzymes which supply critical reducing-equivalents for lipid synthesis and xylose assimilation, including SOL3, 294 295 ZWF1, ME and UGA2. Previously, overexpression of SOL3 increased lipid yield, titer and 296 content (29). SOL3 does not produce NADPH directly, but instead catalyzes the intermediate 297 reaction of the oxidative PPP that feeds into NADPH-producing enzymes, ZWF1 and NADP+-298 dependent 6-phosphogluconate dehydrogenase (29). Additionally, the promoters of ZWF1 along 299 with ME and UGA2 exhibited increased expression levels in response to nitrogen limitation, a

condition which results in increased lipid accumulation (26). Taken together, the increased protein
 abundance of NADPH-producing enzymes supports the lipid maintenance phenotype observed by
 YB420.

Several regulators previously reported to influence lipid accumulation in Y. lipolytica were 303 captured by the proteomic analysis. Of these, YB420 cultures showed increased protein 304 305 abundances of YAS2, POR1, SNF1 and HSF1. In a previous report, overexpression of YAS2 did not increase lipid accumulation in glucose minimal media but did significantly increase lipogenesis 306 307 when acetate was the sole carbon source, suggesting indirect involvements in lipid biosynthesis in 308 Y. lipolytica (29). Overexpression of POR1 in Y. lipolytica resulted in ~18% increased lipid 309 content in glycerol media but showed growth defects in glucose media (28). Conversely, deletion of SNF1 was reported to increase fatty acid accumulation without the need for nitrogen limitation 310 (11) and overexpression of HSF1 resulted in decreased lipid accumulation with glycerol as the 311 sole carbon source (28). We also identified one regulator (REI1) with increase protein abundance 312 313 and three regulators (YALI0E30789g, SAK1 and UPC2) with decreased abundance by CBS7504 during lipid degradation. Previously, overexpression of UPC2 decreased lipid accumulation while 314 overexpression of YALI0E30789g and REI1 increased lipid accumulation, which does not support 315 316 the lipid degradation phenotype of CBS7504 in our study (28). Furthermore, deletion of SAK1 has been shown to result in increased fatty acid content (11) but in our study, decreased SAK1 317 318 protein levels were accompanied by lipid degradation in CBS7504.

While some unique genes between CBS7504 and YB420 were discovered by comparative genomics, our proteomic analysis did not identify any of them associated with the xylose or lipid metabolic phenotypes observed. This evokes the question: what underlying genotypes are causing differences in these phenotypes? While our proteomic analysis suggests regulation plays a

significant role in affecting the phenotypes of the strain variants, future investigation should
 illuminate alterations in genome arrangement, epigenetics, and/or variants in promoter regions that
 could cause phenotypic divergence between CBS7504 and YB420.

In conclusion, our study highlights the regulation machinery of pentose and lipid metabolism in *Y. lipolytica* variants is complex and multifaceted, with many aspects remaining to be discovered and elucidated. Our characterization of *Y. lipolytica* isolates with phenotypic and genetic diversity, however, sheds light on those proteins supporting lipid accumulation or degradation during fermentation of non-preferred biomass sugar xylose, useful for targeted strain engineering for effective conversion of biomass hydrolysates to fuels and chemicals.

332

333 MATERIALS AND METHODS

334 Strains

Y. lipolytica strains CBS7504, YB392, YB419, YB420, YB566 and YB567 were used. CBS7504
is from CBS-KNAW Culture Collection in Utrecht, the Netherlands. All other strains are from
ARS (NRRL) Culture Collection, Peoria, IL. The strains were stored in 20% glycerol at -80°C.

338 Medium and culturing conditions

Switchgrass hydrolysate preparation. Liberty switchgrass, that had been pelleted and cut with a 4mm knife mill, was used. The biomass was hydrolyzed at 20% solids w/w (6). A 20-gram dry weight of biomass was added to stainless steel vessels. Then 80 mL of 0.936 % sulfuric acid w/ 3.72 g/L Pluronic F-68 was added to each vessel. Eleven vessels per oven run were filled. The 12th vessel was filled with 80 mL of water and contained the thermocouple. The vessels were placed in a Mathis Labomat Infrared Oven. The following settings were used for the program:

Temperature = 160° C, Heat Ramp = 2.6° C, Mix settings = 50 rpm, 60 seconds to the left and 60 345 seconds to the right, and cooling temperature = 40° C. Once the vessels have cooled, 4.0 mL of 346 347 1.0 M citrate buffer was added to each vessel. Then pH of the pretreated biomass was adjusted to 4.5-5.0 with 30% calcium hydroxide. The vessels were placed back in the Mathis oven for mixing 348 at room temperature. The contents of 11 vessels were transferred to a Fernbach flask with a solid 349 350 rubber stopper. The following enzymes were added: 29.7 mL Cellic Ctec3 and 5.5 mL Cellic NS-22244. The Fernbach was incubated at 50°C with shaking at 125 rpm for 3 days. After 3 days the 351 352 solids were removed using a 0.2 µm filter unit. The liquid fraction was stored at 4°C. Multiple 353 batches were made over the course of a week. The batches were pooled. The liquid was then pH adjusted to 6.0 using 10N sodium hydroxide. After pH adjustment the SGH was filter sterilized 354 and frozen at -20°C until week of use. The SGH was thawed at 4°C overnight. Prior to use, it was 355 356 amended to a whole hydrolysate with 2.31 g/L (NH₄)₂SO₄, 1.81g/L Difco vitamin assay casamino 357 acids, 0.018 g/L DL-tryptophan, and 0.072 g/L L-cysteine, and then diluted to 50% v/v with water. The diluted and amended hydrolysate is referred to 50% SGH form here on. 358

Culturing conditions. The yeast stocks were streaked on YPD Agar plates and incubated 359 at 28°C for 24-48 hours. The plates were stored at 4°C until use. YPD media, 2 mL in a 16 mL 360 tube, was inoculated by loop for pre-seed cultures. Pre-seed cultures were incubated at 28°C with 361 shaking at 250 rpm for 18 hours. 0.5 mL of pre-seed culture was transferred to 10 mL 50 % SGH 362 in 50 mL baffled flasks for seed cultures. Seed cultures were incubated 24 hours at 28°C with 250 363 rpm. The seed cultures were centrifuged to remove supernatant and resuspended in sterile water 364 to $A_{600} = 50$. 150 mL of 50% SHG was inoculated at an $A_{600} = 0.75$. DasGip DasBox bioreactors 365 were used for experimental cultures. Each strain was inoculated in triplicate. The following 366 settings were used for the bioreactors: Beginning volume = 150 mL; Vessel = 250 mL; 367

Temperature = 28° C; pH Set Point = 6.0; Agitation = 900 rpm; Aeration = 9.0 L/h; Base/Acid 368 control: use 2 M HCl and 2 M NaOH for automatic dosing; Data Collection = dissolved oxygen, 369 370 temperature, and pH. Cognis Clerol FBA 3107 antifoam was used to control foaming. After inoculation, 200uL of antifoam was added to each vessel. Antifoam was then added by pipet as 371 need for duration of culture growth. A 1.2 - 1.5mL sample was taken for A600, residual sugars 372 373 and lipids 3 times a day. A 1.0mL aliquot was removed from each sample for residual sugars and lipid analysis. The 1.0mL aliquot was centrifuged to remove the supernatant for residual sugar 374 375 analysis. The cell pellet was washed twice with deionized water and resuspended up to 1.0mL with 376 water. The samples were frozen at -20°C until analysis. The remaining sample was diluted for A 377 600 measurement. Duplicate samples (2.0 mL) for proteomic analysis were taken once the OD reaches <4.0, 2-3 hours later, at 44-48 hours and a final sample at 68-72 hours. Samples were kept 378 cold while processing. The samples were centrifuged to remove supernatant, washed with 1.0mL 379 of chilled water and then centrifuged again to remove water. The washed cell pellets were the 380 381 stored at -80°C.

382 Analytical methods

383 *Lipid quantification.* Lipid analysis was done using a sulfo-phospho-vanillin colorimetric 384 assay as previously reported by Dien et al. (37) For each sample, 1.0mL of sulfuric acid was added to a glass tube and 50 µL of sample (diluted with water if needed). The tube was heated at 100°C 385 in a dry bath for 10 minutes. After heating, the tubes were cooled in a room temp water bath for 386 387 10 minutes. Once cooled, 2.5 mL of the vanillin-phosphoric acid solution was added to each tube. 388 The tubes were mixed and placed in a 37°C incubator for 15 minutes. They are then cooled in a room temperature water bath. The absorbance is then measured at 530 nm. The Vanillin-389 phosphoric acid solution (0.12g vanillin, 20 mL water, and 80 mL 85% o-phosphoric acid) is made 390

fresh daily for assays. A blank with 50uL water and four calibration standards are used for the standard curve. The calibration standards are dilutions of corn oil dissolved in 2:1 (v/v) chloroform/methanol and 50 μ L of each standard was processed in duplicate along with the samples.

395 *Metabolites and sugar quantification.* Residual sugars were measured on a Thermo High-396 Performance Liquid Chromatography system. The system used a Biorad HPX-87H column and a 397 refractive index detector. The column was kept at 65°C with 0.6mL/min of 5mM sulfuric acid as 398 a mobile phase.

LC/MS for proteomic analysis. Y. lipolytica cells harvested at the time points detailed 399 400 above were resuspended in 100 mM Tris-HCl, 10 mM dithiothreitol, pH 8.0 and beat with 401 0.5 mm zirconium oxide beads in a Geno/Grinder® 2010 (SPEX SamplePrep) for 5 min at high speed (1750 rpm). Samples were adjusted to 4% SDS and incubated at 95°C for 10 min. Crude 402 403 lysate was then cleared via centrifugation (21,000 x g) and quantified by corrected absorbance (Scopes) at 205 nm (NanoDrop OneC; Thermo Fisher). Samples were then treated with 30 mM 404 405 iodoacetamide for 20 min at room temperature in the dark. Three hundred micrograms of crude protein were then processed by protein aggregation capture (PAC) (38). Briefly, 300 µg of 406 407 magnetic beads (1 micron, SpeedBead Magnetic Carboxylate; GE Healthcare UK) was suspended 408 in each sample and protein aggregation was induced by adjusting the sample to 70% acetonitrile. 409 Aggregated proteins were then washed with 1 mL of neat acetonitrile followed by 70% ethanol, 410 and aggregated protein pellet digested with 1:75 (w/w) proteomics-grade trypsin (Pierce) in 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0 overnight at 37°C and again for 4 h the following day. Tryptic peptides 411 released from the beads were then acidified to 0.5% formic acid, filtered through a 10 kDa MWCO 412 spin filter (Vivaspin500; Sartorius), and quantified by NanoDrop OneC. 413

Peptide samples were analyzed by automated 1D LC-MS/MS analysis using a Vanquish 414 UHPLC plumbed directly in-line with a Q Exactive Plus mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific) 415 416 outfitted with a trapping column coupled to an in-house pulled nanospray emitter as previously described (39). The trapping column (100 µm ID) was packed with 10 cm of 5 µm Kinetex C18 417 418 RP resin (Phenomenex) while the nanospray emitter (75 μ m ID) was packed with 15 cm of 1.7 μ m 419 Kinetex C18 RP resin. For each sample, 3 µg of peptides were loaded, desalted, and separated by uHPLC with the following conditions: sample injection followed by 100% solvent A (95% H₂O, 420 421 5% acetonitrile, 0.1% formic acid) chase from 0-30 min (load and desalt), linear gradient 0% to 422 30% solvent B (70% acetonitrile, 30% water, 0.1% formic acid) from 30-220 min (separation), 423 and column re-equilibration at 100% solvent A from 220-240 min. Eluting peptides were measured and sequenced by data-dependent acquisition on the Q Exactive MS as previously described (40). 424

425 **Bioinformatics and data analysis**

Comparative genomics. The following genome assemblies of *Y. lipolytica* strains were 426 427 downloaded from NCBI as genbank files: CBS7504/CLIB89/W29 (GCA 001761485.1), CLIB122 (GCA 000002525.1), YB392 (GCA 003367865.1), YB419 (GCA 003367925.1), 428 YB420 (GCA_003367965.1), YB566 (GCA_003367945.1) and YB567 (GCA_003367845.1). 429 430 These were imported individually into a KBase narrative as genomes and combined into a genome set using the Build GenomeSet v1.0.1 application. A phylogenetic tree was constructed using 431 Insert Set of Genomes Into Species Tree 2.1.10 application with neighbor public genome count of 432 20. Orthologue genes and unique genes shared between isolates were identified with the Compute 433 434 Pangenome application using the genome set of the 7 isolates as the input. Finally, Pangenome 435 Circle Plot - v1.2.0 application was used to produce a list of singleton genes for each base genome identified from the pangenome. 436

Proteomics. MS/MS spectra were searched against the Y. lipolytica CLIP122 proteome 437 (UniProt; Nov18 build) appended with non-redundant proteins from strain YB-420 and common 438 439 protein contaminants using the MS Amanda v.2.0 algorithm in Proteome Discoverer v.2.3 (ThermoScientific). Peptide spectrum matches (PSM) were required to be fully tryptic with 2 440 miscleavages; a static modification of 57.0214 Da on cysteine (carbamidomethylated) and a 441 442 dynamic modification of 15.9949 Da on methionine (oxidized) residues. Peptide spectrum matches (PSM) were scored and filtered using the Percolator node in Proteome Discoverer and false-443 444 discovery rates initially controlled at < 1% at both the PSM- and peptide-levels. Peptides were then quantified by chromatographic area-under-the-curve, mapped to their respective proteins, and 445 areas summed to estimate protein-level abundance. Proteins without 3 valid values in a minimum 446 of 1 biological condition were removed and remaining protein abundances were log2 transformed. 447 Missing values were imputed to simulate the mass spectrometer's limit of detection using Perseus 448 449 v1.6.10.43 (i.e., normal distribution, width of 0.3, down shift of 1.9 and mode changed to total 450 matrix) (41). Significant differences in protein abundance were calculated via T-test for each sample (S2, S3 and S4) against control group (S1 sample) for each strain using FDR of 0.05, 250 451 permutations and s0 of 1. 452

All raw mass spectra for quantification of proteins used in this study have been deposited in the MassIVE and ProteomeXchange data repositories under accession numbers MSV000085941 (MassIVE) and PXD020854 (ProteomeXchange), with data files available at ftp://massive.ucsd.edu/MSV000085941.

Bioinformatics. Pathway proteins were annotated using KEGG database (42) and from
literature sources where cited. Ontology associations and orthologs for regulator proteins were
identified using panther database (43).

460 ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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471 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. (A) Phylogenetic tree of *Y. lipolytica* isolates with 20 closest neighbor species. (B)
Pangenome of *Y. lipolytica* reference strains CLIB122122 and CBS7504 and undomesticated
strains YB392, YB419, YB420, YB566 and YB567. Bold, strain; parenthesis, total genes; outer
petals, singleton genes, middle petals, uniquely shared genes between lipid producers (blue) and
xylose consumers (green); middle circle, core genes.

477

478 Figure 2. (A) Workflow of bioreactor characterization of Y. lipolytica isolates CBS7504 (B, D)

and YB420 (C, E) in 50% SGH. Dotted lines, time of glucose depletion where xylose is the sole
remaining carbon source.

481

Figure 3. Proteomic analysis of *Y. lipolytica* (A-C) CBS7504 and (D-F) YB420 strains. (A, D)
Number of proteins with significant abundance changes relative to S1. (B, E) Heatmap of
significant proteins with changed abundance relative to S1. (C, F) Venn diagram illustrating the
number of proteins with significant abundance changes between samples.

486

Figure 4. Pentose phosphate pathway proteome of (A) CBS7504 and (B) YB420. Increased protein abundance during xylose assimilation, red; decreased protein abundance during xylose assimilation, blue; pathways, rectangles; proteins, bold font; metabolites, plain text. (C) All transporters and (D) carbohydrate transporters with significant protein abundance changes in the xylose assimilation phase. CBS7504, blue; YB420, orange. Abbreviations: TKL (transketolase, YALI0D02277g); PRS1 (ribose-phosphate pyrophosphokinase, YALI0B13552g); Xyl1 (xylose reductase, YALI0D07634g); Xyl2 (xylitol dehydrogenase, YALI0E12463g); Xyl3 (xylulokinase,

YALI0F10923g); ZWF1 (NADP+-dependent glucose-6-phosphate 494 dehydrogenase, YALI0E22649g); SOL3 (6-phosphogluconolactonase, YALI0E11671g); RPIB (ribose 5-495 496 phosphate isomerase, YALI0F01628g); TAL (transaldolase, YALI0F15587g); RPE1 (ribulose-497 phosphate 3-epimerase, YALI0C11880g); GND1 (6-phosphogluconate dehydrogenase, YALI0B15598g). 498

499

Figure 5. (A) Schematic of growth characterization phenotypes for CBS7504 and YB420 when 500 501 xylose was the sole remaining carbon source. Proteomic analysis of lipid metabolism showing 502 increased (red) and decreased (blue) protein abundance when xylose was the sole remaining carbon source for CBS7504 (B) and YB420 (C). Proteins, circles; metabolites, regular font; pathways, 503 bold font. Abbreviations: TAG (triacylglycerol); DHAP (dihydroxyacetone phosphate); Gly-3P 504 (glycerol-3-phosphate); LPA (lysophosphatidic acid); PA, phosphatidic acid; DAG, 505 506 diacylglycerol; PL, phospholipid; TAG, triacylglycerol; FFA, free fatty acid; TCA, tricarboxylic 507 acid cycle; GPD1 (glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase, YALI0B02948g); SCT1 (bifunctional glycerol-3-phosphate/glycerone-phosphate O-acyltransferase, 508 YALI0C00209g); ALE1 (lysophosphatidate acyltransferase, YALI0F19514g); SLC1 (1-acyl-sn-glycerol-3-phosphate 509 510 acyltransferase, YALI0E18964g); PAP (phosphatidic acid phosphohydrolase, YALI0D27016g); LPP1 (diacylglycerol diphosphate phosphatase/phosphatidate phosphatase, YALI0B14531g); 511 512 DGA1 (acyl-CoA dependent diacylglycerol acyltransferase I, YALI0E32769g); DGA2 (acyl-CoA 513 dependent diacylglycerol acyltransferase II, YALI0D07986g); TGL3 (triacylglycerol lipases 3, YALI0D17534g); TGL4 (triacylglycerol lipase 4, YALI0F10010g); YJU3 (monoglycerol lipase, 514 515 YALI0C14520g); FAA1 (long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase, YALI0D17864g); FAS1 (fatty acid 516 synthase 1,YALI0B15059g); FAS2 (fatty acid synthase 2; YALI0B19382g); ACC1 (acetyl-CoA

517	carboxylase, YALI0C11407g); PDH1, PDH2; ACL1 (ATP-citrate lyase, YALI0E34793g); ME
518	(malic enzyme, YALI0E18634g); MnDH1 (Mannitol dehydrogenase, YALI0B16192g); UGA2
519	(Succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase, YALI0F26191g); SOL3 (6-Phosphogluconolactonase,
520	YALI0E11671g); ZWF1 (NADP+-dependent glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase,
521	YALI0E22649g); POT1 (3-oxyacyl-thiolase, YALI0E18568g); MFE1 (multifunctional β -
522	oxidation protein, YALI0E15378g); PEX10 (peroxin-10, YALI0C01023g); POX1 (acyl-
523	coenzyme A oxidase 1, YALI0E32835g); POX2 (acyl-coenzyme A oxidase 2, YALI0F10857g);
524	POX3 (acyl-coenzyme A oxidase 3, YALI0D24750g); POX4 (acyl-coenzyme A oxidase 4,
525	YALI0E27654g); POX5 (acyl-coenzyme A oxidase 5, YALI0C23859g); POX6 (acyl-coenzyme
526	A oxidase 6, YALI0E06567g); YAS2 (HLH transcription factor, YALI0E32417g); POR1
527	(YALI0D12628g); SNF1 (YALI0D02101g); SAK1 (YALI0D08822g); REI1 (YALI0B08734g);
528	HSF1 (YALI0E13948g); UPC2 (YALI0B15818g);
529	

Figure 6. Regulator proteins with significant protein abundance changes in the xylose assimilation
phase. CBS7504, blue; YB420, orange.

533	Supplementary Materials
534	
535	Table S1. Singleton genes of YB392, YB419, YB420, YB566, and YB567.
536	
537	Table S2. Uniquely shared genes between the undomesticated strains YB566 and YB567.
538	
539	Table S3. Uniquely shared genes between the undomesticated strains YB392, YB419, and YB420.
540	
541	Table S4. Proteomic analysis of xylose metabolism and transporters.
542	
543	Table S5. Proteomic analysis of lipid metabolism, lipid regulators, lipase and NADPH generating
544	proteins.
545	
546	Table S6. Proteomic analysis of all gene specific regulators.
547	
548	Figure S1. Characterization of CBS7504 growing in switchgrass hydrolysate. (A) Optical density
549	measured at 600nm. (B) Concentrations of glucose, xylose, acetate, and xylitol. (C) Neutral lipids.
550	(D) pH. (E) Volumes of base and acid added. (F) Percent of dissolved oxygen. Data were collected
551	from triplicate bioreactor runs.
552	
553	Figure S2: Characterization of the undomesticated strain YB392 growing in switchgrass
554	hydrolysate. (A) Optical density measured at 600nm. (B) Concentrations of glucose, xylose,

555	acetate, and xylitol. (C) Neutral lipids. (D) pH. (E) Volumes of base and acid added. (F) Percen
556	of dissolved oxygen. Data were collected from triplicate bioreactor runs.

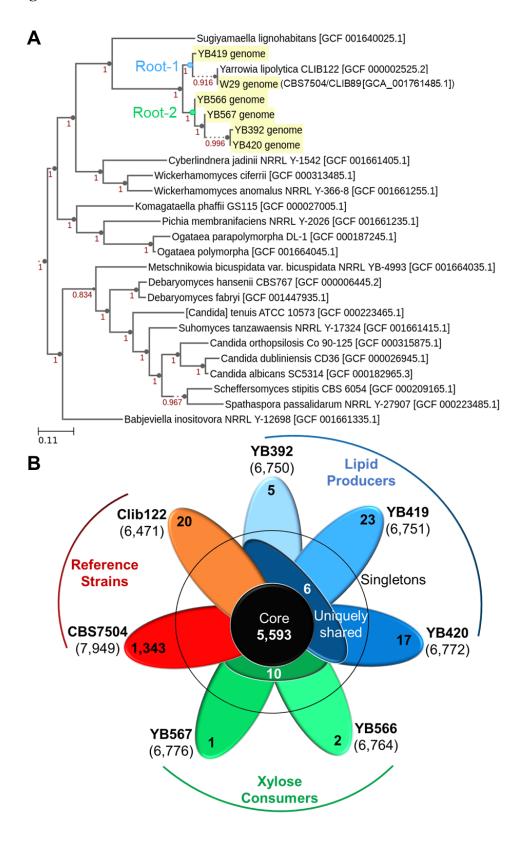
558	Figure S3: Characterization of the undomesticated strain YB419 growing in switchgrass
559	hydrolysate. (A) Optical density measured at 600nm. (B) Concentrations of glucose, xylose,
560	acetate, and xylitol. (C) Neutral lipids. (D) pH. (E) Volumes of base and acid added. (F) Percent
561	of dissolved oxygen. Data were collected from triplicate bioreactor runs.

Figure S4: Characterization of the undomesticated strain YB420 growing in switchgrass
hydrolysate. (A) Optical density measured at 600nm. (B) Concentrations of glucose, xylose,
acetate, and xylitol. (C) Neutral lipids. (D) pH. (E) Volumes of base and acid added. (F) Percent
of dissolved oxygen. Data were collected from triplicate bioreactor runs.

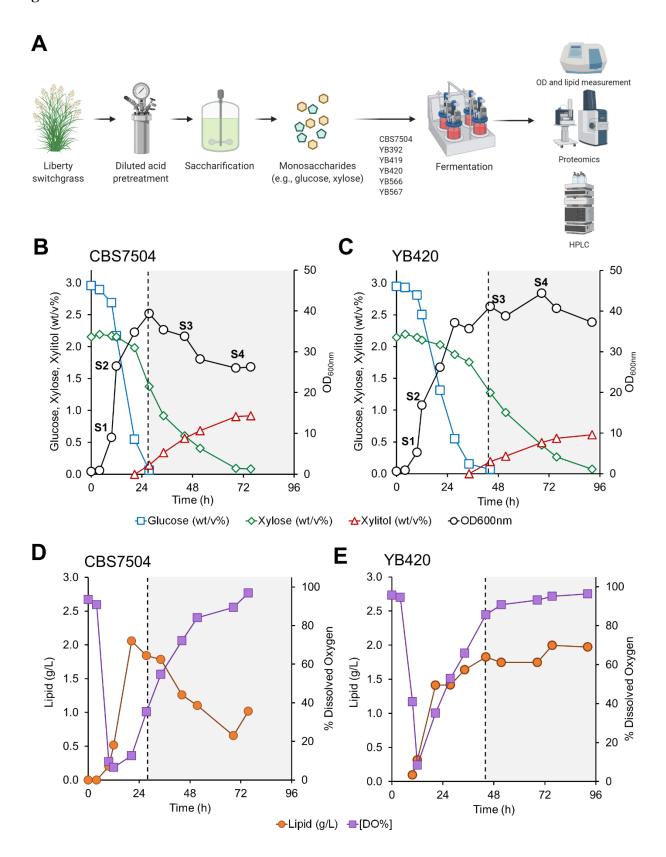
Figure S5: Characterization of the undomesticated strain YB566 growing in switchgrass
hydrolysate. (A) Optical density measured at 600nm. (B) Concentrations of glucose, xylose,
acetate, and xylitol. (C) Neutral lipids. (D) pH. (E) Volumes of base and acid added. (F) Percent
of dissolved oxygen. Data were collected from triplicate bioreactor runs.

Figure S6: Characterization of the undomesticated strain YB567 growing in switchgrass
hydrolysate. (A) Optical density measured at 600nm. (B) Concentrations of glucose, xylose,
acetate, and xylitol. (C) Neutral lipids. (D) pH. (E) Volumes of base and acid added. (F) Percent
of dissolved oxygen. Data were collected from triplicate bioreactor runs.

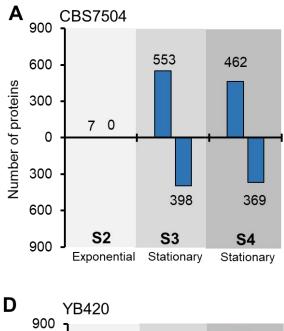
579 Figure 1

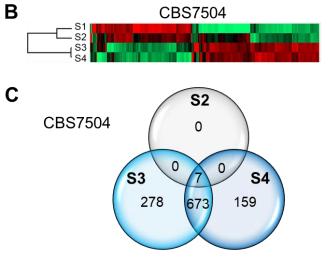


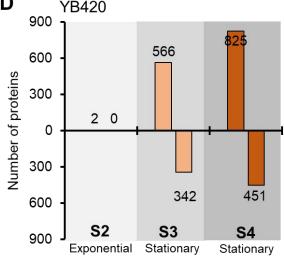
581 Figure 2

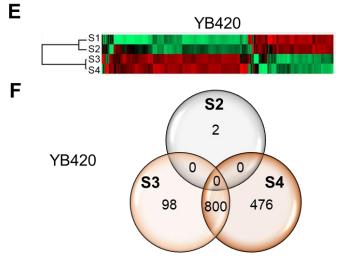


583 Figure 3









587 Figure 4

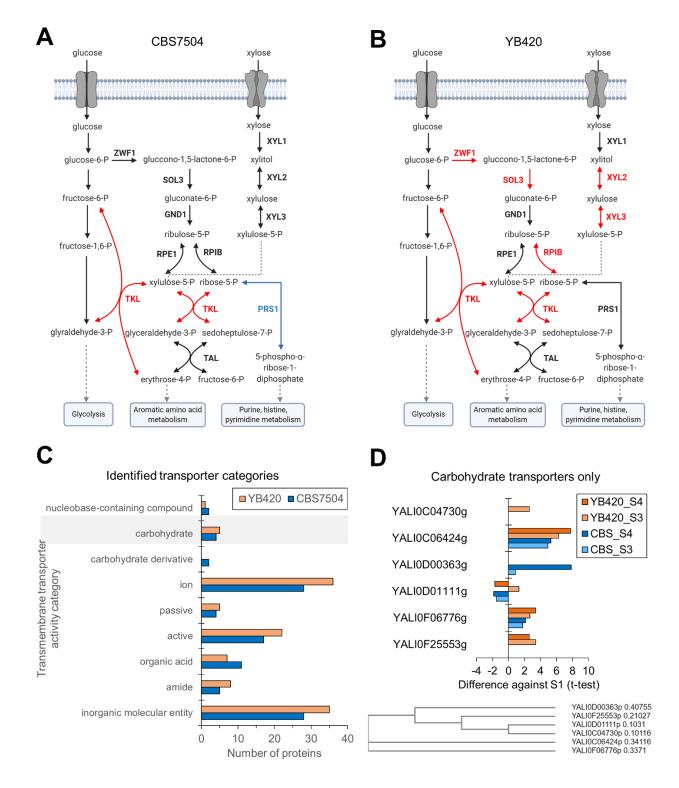
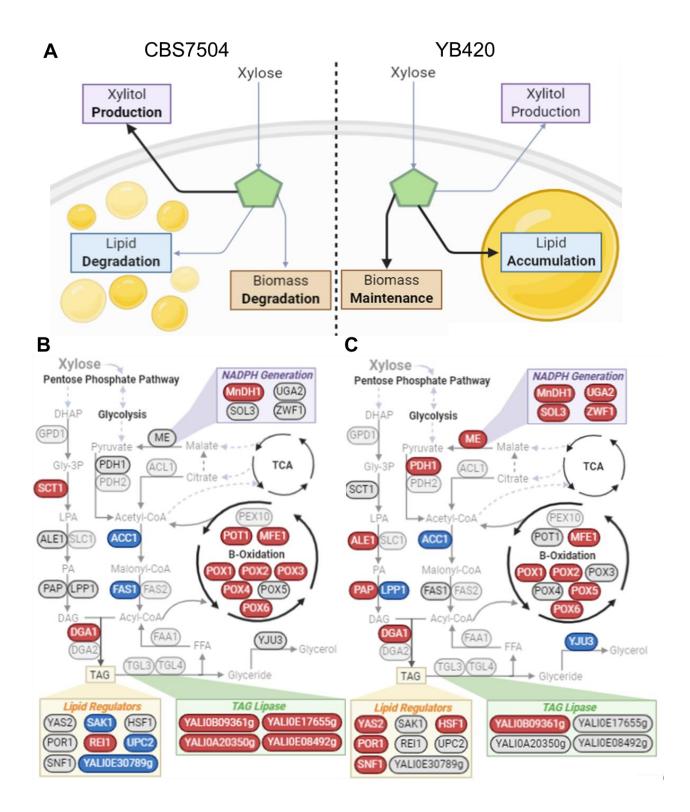
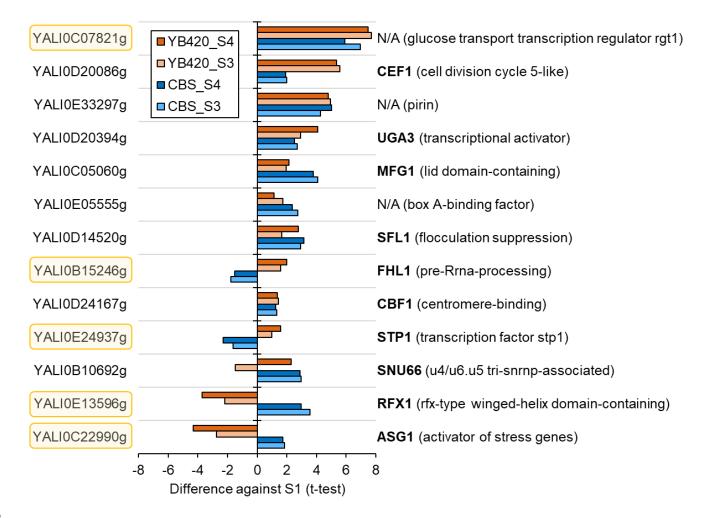


Figure 5



595 Figure 6



596

598 **REFERENCES**

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