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Organism Engineering for the Bioproduction of the Triaminotrinitrobenzene (TATB) Precursor Phloroglucinol (PG)

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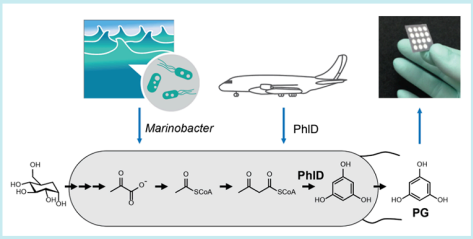
Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Organism engineering requires the selection of an appropriate chassis, editing its genome, combining traits from different source species, and controlling genes with synthetic circuits. When a strain is needed for a new target objective, for example, to produce a chemical-of-need, the best strains, genes, techniques, software, and expertise may be distributed across laboratories. Here, we report a project where we were assigned phloroglucinol (PG) as a target, and then combined unique capabilities across the United States Army, Navy, and Air Force service laboratories with the shared goal of designing an organism to produce this molecule. In addition to the laboratory strain *Escherichia coli*, organisms were screened from soil and seawater. Putative PG-producing enzymes were mined from a strain bank of bacteria isolated from aircraft and fuel depots. The best enzyme was introduced into the ocean strain *Marinobacter atlanticus* CP1 with its genome edited to redirect carbon flux from natural fatty acid ester (FAE) production. PG production was also attempted in *Bacillus subtilis* and *Clostridium acetobutylicum*. A genetic circuit was constructed in *E. coli* that responds to PG accumulation, which was then ported to an *in vitro* paper-based system that could serve as a platform for future low-cost strain screening or for in-field sensing. Collectively, these efforts show how distributed biotechnology laboratories with domain-specific expertise can be marshalled to quickly provide a solution for a targeted organism engineering project, and highlights data and material sharing protocols needed to accelerate future efforts.



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Biotechnology offers solutions to national security challenges, whether through new routes to materials, responses to rapidly emerging health threats, or providing innovative

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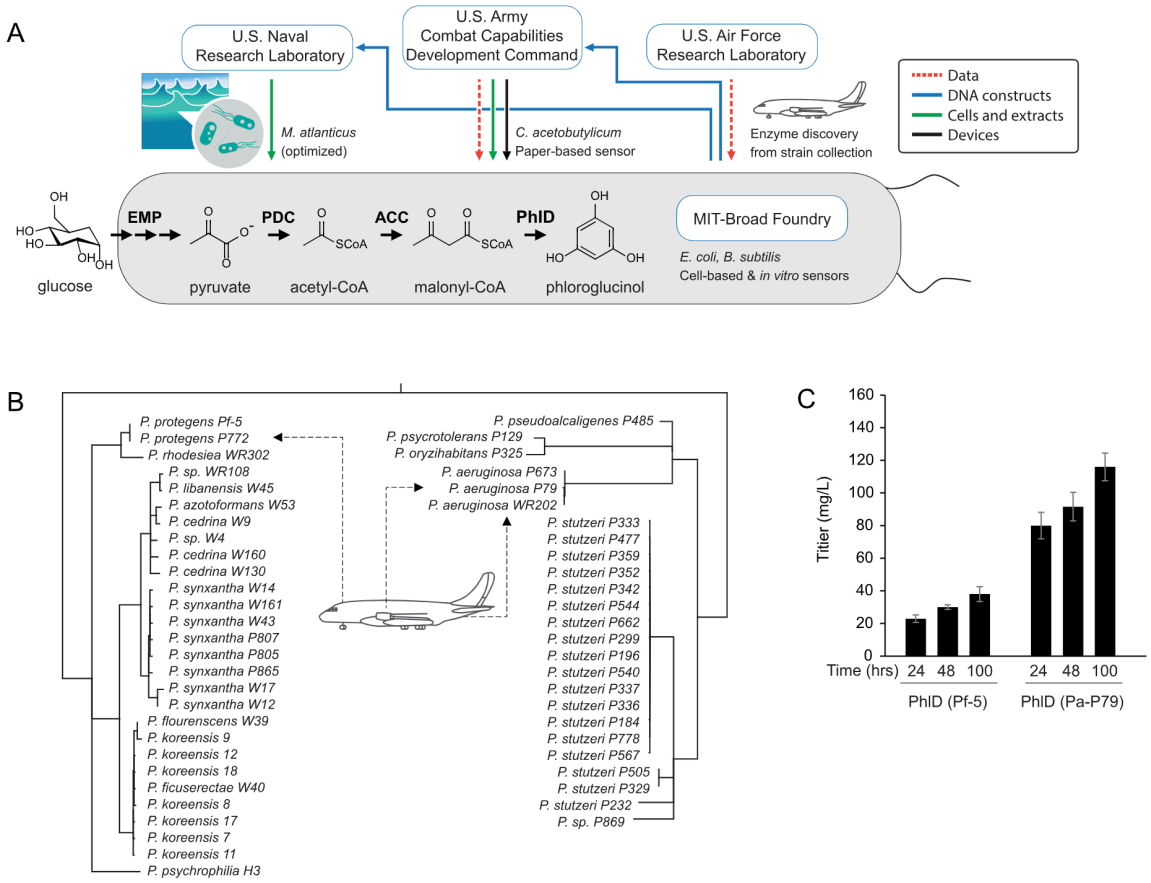

Figure 1. Production of PG in *E. coli* and strategy for optimization. (A) Combined resources used to optimize PG production and sensing. (B) Phylogenetic tree of *Pseudomonas* isolates from aircraft, based on sequence similarity of the 16S ribosomal subunit. The *P. protegens* Pf-5 strain is included as a reference (top left). Arrows indicate the sources of the three strains in which *phlD* genes were detected via PCR. (C) PG production by *E. coli* carrying different enzymes. Cultures were grown for 24, 48, and 100 h in EZ Rich medium before PG purification and quantification by LC−MS analysis (Supplementary Methods). Error bars represent the standard deviation of measured titers from five independent experiments performed on different days.

strategic options.[1−3] Living organisms can be designed to make molecules or act as autonomous agents that function as human therapeutics or in the environment.[4−8] Organism design has become a sophisticated endeavor, involving computer aided design (CAD) software operating at the molecular, system, and genome levels, data-guided decision making, and artificial intelligence (AI).[9−15] Early in the design process, a strain must be selected to serve as the starting chassis. While there are strain banks that have 10 000s of bacteria and fungi, many with unique attributes,[16−21] identifying a starting host for an engineering effort is often based on access and institutional experience. Data access can also be limiting, including characterized genetic parts, experimental protocols (culturing, manipulation, *etc.*), and -omics information (genome, transcript/protein levels, metabolic maps).[22−29] When confronted with a new challenge, particularly one that is time sensitive, it is critical to be able to draw on expertise, data and software, and physical resources from multiple facilities and organizations during the design process. While other engineering fields routinely coordinate specialties for a design project, this is at a nascent stage in biotechnology.

Pressure tests are a means to evaluate readiness to act on an emerging need. Over several years, the Foundry at MIT was tested by receiving lists of desired target molecules for which producing strains had to be built in months.[5] In some cases, strains that made the molecules had been described in the literature but access was restricted. For example, we were asked to make a toxin with potential as a cancer chemotherapeutic, for which there was a published natural producer[30] that was not shared citing intellectual property concerns. Applying bioinformatics tools, we rapidly identified an alternative strain that produces the same compound from a commercial strain bank.[31] Similarly, when we were asked to produce a putative rocket fuel precursor, we were denied access to a published strain.[32] However, we were able to reconstruct this strain in 3 weeks (Supplementary Figure S1).

One such compound we were asked to make is phloroglucinol (PG), which is a flexible chemical precursor used to make pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, textiles, dyes, and energetic materials.[33,34] It has garnered interest as a chemical precursor to the powerful, yet insensitive, explosive triaminotrinitrobenzene (TATB), used as part of some nuclear weapon designs.[35−38] Compared to other TATB precursors, PG is less volatile and easier to transport, but its chemical synthesis is inefficient.[39] A biological route could provide access with fewer waste streams. PG is naturally produced by pseudomonads, and genetic engineering has been applied to move its production to heterologous hosts.[40] Only a single enzyme, the type III polyketide synthase PhlD, is required to produce PG from three molecules of the ubiquitous metabolite malonyl-CoA.[41]

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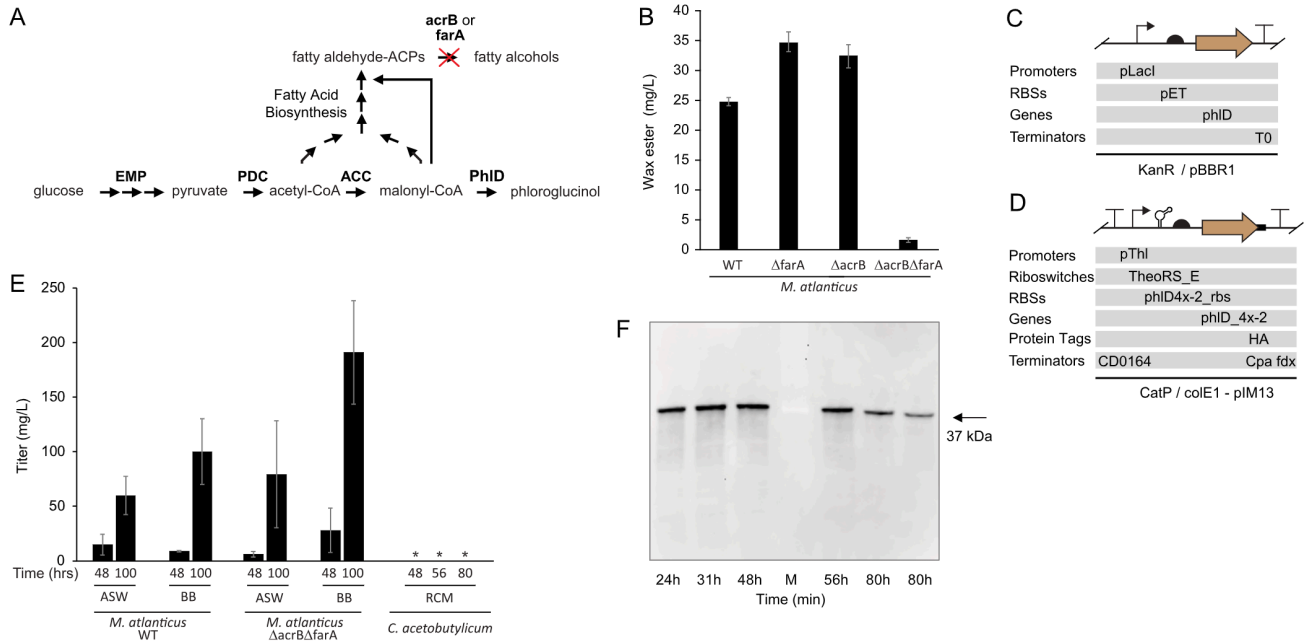

Figure 2. PG production in *Marinobacter* and *Clostridium*. (A) Metabolism of acetyl-CoA and malonyl-CoA to fatty alcohols. Knockout of *acrB* and *farA* prevents formation of fatty alcohols, and is theorized to promote accumulation of upstream metabolites, including acyl-CoA's. (B) Elimination of wax ester production in *Marinobacter atlanticus* CP1 double knockout (data reproduced from ref 51). (C) Design of *phlD* expression vector for *phlD* in *Marinobacter*, using the gene from *P. aeruginosa* P79. (D) Shuttle-vector design for PhlD expression in *C. acetobutylicum* ATCC 824 employing thiolase promoter and a theophylline-inducible riboswitch. This design uses a thermostable variant of PhlD ("4x-2").[43] Some variants contain a hemagglutinin tag as indicated or an alternate Gram-positive replication origin (Supplementary Table S4). (E) PG titers measured from *Marinobacter* and *Clostridium*. In *Marinobacter*, PG production was tested using the *phlD* gene from Pa−P79, in the wild-type (left) and wax-ester mutant (right) grown in artificial seawater medium (ASW) and rich-media (BB) with fermentation times of 48 and 100 h. In *Clostridium*, no PG was detected (see text for details). (F) Despite no observable PG production, full-length protein was detected in *C. acetobutylicum* via Western blot (Supplementary Methods). For *Marinobacter* data, error bars represent the standard deviation of measured titers from three technical replicates. For *Clostridium*, two independent experiments were performed on different days.

Directed evolution has been applied to optimize the enzyme for higher thermostability, and metabolic engineering has been used to improve titers by increasing tolerance via introduction of heat-shock proteins and by increasing intracellular malonyl-CoA concentrations by enabling acetate to be used as a feedstock.[39,42−44]

To satisfy the pressure test requirements, we quickly reconstructed a strain of *E. coli* that expresses PhlD and confirmed its production of PG. We then reached out to United States Department of Defense (DoD) service laboratories to coordinate the application of their unique internal resources to this problem (Figure 1a). We were able to evaluate chassis from the ocean (*Marinobacter atlanticus* CP1) and soil (*Clostridium acetobutylicum*) that were predicted to produce higher titers or be tolerant to the product, but are difficult to engineer. A strain bank of pseudomonads isolated from aircraft was screened for improved PhlD variants and a new variant was identified. The best PG producer was a *Marinobacter* variant whose genome was edited to increase malonyl-coA and carry the PhlD variant. This strain is able to produce PG from succinate in an artificial seawater medium. One of the challenges of screening variants at high-throughput is having an assay for PG production. To this end, we created low-cost cell-based and *in vitro* paper-based systems for rapid PG detection. While the data and materials exchanges underlying this project were largely *ad hoc*, they point to a need for infrastructure, computational resources, and standards to facilitate the application of knowledgebases, strain banks, and genetic parts so they can be applied to emerging challenges.

RESULTS

Construction of *E. coli* Strains for PG Production. Previous efforts for heterologous PG production relied on the *phlD* enzyme found in *P. protegens* Pf-5 (formerly classified as *P. fluorescens* Pf-5).[41] We used this gene to establish a baseline production system in *E. coli*. The protein sequence was codon optimized for *E. coli* expression, cloned into a pET-based vector under inducible control, and sequence-verified. Following the previously reported growth conditions, clones were cultured for 24 and 48 h. After extraction (1:1) with methanol, PG was not detected via LC−MS under these conditions (Supplementary Methods). However, yields of 38 mg/L were observed after substituting EZ Rich defined medium for LB medium (Figure 1c).

The Pf-5 *phlD* sequence had also been used as the basis for a directed evolution search for improved activity at higher temperatures.[43] We sought to determine whether a broader search of environmental strains could yield a more active starting enzyme. The Air Force Research Lab (AFRL) selected 52 *Pseudomonas* spp. strains it had collected as part of a microbial library of isolates from 17 interior locations of different aircraft (Figure 1b). Because the genomes were not available, primers were designed to target conserved regions of *phlD* for six clades, as determined using sequences available in NCBI (Supplementary Methods). These primers were able to amplify three

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genes, one each from *P. protogens* P772 (flight deck), *P. aeruginosa* P79 (hydraulic fluid), and *P. aeruginosa* WR202 (cargo area). The *P. protegens* gene was found to be identical at the DNA level to the *phlD* gene from *P. protegens* Pf-5. Likewise, the enzyme sequences from the two *P. aeruginosa* strains were identical to each other and to those found in other genomes of this species, but only share 71% amino acid identity with PhlD from *P. protegens* Pf-5. When expressed under identical conditions, this gene produces 3-fold increased titer in *E. coli* (116 mg/L) (Figure 1c) and was thus used in subsequent engineering efforts.

Evaluation of *Marinobacter*, *Bacillus*, and *Clostridium* as Alternative Chassis. We sought to investigate nonmodel organisms with naturally high levels of malonyl-CoA, focusing on *Marinobacter atlanticus* CP1. *M. atlanticus* CP1 was isolated from a biocathode microbial community enriched from sediment and seawater collected from the Rutgers University Marine Field Station (New Jersey, USA) and studied for the community's ability to fix carbon dioxide and store reduced carbon. In general, *Marinobacter* are studied for to their ability to thrive in diverse environments,[45−47] and for production of surfactants, siderophores, and wax esters.[48] Wax ester production is presumed to be used for carbon storage, and it is of particular relevance to PG production because it indicates that the organism maintains a large pool of acyl-CoA's.[48−50] Previously, we assembled *M. atlanticus* CP1 strains in which the wax-producing genes *farA* and *acrB* were removed.[51] In the absence of the wax ester end point, we reasoned that this strain would accumulate high levels of acyl-CoA's, including malonyl-CoA.

To test PG production, the Pa−P79 *phlD* gene was introduced into both wild-type (WT) CP1 and the double-knockout strain (Δ*farA*Δ*acrB*). The gene was constitutively expressed under a *lac* promoter in a plasmid with a pBBR1MCS-2 backbone and a kanamycin selection marker. Strains were transformed by conjugation with the *E. coli* donor strain WM3064 (a diaminopimelic acid auxotroph) and transformation was confirmed by PCR. It has previously been shown that the deletion of *farA* and *acrB* had no effect on growth compared to the WT in either rich medium (BB) or artificial seawater (ASW) medium supplemented with succinate (26 mM), and both strains reached stationary phase within 24 h in both media with a doubling time of approximately 2−2.5 h when grown on organic acids.[51] Wax ester synthesis does not occur in the Δ*farA*Δ*acrB* mutant (Figure 2b).[51]

PG production was evaluated in both WT and double-knockout strains, using succinate (26 mM)-supplemented artificial seawater (ASW) medium with wax ester promoting levels of nitrogen[49,50] or rich medium composed of 50% lysogeny broth and 50% marine broth (BB). Compared to wild-type *Marinobacter*, the double-knockout exhibited a 41% increase in production in ASW and a 91% increase in production in rich medium at 100 h, ultimately yielding 191.1 mg/L in rich medium at 100 h (Figure 2e).

In parallel, to explore other chassis, the Pf-5 *phlD* gene was codon optimized for expression in *Bacillus subtilis*, assembling plasmids for two different transformation strategies. For electroporation, the gene was cloned into vector pHT01 from MoBiTec, in which expression is driven by the P_{grac01} promoter under inducible control. For inducible conjugation, the gene was also cloned into integrative plasmid pJAB980, which integrates target genes into the starch utilization locus (*amyE*) of the *Bacillus* chromosome.[52] The former was transformed into *B. subtilis* 168 Marburg, and the latter into *B. subtilis* XPORT strain JAB932 (to enable rapid transfer into environmental Gram-positive isolates).[52] Both transformations were verified via colony PCR. Three clones generated by each approach were grown for a 24 and 48 h in 2xYT medium, but no PG was detected via LC−MS analysis.

Clostridium acetobutylicum ATCC 824 is an anaerobic spore-forming bacterium, historically used for fermentation of a broad range of C_6 and C_5 sugars to acetone, butanol, and ethanol.[53] To our knowledge, no synthetic polyketide pathway has ever been implemented in an obligate anaerobe. *C. acetobutylicum* polyketide biosynthesis, important for sporulation and granulose formation, requires malonyl-CoA as a precursor.[54] To explore PG production, shuttle vector variants containing a thermostable *phlD* variant ("4x-2")[43] were constructed (Supplementary Table S2). In all variants, *phlD* expression was driven by the *C. acetobutylicum* thiolase (*CA_C2873*) promoter under inducible regulation of a theophylline riboswitch[55] in most variants (Figure 2d). In order to survey plasmid copy number, plasmids were constructed with the four different Gram-positive replication origins provided with the pMTL80000 modular plasmid system.[56] In addition, to facilitate the detection of the protein, nucleotides encoding a C-terminal hemagglutinin tag were added to $phlD^{4x\text{-}2}$ in one of the plasmids.

Plasmids were transformed into wild-type *C. acetobutylicum* ATCC 824 via electroporation and grown in liquid Reinforced Clostridial Medium containing 2% glucose and 15 μM thiamphenicol in an anaerobic chamber (Supplementary Methods). Cultures were induced with 2 mM theophylline for 48−80 h. Supernatants were analyzed for PG by HPLC (Supplementary Methods). Among the four replication origins tested, pIM13 yielded the highest plasmid copy number in *C. acetobutylicum* as measured by real-time PCR (Supplementary Figure S8). Inducible expression of full length PhlD was confirmed by Western blot (Figure 2f). However, we did not detect PG from any of the *C. acetobutylicum* strains under the conditions described. When *E. coli* harboring these plasmids (with the Gram-negative ColE1 origin) was cultured aerobically in rich medium, up to 200 μM (25 mg/L) of PG was detected (not shown), indicating the plasmids themselves were not defective. Further investigation revealed that *C. acetobutylicum* degrades or consumes up to 10 g/L of externally-supplemented PG (data not shown).

PG-Responsive Genetic Sensors (*in Vivo* and *in Vitro*). Genetic sensors respond to small molecules by changing the activity of a promoter. When encoded in the DNA in a living cell, genetic sensors can serve as an input to circuits, such as to implement feedback control[57−59] or logic to turn on gene expression in response to specific conditions.[11] *In vitro* or "cell free" systems are increasingly being used to prototype genetic systems[60−62] and serve as stable and nonliving sensors, for example as viral diagnostics,[63,64] identifying plant pathogens,[65] and sensing small molecules.[66−70] Genetic sensors have also been used as part of high-throughput screens, where cells that respond to the product are used to detect improvements in a pathway faster and more cheaply than possible with traditional analytical approaches.[71−73] To these ends, we sought to create a genetic sensor for PG that operates in *E. coli* and then port it to a cell-free system.

A set of putative PG-responsive transcription factors was collected. The *P. fluorescens* PhlF repressor senses diacetylphloroglucinol (DAPG)[74] and *P. protegens* PltR responds to mono- and dichlorinated phloroglucinols.[75] We also included a

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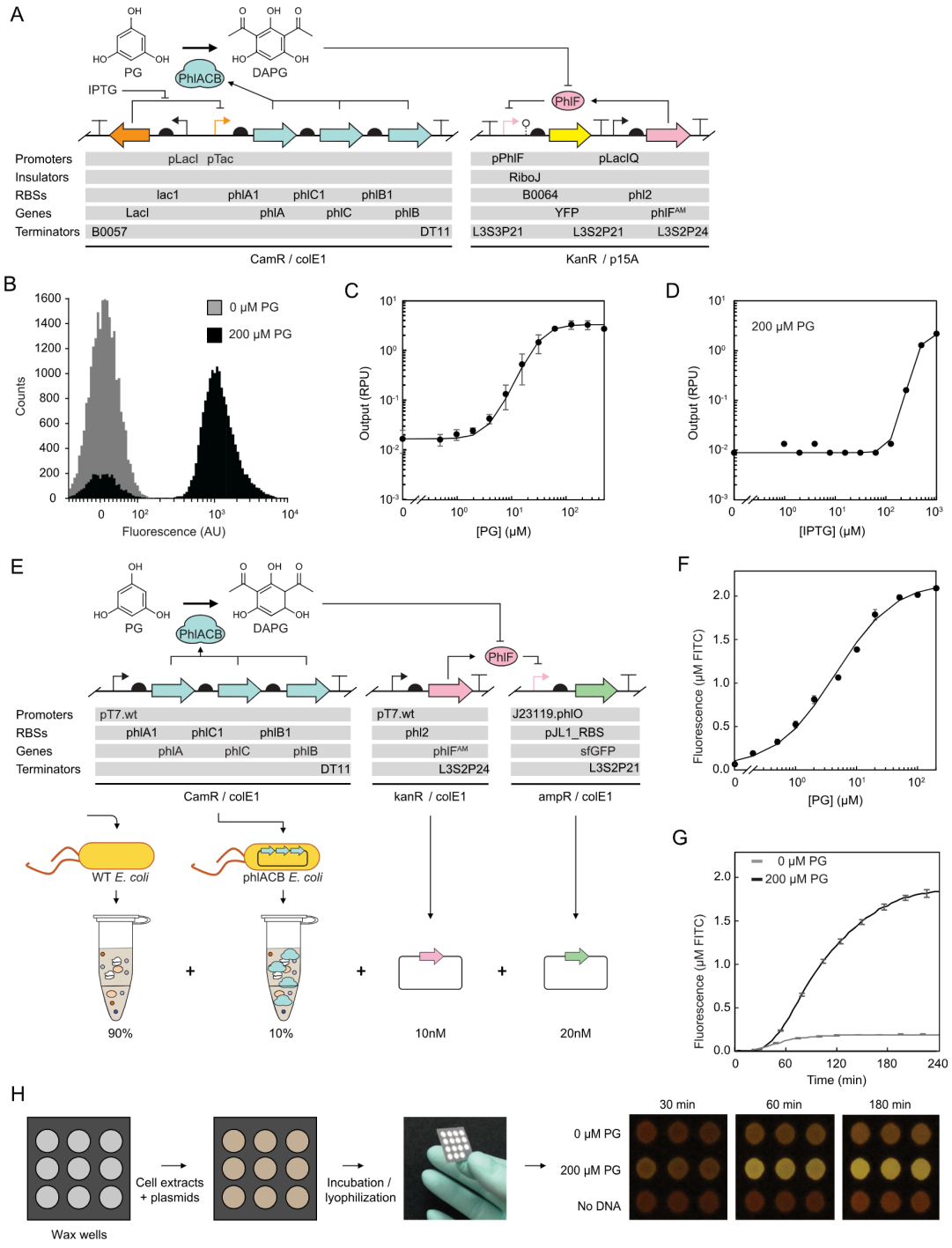

Figure 3. Phloroglucinol-responsive sensors. (A) Genetic diagram for the *in vivo* PG sensor (genetic parts are provided in Supplementary Table S3). (B) Flow cytometry histograms showing the induction of the PG sensor expressed in *E. coli*. Cells were induced for 5 h in LB medium with antibiotics (Supplementary Methods). (C) Response of the cell-based sensing system to PG and Hill function fit (K_d = 7.5 μM) using the evolved sensor protein PhlF^{AM}. The response is shown during exponential growth in medium with 1 mM IPTG (Supplementary Methods). Data for the stationary phase response are provided in Supplementary Figure S5. The fit curve is generated by entering the Hill function into Solver in Microsoft Excel (Supplementary Methods). (D) Response of the *in vivo* sensing system to induction of the *phlACB* operon with IPTG using the evolved regulator protein PhlF^{AM}. (E) Design of the three-plasmid *in vitro* sensor system (genetic parts are provided in Supplementary Table S4). The plasmid with the *phlACB* operon is expressed in *E. coli*, which is then lysed to generate an extract containing active proteins. This extract is combined with an extract from WT *E. coli* (10%/90%), and with plasmids containing the regulator (*phlF*^{AM}) and reporter (*sf GFP*). (F) Response of the *in vitro* sensing system to PG, with Hill function fit (K_d = 13.6 μM) computed as above. (G) Time course of the *in vitro* sensor's response to PG. (H) Deployment of the cell-free sensor in a paper ticket format. Paper tickets were then freeze-dried and exposed to PG (200 μM) or buffer. Images show microscopy of PG-induced fluorescence in wells across three technical replicates. For the responses of the cell-based and *in vitro* systems, error bars represent the standard deviation of fluorescence output from three independent experiments.

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PhlF variant that we have previously identified to have enhanced specificity (PhlF^{AM}).[76] Some sensors respond to monoacetylphloroglucinol (MAPG), but none to PG (Supplementary Figure S2b). We also tested repressors that respond to other substituted benzenes.[76] These included sensors of cuminic acid (CymR^{AM}), vanillic acid (VanR^{AM}), 3,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid (DHBA) (PcaU^{AM}), and salicylate (NahR^{AM}), none of which responded to PG (Supplementary Figure S2a).

We decided to express enzymes that metabolically convert PG to a compound for which we have a sensor, a strategy taken previously to respond to other compounds.[73,77−79] There is a well-characterized pathway from *P. fluorescens* (*phlACB*) that converts PG to 2,4-diacetylphloroglucinol (DAPG), for which we have previously evolved high-performance sensors (Figure 3a). Several designs were tested for the expression of the PhlACB enzymes under IPTG-inducible control (Supplementary Figure S10e-f). The best sensor and its response function in different growth phases are shown in Figure 3b, 3c and Supplementary Figure S5. It produces 97-fold induction with a threshold of 33 μM and sensitivity of 2 μM. The response is also specific to the expression of *phlACB* (Figure 3d).

The sensor was then adapted to a cell-free system. Such systems have been demonstrated to detect quorum-sensing molecules, including those produced by pathogens,[80−82] and for RNAs from gut microbes and Ebola virus,[63,83] among others. Some of these systems are based on a genetic sensor, where a protein binds to the target molecule and up or downregulates a promoter. However, *in vitro* sensing systems that also include enzymatic processing of the molecule to produce a detectable compound have only recently been demonstrated.[67,84]

To develop a cell-free PG sensor, we first tested the ability of the PhlF variants to sense DAPG *in vitro*. The dynamic range of each variant was tested for its ability to repress sfGFP expression from a pTac promoter fused to the phlO operator sequence by adding a plasmid encoding the transcription factor to *E. coli* cell extracts containing the pTac-phlO-sfGFP construct and supplemented with T7 polymerase.[85] PhlF^{AM} worked best, repressing expression by 90% and exhibiting a response to DAPG (Supplementary Figure S3). However, expression was low, with maximal fluorescence of less than 1 μM equivalent of fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC; Supplementary Methods). To increase expression, the pTac promoter of the reporter was replaced by a σ^{70} promoter based on J23119[85] in which a phlO operator was placed between the −10 and −35 sites (Figure 3e). This design increased the maximum output by 10-fold without reducing the response to DAPG (Supplementary Table S3).

With the ability to sense DAPG at hand, we next tried to add *phlACB* to the *in vitro* system to enable PG detection. The acyltransferase needs to form a complex $PhlI(A_2C_2)_2B_4$ heterododecamer for activity.[86] The first approach was to coexpress the genes as an operon under the control of a T7 RNAP promoter from a separate plasmid (Supplementary Figure S10k). This did not lead to a functional sensor despite many rounds of optimization; in fact, even constitutive expression of sfGFP seemed to be inhibited (Supplementary Figure S3c). Radioactive ^{14}C-leucine incorporation studies were performed and these data imply that the proteins may aggregate when expressed in our *in vitro* system (Supplementary Figure S3d). Therefore, an alternative approach was taken to obtain active PhlACB. These proteins were expressed *in vivo* in *E. coli* to make a cell-free extract pre-enriched with the PhlACB enzymes. To ensure sufficient resources were available for transcription and translation of the transcription factor and reporter plasmids, this extract was then combined with unenriched (WT) *E. coli* extract in a 10:90 ratio along with the plasmids (Supplementary Methods). The plasmids containing the transcription factor and the reporter were then added to this mixture (Figure 3e and Supplementary Methods). In this formulation, the "On" signal can be observed above background in approximately 1 h with a 9.8-fold activation over background in the presence of 200 μM PG, with a detection threshold of 13.6 μM and sensitivity of 0.2 μM (Figure 3f).

Paper-based platforms have recently been reported for field-ready deployment in which cell-free systems are freeze-dried and reconstituted at test time. These platforms are cheap to produce, eliminate cold-chain requirements and can have year-long shelf-lives.[63,87] Because PG can be used as a precursor to energetic materials,[88] we explored prospects for adapting the sensing system for environmental surveillance.

The PG-sensing *in vitro* system was then tailored to a paper ticket format, which has been advanced by the U.S. Army Combat Capabilities Development Command Chemical Biological Center.[89] First, compatibility with the paper format was tested. Wax reaction wells were printed onto chromatography paper, and the lysate mixture was added to each well. When 200 μM PG was added to each well, there was a visible signal difference compared to negative controls (Supplementary Figure S7a). Next, performance was optimized by tuning plasmid concentrations, and tickets were lyophilized (Figure 3h). The best performance was observed when extracts and plasmids were deposited into wax wells in slightly different proportions than in tubes, with the sensor plasmid at 5 nM and the reporter plasmid at 10 nM. The resulting devices exhibited 2-fold induction by PG within 30 min and the signal was sustained for >7 h (Supplementary Figure S7d).

■ DISCUSSION

This manuscript describes a coordinated, interorganizational effort to address an organism engineering problem defined by an external need. There was no formal infrastructure in place to enable coordination of the project. Groups were aware of expertise and capabilities through personal relationships and data, knowledge, and materials were transferred in an *ad hoc* manner. Still, this project led to surprising and unpredictable findings that would not have been possible without distributed expertise. In this case, the best solution was an arcane species of bacteria isolated from the ocean, carrying a gene from an unrelated bacterium from the hydraulics of an aircraft, and whose genome was modified to disrupt alternative routes for carbon flux. In finding these solutions, we were able to screen alternative strains from soil including a difficult-to-modify *Clostridium* and create an *in vitro* system that can be used later for rapid prototyping and further improvement.

As genome engineering becomes more complex, the number of groups participating in the design phase of a project will expand. When exchanging materials and coordinating diverse capabilities across organizations, the greatest challenges involve ensuring compatibility of experimental designs, reagents, and experimental findings. Currently, there are few formalized tools available to facilitate this exchange, so teams must instead develop comprehensive, mutual understanding of each other's capabilities, methods, and results. This requires extensive communication between groups, ranging from high-level design specifications, such as for assays or DNA constructs, down to mundane experimental details, such as selection of time points, standardization of common protocols, sample labeling con-

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ventions, or DNA sequences. Infrastructure is needed to streamline this kind of coordination, including computer aided design software, standards for data and protocol/expertise sharing, parts repositories, and national strain banks.[90−93]

After the design phase, organism construction and testing also require coordination between multiple specialized facilities, including DNA synthesis, genome construction/editing, -omics, high-throughput product screening, purification, and analytical chemistry. The design efforts have to be closely coordinated with the end use, whether it be to enter scale-up in production, field trials, or clinical testing. For example, TATB synthesized from biologically produced PG produces particles with different morphology and performance characteristics than TATB synthesized from 1,3,4-trichlorobenzene.[94] While other engineering fields routinely coordinate specialties for a large design project, this is at an early stage in biotechnology.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acssynbio.9b00393.

Detailed methods and materials, Supplementary Figures S1−S10, and Supplementary Tables S1−S4 (PDF)

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¶A. Meyer, I. Saaem, A. Silverman, and V. Varaljay contributed equally to this work, and are listed in alphabetical order. C.A.V. conceived of the overarching study. C.A.V. and D.B.G. wrote the manuscript, and I.S. compiled the supplementary methods. C.B., S.L., K.P., and I.S. built plasmids, performed the *E. coli* work, and performed assays on *Marinobacter* samples with oversight by I.S. and D.B.G.; R.M. and E.O. performed the *Marinobacter* work, with oversight by S.G.; V.V. and C.D. performed the *Pseudomonas* work, with oversight by M.G., N.K.-L., and W.C.-G.; R.E. and A.C. performed the linalool work, with oversight by D.B.G.; A.T., N.D.S., and W.M. performed the *Clostridium* work with oversight by K.A.; A.M., A.S., S.B., and F.M. performed the sensor work, with oversight by J.L., M.L., and M.C.J.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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