## Pathway and Protein Engineering for Improved Glucaric Acid Production in *Escherichia coli*

**by**

Lisa Marie Guay

B.S. Chemical Engineering B.A Economics University of Arizona, **2013**

Submitted to the Department of Chemical Engineering in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

at the

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Lisa Marie Guay Department of Chemical Engineering January **11, 2019**

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Patrick **S.** Doyle **Chairman, Committee for Graduate Students** 

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#### ABSTRACT

Microbial fermentation is an attractive method for the renewable production of chemicals. Glucaric acid was identified as a "top value added chemical from biomass" **by** the Department of Energy in 2004, and a biological route for its production from glucose in **E.** *coli* was developed in our lab in **2009.** Two of the pathway enzymes, myo-inositol phosphate synthase (MIPS) and *myo*inositol oxygenase (MIOX), appear to control flux. This work addressed several limitations of these reactions.

One approach was the relief of reactive oxygen species (ROS) to improve MIOX performance. MIOX converts myo-inositol (MI) to glucuronic acid. Overexpression of native catalase and superoxide dismutases led to significantly higher titers of glucuronic acid from MI. This result corresponded to better maintenance of MIOX activity and expression over the course of the fermentation. **A** reduction in labile iron levels, which are linked to ROS formation, was also shown to improve glucuronic acid titers.

**A** second approach was the examination of natural MIPS diversity. MIPS competes with central carbon metabolism for its substrate, glucose-6-phosphate. Thirty-one representative MIPS homologs were selected using a sequence similarity network. Nineteen variants produced detectible myo-inositol (MI) from glucose, and H. *contortus* MIPS performed equally well or better than the current *S. cerevisiae* MIPS. Interesting differences in stability were identified between the variants, and further work to explore the network may yield more information about important sequence features.

**A** third approach was the evaluation of screening methods for glucuronic and glucaric acid to support protein engineering. We attempted to extend a previous screen to growth from glucose, but while growth was achieved from MI, low flux appeared to prevent growth from glucose. **A** previously-developed biosensor based on the regulator CdaR was also tested. We discovered that the biosensor does not respond to glucaric acid but instead to a downstream metabolite, likely glycerate, and that the biosensor is affected **by** catabolite repression. While a reliable screen was not realized, our improved understanding of native regulation aids in the identification of alternative strategies.

This work overall produced significant improvements in the glucaric acid pathway and helped to identify opportunities for further development.

Thesis Supervisor: Kristala L. **J.** Prather Title: Professor of Chemical Engineering

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Lisa Guay









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## **1.** Introduction

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#### **1.1. Metabolic Engineering Tools**

Biomanufacturing is an attractive method for the sustainable production of fuels and commodity chemicals. However, fermentation processes often require extensive strain engineering and bioprocess optimization to reach the high yields and selectivity required for economic viability.<sup>1</sup> This kind of manipulation is difficult because metabolic networks are complex, and we have incomplete knowledge of the important interactions that affect overall phenotype and productivity. Moreover, the addition of heterologous enzymes and metabolites to a system further reduces our understanding of its overall behavior. However, metabolic engineers have developed many tools to help address these problems, and commercial processes have been developed for several commodity and specialty chemicals, including 1,4-butanediol, succinic acid, isoprene, isobutanol, acetic acid, polyethylene, and artemisinin.<sup>2-5</sup> An overview of some of these tools is provided below.

#### **1.2. Strain and** systems engineering

An organism's native metabolism is complex and employs many regulatory mechanisms to maintain homeostasis and respond to environmental fluctuations. However, the introduction of new pathways into an organism can lead to unexpected interactions between native metabolism and the introduced proteins and metabolites. **A** few methods to mediate these interactions to improve production are described below.

#### 1.2.1. Improving flux

New pathways often produce low titers when they are first constructed. Pathway balancing, which involves tuning the relative expression levels of pathway enzymes, can help improve pathway flux and reduce the overall protein expression burden.

In addition, native metabolism may limit flux and pathway yield through competing side reactions. Metabolic databases such as KEGG,<sup>6</sup> as well as genome scale models<sup>7</sup> and computational tools like OptKnock<sup>8</sup> and PROPER,<sup>9</sup> can help identify native enzymes that may affect the pathway. Nonessential genes can be knocked out, and essential genes can be knocked down. Knockdown can be achieved via transcriptional, translational, and posttranslational control. Common mechanisms for implementing these types of control are CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) using  $dCas9$  and targeted sgRNA,<sup>10,11</sup> RNA interference  $(RNAi)$ ,  $^{12}$  and protein

degradation tags,<sup>13</sup> respectively. Dynamic knockdown strategies have recently been developed that allow for additional flexibility in flux optimization.<sup>14-16</sup>

#### 1.2.2. Alleviating toxicity

**A** frequent problem in bioprocesses is toxicity of the end product or a side or co-product. Product tolerance is often a complex phenotype determined **by** multiple genes. One successful approach is whole-cell evolution for growth in the presence of increasing concentrations of the toxic compound of interest. Following evolution, genome sequencing can help reveal the mutations responsible for the improvement,  $12$  which may suggest ways to further improve tolerance. In addition, comparing the transcriptome for organisms exposed and not exposed to the compound can also provide clues about how the cellular response may be improved.<sup>17</sup> Finally, overexpression or introduction of efflux pumps for a toxic product is a complementary approach that can reduce toxicity, simultaneously reducing the elevated intracellular concentration and enhancing product concentration in the supernatant.<sup>12,17,18</sup> In addition to the strategies for product toxicity, it may be possible to consume nonessential side or co-products using specific catabolic or scavenging enzymes. $19$ 

#### **1.2.3.** Overcoming regulation

Native regulation also poses challenges for bioprocess development. Organisms employ an extensive set of control systems to modulate metabolism. In engineered systems, the desired pathway may be subject to downregulation. This regulation is often achieved through allosteric control of enzymes or transcriptional control by protein regulators.<sup>20,21</sup> Transcriptional repression can be alleviated **by** knocking out regulator proteins or **by** constitutive expression of the regulated genes.12 Relief of allosteric control has been achieved using enzyme engineering at the binding interface to prevent binding and render the target protein always active or inactive.<sup>12,20,22</sup> In addition, substitution of a homologous enzyme or alternative pathway from another organism can help circumvent native regulation.<sup>20</sup>

One global regulation system of considerable interest to metabolic engineers is carbon catabolite repression (CCR). CCR is common in bacteria and allows for the preferential utilization of available carbon sources. However, in metabolic engineering applications, it may downregulate necessary pathways and preclude efficient co-utilization of carbon sources.<sup>23</sup>

Glucose is the preferred carbon source in many bacteria, and import and catabolism of many other carbon sources are only activated in its absence.<sup>24</sup> In *E. coli*, the presence or absence of glucose is reflected in the phosphorylation state of **EIIA** in the phosphotransferase system **(PTS).** When glucose is absent, phosphorylated **EIIA** activates adenylate cyclase to produce cyclic AMP (cAMP), which binds to the cAMP receptor protein  $(CRP)^{24}$  The CRP-cAMP complex is an important transcriptional activator, controlling expression of hundreds of genes.<sup>25</sup> In the presence of glucose, dephosphorylated **EIIA** can also bind to some transporters to prevent import of alternative carbon sources, a phenomenon known as inducer exclusion.<sup>26,27</sup> Another contributor to CCR is the catabolite repressor activator (Cra), which senses glycolytic flux through the relative levels of fructose-1,6-bisphosphate and fructose-1-phosphate.<sup>28</sup> Some relief of CCR has been achieved through knockouts of **PTS** system components *(ptsG, ptsHIcrr) and* glycolysis  $(pgi).^{23,29,30}$  Engineering of CRP has also shown promise.<sup>23,25,29</sup>

#### **1.3.** Protein Engineering

Protein engineering comprises several methods that yield proteins with better stability, selectivity, and activity. Protein engineering is extensively used in metabolic engineering to optimize bioprocesses. The majority of enzymes have kcat/Km values that are several orders of magnitude below the diffusion limit, and the most efficient enzymes tend to be involved in central carbon metabolism.<sup>31</sup> Less-efficient enzymes are unlikely to have experienced the same degree of selective pressure and may prove successful targets for engineering.<sup>31</sup> In addition, the introduction of an enzyme into a new organism or the overexpression of a native enzyme inherently changes its fitness landscape, further increasing the potential benefit for heterologous enzymes used in bioprocesses. Engineering has also been used to adapt enzymes to different substrates and temperatures, improving selectivity and stability.

#### **1.3.1.** Natural protein diversity

Naturally-occurring protein diversity is the starting point for much of protein engineering. Methods that involve modifying a template, including rational engineering and directed evolution described below, typically start from a sequence derived from nature. Until relatively recently, little was known about the extent of natural diversity within classes of sequences. However, as the cost of **DNA** sequencing has fallen, the amount of sequence information has

accumulated exponentially (Figure 1.1).<sup>32</sup> Nevertheless, making effective use of the large amount of sequence information is challenging, because functional information and experimental characterization lag well behind sequencing. This disparity is illustrated in Figure **1.1 by** the gap between the blue line representing total sequences and the orange line representing reviewed sequences. **A** number of databases now attempt to classify sequences **by** motifs, domains, and homology into putative enzyme families or superfamilies. Two common ones are InterPro<sup>33</sup> and one of its component databases, Pfam.<sup>34</sup>



Figure **1.1.** Number of sequences in UniProt databases, **1986-2018.** The blue line represents the total number of sequences in both Swiss-Prot (reviewed) and TrEMBL (unreviewed) databases that comprise UniProt. The orange line represents only Swiss-Prot sequences.

In general, bioinformatics tools are most powerful where distinguishing information or features exist between proteins in a class or between related classes of proteins. However, these tools often require as input experimental or functional information about individual proteins. Proteins within a single class are likely to exhibit differences in stability, and approaches using consensus and correlated residues have proven effective.<sup>35,36</sup> Bioinformatics can also aid in determining sequence differences in enzyme function and allosteric regulation between larger families or superfamilies. $35,37$  Selectivity, on the other hand, has proven more challenging because sequences alone do not provide reliable information about spatial interactions.<sup>35</sup>

Bioinformatics tools in combination with other protein engineering methods can help to address some of these limitations. Different evolutionary trajectories may be accessible from

different sequence templates, so using homologs may allow for additional exploration of sequence space<sup>38</sup>. In addition, homologous recombination of related sequences, with techniques such as DNA shuffling, is an effective library generation method for directed evolution.<sup>36,39,40</sup>

#### **1.3.2.** Rational engineering

Rational engineering usually involves creating and testing a small library of targeted ("rational") mutations. The approach relies on knowledge about the protein of interest to identify amino acid mutations that may improve the property of interest.<sup>41</sup> For this reason, the availability of information about the overall structure and mechanism, as well as residues in the active site and binding pockets, is often crucial for effective rational engineering. Molecular modeling tools based on molecular dynamics and quantum mechanics are often used to guide prediction of beneficial mutations.

However, rational engineering remains challenging. First, many enzymes are not wellcharacterized. Second, even when structural and functional information is available, it is difficult to choose the best locations for mutagenesis, as residues far away from the active site and binding pockets have been found to be important for overall function. $42-44$  Since these regions have typically not been well-studied even in well-characterized proteins, molecular modeling approaches also struggle.<sup>42</sup>

#### **1.3.3.** Directed evolution

In contrast, directed evolution is a powerful tool to change an enzyme's activity, specificity, and stability without *a priori* knowledge of its structure or catalytic mechanism. Directed evolution relies on the creation of a diverse library of protein sequences followed **by** screening or selection to identify the top performers. It can also be used iteratively to allow the accumulation of beneficial mutations. Beneficial mutations are rare,<sup>45</sup> so directed evolution relies on large libraries and high-throughput screens.<sup>46</sup>

Directed evolution is a very general method, and the results of a particular experiment depend on the details of both library generation and screening or selection. How libraries are generated determines which sequence variants may be detected. Sequence space is vast **-** for any given protein of N amino acids, there are  $20<sup>N</sup>$  possible sequence variants. For a relatively small **100** amino acid protein, this translates to approximately **1.3** x **10130** possible sequences, far larger

than the estimated number of atoms in the universe. Clearly, generating and testing all sequences is impossible. However, library generation fundamentally determines the portion of sequence space available in a directed evolution study. Moreover, fitness landscapes, which define the relationship of sequence to fitness, often contain epistatic sequence interactions, limiting the accessible evolutionary trajectories.<sup>47</sup> Advances have been made to reduce the bias in random mutation methods,<sup>48,49</sup> but these inherent limitations remain.

The particular screen or selection method used also has consequences for the results of directed evolution. The context-dependence of screens and selections is memorably captured in the First Law of Directed Evolution: "You get what you screen for."<sup>50</sup> Mutations that improve the screen output but do not improve the protein of interest as intended are common, and these undesired mutations may well obscure the detection of desired mutations. This type of problem is common in metabolic engineering applications because different experimental conditions are often used for production and for screening or selection.

#### 1.3.4. Development of screens and selections

The importance of the detection method to the results of directed evolution studies has led to significant work to develop and improve screens and selections. Any successful detection method must connect a sequence to a phenotype. Many different methods exist, but the most common phenotypes used are growth or production of a colored substance or fluorescent reporter.<sup>40</sup> Growth-based methods are often used for selections because growth phenotypes are relatively binary. Only the cells that are able to grow survive the selection and can be further characterized. In contrast, colored or fluorescent phenotypes are useful for screens. **All** cells must be examined to determine which ones are the most colored or fluorescent, and highthroughput screens such as fluorescence-activated cell sorting **(FACS)** are frequently used for this purpose. $40$ 

Many pathways and enzymes of interest in metabolic engineering do not directly produce an easily-detectible phenotype and therefore require screen or selection development. In some cases, the phenotype can be linked to growth under certain conditions, possibly with the use of strain engineering to knock out other growth pathways. In other cases, regulators may be used to create fluorescent or growth-associated biosensors. While details of biological control systems are still being elucidated, naturally-occurring or engineered transcription factors and

riboswitches that bind to a metabolite of interest are increasingly being used to develop biosensors.<sup>51-56</sup> These are commonly used to drive production of a fluorescence or antibiotic resistance gene.

#### **1.4. Glucaric Acid**

Glucaric acid is **a** six-carbon aldaric acid that was named a "top value added chemical from biomass" in 2004 **by** the **U.S.** Department of Energy.57 Glucaric acid and other aldaric acids can be used to produce lactone solvents, esters, metal-chelating surfactants, and a wide range of polymeric materials, including hydroxylated nylons and branched polyesters.<sup>57</sup> These wide-ranging applications make it an attractive target for replacing petroleum-based chemicals.

Conventional production involves selective oxidation of the aldehyde and terminal alcohol groups of glucose with nitric acid or other oxidizing agents. However, the oxidation produces low yields and a large range of difficult to separate glucose derivatives. Metal catalysts have been developed to help improve selectivity, but these processes are expensive.<sup>58</sup> Glucaric acid is also naturally produced in fruits, vegetables, and mammals, though the amounts are small and the pathways are lengthy.<sup>6,59,60</sup> Taken together, these limitations have so far precluded largescale production.

#### 1.4.1. Glucaric acid pathway in **E.** *coli*

**A** novel heterologous pathway was introduced in **E.** *coli* in **2009** and is shown in Figure 1.2.<sup>59</sup> The pathway uses three heterologous enzymes,  $myo$ -inositol-1-phosphate synthase (MIPS) from *S. cerevisiae,* myo-inositol oxygenase (MIOX) from *Mus musculus,* and uronate dehydrogenase **(Udh)** from *Pseudomonas syringae.* Glucose is first imported as glucose-6 phosphate **(G6P)** using *E. coli's* phosphotransferase system **(PTS).** MIPS converts **G6P** to *myo*inositol- 1-phosphate, using **NAD'** as a catalyst. The product is then dephosphorylated to *myo*inositol (MI) **by** an endogenous phosphatase. Next, myo-inositol is oxidized to glucuronic acid **by** MIOX using molecular oxygen. Finally, glucaric acid is produced through a second oxidation **by Udh,** which consumes **NAD'.** Titers of up to 2 *g/L* of glucaric acid have been produced from glucose using this pathway, with yields of  $10-20\%$ .<sup>59,61</sup>



Figure 1.2. Heterologous pathway from glucose to glucaric acid in *E. coli.*

MIOX is an unusual oxidase and an unstable enzyme.<sup>62,63</sup> Like many monooxygenases, MIOX contains a non-heme diiron cluster in its active site. However, the mixed-valent Fe(I1)- Fe(III) state is catalytically active instead of the more common  $Fe(II)$ -Fe(II) state.<sup>62,64,65</sup> This unusual redox state enables MIOX to perform the four-electron oxidation of MI to glucuronic acid using a single equivalent of molecular oxygen as the co-substrate.<sup>62</sup> It has been suggested that MIOX turnover may generate reactive oxygen species (ROS) through incomplete reduction of oxygen,<sup>62</sup> and hydrogen peroxide has been shown to inactivate the enzyme.<sup>66,67</sup> However, evidence that ROS is associated with MIOX expression or activity is mixed. <sup>66,68-70</sup> Nevertheless. MIOX activity declines significantly over the course of a typical fermentation experiment,<sup>63</sup> and MI accumulation has sometimes been observed in the context of the full glucaric acid pathway.<sup>59</sup>

MIPS catalyzes the first step in inositol biosynthesis and is essential in many organisms for generating cell membrane components and signaling molecules.71 However, **MIPS** must compete for its substrate, glucose-6-phosphate, against major enzymes in central carbon metabolism, namely glucose-6-phosphate isomerase (encoded **by** *pgi)* of glycolysis and glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (encoded **by** *zw])* of the pentose phosphate pathway. <sup>72</sup>**This** competition limits glucaric acid titers from glucose, as much higher titers have been achieved from MI than from glucose.<sup>59,63</sup> In addition, *S. cerevisiae* MIPS currently limits pathway operation to **30\*C** because its activity falls at higher temperatures, whereas *M musculus MIOX* performs better at **37\*C.<sup>59</sup>**

#### 1.4.2. Previous engineering of the glucaric acid pathway

Pathway improvement has focused on the MIPS and MIOX enzymes because each appears to control pathway flux and overall titers under some conditions. Initial pathway characterization showed low *in vitro* activity for both enzymes relative to **Udh,** with MIOX activity an order of magnitude lower than MIPS activity.<sup>59</sup>

Several approaches have already been taken to improve the *M musculus* (Mm) MIOX enzyme. First, the addition of an N-terminal small ubiquitin-like modifier **(SUMO)** fusion protein was shown to boost glucuronic and glucaric acid titers from MI **by** increasing soluble expression.63 Second, colocalization of MIPS and MIOX led to an increase in MIOX specific activity and in product titers, possibly due to a stabilizing effect of higher local substrate concentrations.<sup>73</sup> Third, directed evolution was undertaken using a growth screen for the onestep conversion of MI to glucuronic acid, which resulted in the identification of a mutant with a partial gene insertion that increased the rate of MI import but did not improve production from glucose.63 Fourth, dynamic regulation to delay expression of MIOX until MI accumulated in the culture led to increased glucaric acid production.<sup>61</sup> Finally, our lab has undertaken an effort to use bioinformatics to probe MIOX homologs for improved pathway performance in *S. cerevisiae* and *E. coli.*

Unlike MIOX, little protein engineering work has been completed for MIPS. However, strain and pathway engineering have enabled MIPS to better compete for its **G6P** substrate. Knocking out both *pgi and zwf* and co-feeding glucose with another sugar allowed for the separation of glucaric acid production (from glucose) and cell growth (from the additional sugar substrate), leading to improved yield.<sup>72</sup> In addition, dynamic downregulation of phosphofructokinase **(pfk),** which catalyzes the first committed step in glycolysis, **led** to improved titers and yield **by** improving the balance of growth and production.74

#### **1.5.** Thesis Scope

Building on previous work in our lab, we sought to further improve the productivity of the glucaric acid pathway while developing or evaluating additional metabolic engineering tools. We focused primarily on improving the reactions catalyzed **by** MIPS and MIOX due to their apparent role in controlling flux through the pathway.

Here, we show that the performance of MIOX is significantly impacted **by** reactive oxygen species. While the problem of oxidative stress has been discussed in the metabolic engineering literature, and a variety of solutions have been offered for particular situations, a general approach is lacking. In order to alleviate oxidative stress and improve conversion of MI to glucuronic acid **by** MIOX, we overexpress native catalase *katE* and superoxide dismutases *sodA and sodB.* We also show a connection between reactive oxygen species and labile iron **pools.**

Additionally, we employ sequence similarity networks to explore natural MIPS enzyme sequence diversity. Relatively little work has been done to directly improve MIPS for glucaric acid production, and MIPS is conserved across most branches of life. Thirty-one sequences are evaluated for MI production, and efforts to improve stability and activity are discussed.

Finally, we evaluate two different screens for glucuronic or glucaric acid production. Protein evolution of MIPS and MIOX is likely to benefit pathway productivity, but a previous growth screen from MI did not result in an improved MIOX enzyme. **A** growth screen from glucose is assessed, and its limitations are discussed. In addition, a previously characterized biosensor for glucaric acid is evaluated, and native regulation of glucaric acid catabolism in *E. coli* is clarified.

#### **1.6.** Thesis **Organization**

This thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 provides background on strain and protein engineering strategies to support bioprocess development. It also introduces the glucaric acid pathway in *E. coli* and outlines previous pathway optimization efforts. Chapter 2 describes work to alleviate oxidative stress and improve MIOX performance. Chapter **3** discusses a search for improved MIPS homologs guided **by** sequence similarity networks. Chapter 4 reports on efforts to develop a growth screen and a fluorescent screen for glucuronic or glucaric acid detection. Finally, Chapter *5* contains conclusions and future directions.

## 2. Alleviation of Reactive Oxygen Species

 $\sim 10^{11}$ 

#### **Abstract**

It has been suggested that the MIOX mechanism may produce reactive oxygen species (ROS). Endogenous scavenging systems are typically sufficient to reduce ROS to safe levels, but introduction or amplification of metabolic pathways through genetic engineering can exhaust this natural antioxidant capacity. We verified that ROS affect the conversion of MI to glucuronic acid **by** MIOX and then alleviated the damage using catalase and superoxide dismutases. Overexpression of native catalase *katE* increased overall glucuronic acid titers (up to 1.9-fold) as well as soluble MIOX levels and activity (up to 10.8-fold at **72** hours). Overexpression of superoxide dismutases *sodA or sodB* in combination with *katE* further increased titers, suggesting endogenous hydrogen peroxide and superoxide scavenging are insufficient in this system. The performance benefit observed with overexpression of catalytically inactive versions of iron-binding enzymes *katE and sodB* and with addition of chemical iron chelating agents also indicated a link between labile iron and ROS damage. The strategies used here to alleviate oxidative stress significantly improved performance of the glucaric acid pathway and may also be applied in other biological systems.

#### **2.1. Introduction**

Oxidative stress, the systemic cellular damage associated with elevated levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS), is a common problem in biological systems. Three major biologicallyrelevant ROS are superoxide  $(O_2^{\bullet})$ , hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), and the hydroxyl radical (OH $^{\bullet}$ ).<sup>75</sup> Cells continuously generate superoxide and hydrogen peroxide during normal metabolism.<sup>76</sup> In addition, hydrogen peroxide is a common weapon in cellular warfare because it freely crosses cell membranes.75' 77 Important biomolecules are damaged **by** ROS, and cells employ scavenging systems to mitigate this damage (Figure **2.1).** Superoxide and hydrogen peroxide oxidize iron in iron-sulfur cluster and mononuclear iron proteins, leading to iron release and protein inactivation.<sup>76,78</sup> The hydroxyl radical is an even more potent oxidant and reacts with most biomolecules at the diffusion limit, catalyzing lipid peroxidation cascades, creating **DNA** lesions and breaks, and oxidizing proteins and sugars.<sup>79,80</sup> A hydroxyl radical is produced when hydrogen peroxide acts upon intracellular free or labile iron via the Fenton reaction  $(H_2O_2 +$  $Fe^{2+} \rightarrow OH^{-} + OH^{+} + Fe^{3+}$ <sup>91,81,82</sup> Under oxidizing conditions, superoxide may be able to recycle the iron  $(0^{2}- + Fe^{3+} \rightarrow Fe^{2+} + O_2)$ , completing the Haber Weiss reaction (overall:  $H_2O_2 + O_2^{\bullet-} \rightarrow O_2 + OH^- + OH^{\bullet}$  and allowing net iron-catalyzed hydroxyl generation.<sup>80,83–85</sup> As a group, ROS promote growth defects, enzyme inactivation, mutations, and cell death.<sup>86</sup>

Because of the damage potential of ROS, cells have developed sophisticated defense systems. Hydrogen peroxide present at low concentrations is parimarily reduced **by** peroxidases  $(RH_2 + H_2O_2 \rightarrow R + 2 H_2O$ ; reducing power often provided by NAD(P)H), while hydrogen peroxide present at high concentrations is largely disproportionated by catalases (2  $H_2O_2 \rightarrow$  $0_2 + 2 H_2 0$ .<sup>76</sup> Superoxide is disproportionated by superoxide dismutases (SODs; 2  $0_2^{\bullet-}$  +  $2 H^+ \rightarrow O_2 + H_2O_2$ .<sup>87</sup> Cells also use antioxidants and thiol proteins to preferentially react with hydrogen peroxide and superoxide.<sup>79,88</sup> The more reactive hydroxyl radical reacts too quickly and nonspecifically for enzymatic scavengers to be effective, and cells instead reduce its formation via the Fenton reaction by sequestering labile (chelatable and redox-active) iron.<sup>75,79,89</sup> Cells commonly employ both basal and transcriptionally-activated defense systems, 75 which are typically sufficient to protect cells in their native environments.



Figure **2.1.** Overview of ROS damage and scavenging pathways in **E.** coli. The major ROS species hydrogen peroxide, superoxide radical, and hydroxyl radical are shown in bold. Methods of ROS damage are indicated in red, and methods of ROS scavenging are indicated in blue. Note that processes involving free and labile iron are simplified, and redox state and cycling steps are not shown.

Metabolic engineers have recently observed oxidative stress in several engineered pathways, which suggests that the native pathways to scavenge ROS may be insufficient in these contexts. Bioproduction of a wide range of products, including alkanes,<sup>90</sup> lipids,<sup>91,92</sup> acids,<sup>93</sup> and alcohols, **19,94-96** has been affected in bacterial, yeast, and algal hosts. Common factors in these

pathways are incomplete reduction of oxygen by overexpressed oxygenases,<sup>90,97</sup> generation of ROS side products,  $^{19}$  and production of unstable or toxic intermediates and products.  $^{91-96}$ Approaches for alleviating oxidative stress have included overexpressing catalases, 90,93,98 peroxidases, 19' 91 **SODs, <sup>92</sup> , <sup>9</sup> <sup>8</sup>**thiol proteins,94 99-1" and disulfide reductases, 91 as well as **by** adding antioxidants,  $96,102$  and iron chelators<sup>98</sup> to culture media. While these approaches have yielded positive results, little work has been done to evaluate or compare them, and a general framework for relieving oxidative stress has not yet been reported.

As discussed in Section 1.4.1, hydrogen peroxide has been shown to inactivate *myo*inositol oxygenase **(MIOX), 66 67** and MIOX turnover may generate ROS through incomplete reduction of oxygen.62 However, it is unclear whether these issues are significant *in vivo.* Overexpression of native *Miox* has been associated with elevated levels of ROS in mice<sup>68,69</sup> and of ROS-scavenging enzymes in rice.<sup>70</sup> However, MIOX purified from hog kidney did not show increased hydrogen peroxide generation in the presence of its substrate, **MI. <sup>67</sup>**Thus, it is unclear how MIOX may affect overall ROS levels in an engineered microbial host.

Here, we demonstrate that ROS significantly reduce the performance of heterologous *Miox* expressed in two different strains of *E. coli,* suggesting limitations in the native scavenging systems. We then take a general and systematic approach to alleviating the damage, focusing on overexpression of native catalase and SODs.

#### **2.2. Materials and Methods**

#### 2.2.1. Strains **&** plasmids

The *E. coli* strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table **2.1.** Primers used for construction are listed in Table 2.2. *E. coli* strain DH5a was used for molecular cloning and plasmid preparation. The *E. coli* strains used for production were derived from either *MG1655* **(DE3)** or BL21Star **(DE3).** Knockouts of *gudD and uxaC* were performed **by** sequential P1 transduction using Keio collection donor strains JW2258-5 and JW3603-2, respectively.<sup>103</sup> FLP recombinase expressed from plasmid **pCP20** was used to cure the kanamycin resistance cassette after each transduction.104 Transduction and curing were verified **by** PCR amplification and sequencing using primer pairs IB **185** and IB **186** for *gudD* and LMG 1 and LMG2 for *uxaC. The* resulting double knockout strains used for glucuronic acid production are **LG** 1458 (derived from **MG1655)** and **LG1460** (derived from BL2IStar).

Integration of *udh from A. tumefaciens* into the *E. coli* genome was performed via "clonetegration" (See Appendix **A.** 1).105 Primers LG49 and **LG55** were used to amplify the coding sequence of *udh* from plasmid pTATudh2106 and place it under the control of constitutive Anderson promoter BBa J23100 (1.0 measured relative promoter strength).<sup>107</sup> This insert and the **pOSIP-CH** backbone were each digested with BamHl and SpeL then ligated. The ligation product was used to transform **LG** *1458* and **LG** 1460 for integration at the HK022 locus. The phage integration and chloramphenicol antibiotic resistance genes were cured from the **MG1655** strain using FLP recombinase expressed from **pE-FLP** as previously described.105 After difficulty transforming the BL21 strain with **pE-FLP,** we constructed an anhydrotetracycline (aTc)-inducible version. The **pE-FLP** plasmid backbone (excluding the constitutive **pE** promoter) was amplified using primers **LG29** and **LG30.** This insert and plasmid pKVS45 (containing  $tetR-P_{let}$ ) were each digested with AvrII and XhoI and ligated. The resulting  $pE-$ Ptet-FLP plasmid was used to first transform the BL21 strain and then express FLP recombinase (induced with **50** ng/mL aTc) in a second step to remove the integration cassette. Integration and curing were verified by PCR amplification and sequencing with HK022 primers 1-4<sup>105</sup> and LG77 and **LG78.** The resulting glucaric acid production strains are **MG1655 (DE3)** *AgudD AuxaC* HK022::1.0-AtUdh **(LG2477)** and BL21 **(DE3)** *AgudD AuxaC* HK022::1.0-AtUdh **(LG2512).**

Plasmids used to express glucaric acid pathway genes and ROS scavenging genes were constructed from Duet vectors (Novagen, Darmstadt, Germany). PCR and sequencing primers LG73-76 were used for all vectors described below. For this study, we used *M. musculus* MIOX fused to an N'-terminal small ubiquitin-like modifier protein **(SUMO)** tag that was previously shown to increase soluble expression and overall pathway flux.63 Catalase *katE* was amplified from *E. coli* strain **MG 1655** genomic **DNA** using primers **LG69** and **LG70.** The insert and **pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX** were each digested with Mfel and AvrII and then ligated to create pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX-katE. pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX-katE(HI28A) was created **by** amplifying pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX-katE with primers **LG83** and LG84 designed to introduce the **H128A** mutation into *katE* using Agilent's QuikChange primer design web tool.<sup>108</sup>

Plasmids to evaluate **SOD,** alone and in combination with catalase, were derived from the pETDuet- 1 backbone. Mn- and Fe- superoxide dismutases *sodA and sodB* were amplified from *E. coli* strain **MG** *1655* genomic **DNA** using primer pair **LG 115** and **LG 116** and primer pair **LG 117** and **LG 118,** respectively. The **SOD** inserts and the pETDuet- 1 backbone were each

digested with AscI and NotI then ligated to produce pET-sodA and pET-sodB. Analogous catalase plasmids were constructed **by** digesting pETDuet-I as well as **pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX**katE and pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX-katE(H128A) with MfeI and AvrII, followed **by** ligation to produce pET-katE and pET-katE(H128A), respectively. Four SOD-catalase combination plasmids (pET-sodA-katE, pET-sodA-katE(H128A), pET-sodB-katE, and pET-sodBkatE(H128A)) were assembled **by** digestion with MfeI and AvrII and ligation, using pET-katE or pET-katE(H128A) with pET-sodA or pET-sodB as appropriate. **A** second set of four **SOD**catalase combination plasmids with **SOD** mutations (pET-sodA(Q **I** 47E)-katE, **pET**sodA(Q 147E)-katE(H **I 28A),** pET-sodB(Q70E)-katE, and pET-sodB(Q70E)-katE(H 1 **28A))** were constructed **by** amplifying pET-sodA-katE and pET-sodA-katE(H128A) with primers **LG119** and **LG120** and **by** amplifying pET-sodB-katE and pET-sodB-katE(H128A) with primers **LG121** and LG122 designed using Agilent's QuikChange primer design web tool.<sup>108</sup>

For glucaric acid production, **pRSFD-IN-SUMO-MIOX** was created **by** digesting **pRSFD-IN** and **pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX** with Mfel and AvrII and ligating. Low-copy plasmids expressing catalase were constructed **by** digesting pACYCDuet- 1 as well as **pRSFD-SUMO-**MIOX-katE and pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX-katE(H128A) with AscI and AvrII and ligating to produce pACYC-katE and pACYC-katE(H128A), respectively.

#### 2.2.2. Culture conditions

For glucuronic and glucaric acid production, strains were grown in *250* mL baffled flasks containing **50** mL Luria-Bertani (LB) medium supplemented with either **60** mM *myo-inositol* (MI; **10.8 g/L;** Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MA) or **10 g/L** glucose (Sigma-Aldrich), respectively. Working cultures were inoculated to an optical density at **600** nm **(OD600) of 0.01** from overnight cultures grown in LB at  $37^{\circ}$ C without MI or glucose. Cultures were induced with  $100 \mu$ M isopropyl **P-D-** 1 -thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) and supplemented with kanamycin *(50* pg/mL), carbenicillin  $(100 \mu g/mL)$ , and chloramphenicol  $(34 \mu g/mL)$  as required. For the iron chelator study, cultures were also supplemented with deferoxamine mesylate (Sigma-Aldrich), 2,2' bypyridine (2,2'-bipyridyl, Sigma-Aldrich), diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (DTPA; Sigma-Aldrich), and 1,10-phenanthroline (Sigma-Aldrich) at the indicated concentrations. Cultures were incubated at **300C, 250** rpm, and **80%** relative humidity for **72** hours, with samples taken periodically for measurements of biomass, enzyme activity, and extracellular metabolites.

#### **2.2.3.** Measurement of MIOX activity and expression level

Cell pellets were taken from *1.5* mL of culture media at 24, 48, and **72** hr after inoculation, washed twice in sodium phosphate buffer **(0.1** M, **pH 7.2),** and resuspended in 200 ptL B-PER (supplied in sodium phosphate buffer; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, **MA)** supplemented with an EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche Applied Science). Lysates were prepared **by** shaking at room temperature for **15** min followed **by** centrifugation, and total soluble protein was measured using a **BCA** assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). MIOX activity was measured as previously described<sup>109</sup> and normalized by the total protein concentration. To compare the effect of exogenous catalase and superoxide dismutase on activity, 4.3  $\mu$ g/mL purified bovine liver catalase (MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, **CA)** and/or *7.5* ig/mL purified *E. coli* Mn superoxide dismutase (Sigma-Aldrich) were added to the assay reaction.

*Miox* expression was visualized **by SDS-PAGE** and Coomassie staining using a **10%** polyacrylamide gel with **15 gg** of total protein per lane (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, **CA).**

#### 2.2.4. Measurement of extracellular metabolites

**MI,** glucuronic acid, glucaric acid, glucose, and acetate concentrations in culture supernatant samples were quantified **by** high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) on an Agilent 1200 series instrument (Santa Clara, **CA)** with an Aminex HPX-87H anion exchange column **(300** mm **by 7.8** mm; Bio-Rad Laboratories) using *5* mM sulfuric acid at a flow rate **0.6** mL/min as the mobile phase. The column and refractive index detector temperatures were held at 45°C and 35°C, respectively. Compounds were quantified from 10  $\mu$ L injections using the refractive index signal.

Supernatant hydrogen peroxide concentrations were quantified using the Amplex Red kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) per manufacturer instructions.

#### *2.2.5.* Statistics

Reported values are the average of at least three replicates, and error bars denote one standard deviation above and below the mean value. P-values were calculated using paired or unpaired two-tailed student's t-tests with unequal variance.

<b>Name</b>	Genotype	<b>Source</b>
<b>Strains</b>		
MG1655(DE3)	$F-$ , $\lambda$ -, ilvG-, frb-50, rph-1, (DE3)	Tseng, Martin, Nielsen, & Prather, 2009
BL21Star(DE3)	F-, ompT, hsdSB (rB- mB-), gal, dcm, rne131, (DE3)	<b>Thermo Fisher</b> (Waltham, MA)
JW2258-5	F-, Δ(araD-araB)567, ΔlacZ4787(::rrnB-3), λ-, rph-1, Δ(rhaD-rhaB)568, hsdR514CGSC, ∆gudD785::kan <sup>R</sup>	CGSC #10161; Baba et al., 2006
JW3603-2	F-, Δ(araD-araB)567, ΔlacZ4787(::rrnB-3), λ-, rph-1, Δ(rhaD-rhaB)568, hsdR514CGSC, ΔuxaC782::kan <sup>R</sup>	CGSC #10338, Baba et al., 2006
LG1458	MG1655 (DE3) ΔgudD ΔuxaC	This study
LG1460	BL21 (DE3) ΔgudD ΔuxaC	This study
LG2477	MG1655 (DE3) AgudD AuxaC HK022::1.0-AtUdh	This study
LG2512	BL21 (DE3) AgudD AuxaC HK022::1.0-AtUdh	This study
<b>Plasmids</b>		
pOSIP-CH	pUC ori, RK6γ ori, CmR, attP HK022, ccdB, HK022 integrase expressedby λ p <sub>r</sub> under control of $\lambda$ cl857	St-Pierre et al., 2013
pE-FLP	R101 ori, repA101ts, Amp <sup>R</sup> , FLP recombinase expressed by pE	St-Pierre et al., 2013
pKVS45	p15A ori, Amp <sup>R</sup> , tetR, P <sub>Tet</sub>	Solomon, Sanders, & Prather, 2012
pE-Ptet-FLP	oriR101, repA101ts, Amp <sup>R</sup> , TetR, FLP recombinase expressed by Ptet	This study
pTATudh2	pTrc99SE, udh from A. tumefaciens	Yoon et al., 2009
pCP <sub>20</sub>	Rep <sup>a</sup> , Amp <sup>R</sup> , Cm <sup>R</sup> , FLP recombinase expressed by $\lambda$ p <sub>r</sub> under control of $\lambda$ cl857	CGSC #7629
pRSFDuet-1	pRSF1030 ori, lacl, Kan <sup>R</sup>	Novagen (Darmstadt, Germany)

Table **2.1.** *E. coli* strains and plasmids used in this chapter

36
<b>Name</b>	<b>Name</b>	<b>Name</b>
<b>Plasmids</b>		
pETDuet-1	ColE1(pBR322) ori, lacl, Amp <sup>R</sup>	Novagen (Darmstadt, Germany)
pACYCDuet-1	p15A ori, lacl, Cm <sup>R</sup>	Novagen (Darmstadt, Germany)
pTrc-SUMO-MIOX	pTrc99A with SUMO-MIOX inserted into the Ncol and HindIII sites	Shiue & Prather, 2014
pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX	pRSFDuet-1 with SUMO-MIOX inserted into the Ncol and Hindill sites	Shiue & Prather, 2014
pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX-katE	pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX with E. coli katE inserted into the Mfel and Avril sites	This study
pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX- katE(H128A)	pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX-katE with katE His-128 mutated to Ala	This study
pET-katE	pETDuet-1 with E. coli katE inserted into the Mfel and AvrII sites	This study
pET-katE(H128A)	pETDuet-1 with katE(H128A) inserted into the Mfel and Avril sites	This study
pET-sodA	pETDuet-1 with E. coli sodA inserted into the Ascl and Notl sites	This study
pET-sodB	pETDuet-1 with E. coli sodB inserted into the AscI and NotI sites	This study
pET-sodA-katE	pET-sodA with katE inserted into the MfeI and AvrII sites	This study
pET-sodA-katE(H128A)	pET-sodA with katE(H128A) inserted into the Mfel and AvrII sites	This study
pET-sodB-katE	pET-sodB with katE inserted into the Mfel and AvrII sites	This study
pET-sodB-katE(H128A)	pET-sodB with katE(H128A) inserted into the Mfel and AvrII sites	This study
pET-sodA(Q147E)-katE	pET-sodA-katE with sodA Gln-147 mutated to Glu	This study
pET-sodA(Q147E)-katE(H128A)	pET-sodA-katE(H128A) with sodA Gln-147 mutated to Glu	This study
pET-sodB(Q70E)-katE	pET-sodB-katE with sodB Gln-70 mutated to Glu	This study
pET-sodB(Q70E)-katE(H128A)	pET-sodB-katE(H128A) with sodB Gln-70 mutated to Glu	This study
pRSFD-IN	pRSFDuet-1 with S. cerevisiae INO1 inserted into the EcoRI and HindIII sites	Moon, Yoon, Lanza, et al., 2009

Table 2.1. *E. coli* strains and plasmids used in this chapter (cont.)



 $\sim 10^7$ 

Table *2.1.* **E.** coli strains and plasmids used in this chapter (cont.)



# Table 2.2. Oligonucleotides used in this chapter.

<sup>a</sup> Capital letters indicate restriction enzyme cut sites; underlining designates promoter sequence.

# **2.3.** Results

### **2.3.1.** ROS and MIOX

As previously noted, the impact of ROS on MIOX is unclear given the conflicting reports between endogenous and *in vitro* systems. To begin to understand the relationship between MIOX and ROS in our system, we examined the effect of scavenging enzymes on MIOX activity. Purified catalase and **SOD** were added to cell lysates and *in vitro* MIOX activity was measured (Table **2.3).** The addition of catalase led to a **60%** increase in activity, while **SOD** did not produce a significant change in the one hour assay period.



Measured MIOX Activity (nmol/min/mg)



same sample lysates were evaluated under all four conditions.

We also measured hydrogen peroxide levels in the culture supernatants of strains with and without *Miox* expression (denoted MIOX and EV, respectively) and in the presence and absence of the substrate MI (indicated **by** +MI and -MI). In general, hydrogen peroxide levels were slightly higher in *LG1458* (K strains) than in LG1460 (B strain), and they fell over the course of the fermentation in both strains (Figure 2.2). Cultures expressing *Miox* typically had lower levels than the empty vector (EV) control early in the fermentation but showed higher levels **by** the end of the fermentation. However, EV had lower cell density than MIOX beyond **6** hours, and the EV cell density decreased **by** the end of the experiment, while MIOX cell density remained constant (Figure **2.3).** There were no consistent differences between the +MI and **-MI** samples for LG1458, but LG1460 MIOX +MI showed higher hydrogen peroxide levels than -MI at both 48 and **72** hours.

t Strain LG1460 harboring plasmid pTrc-SUMO-MIOX was grown in LB with **60** mM MI, and quintuplicate cell pellet samples were taken at **13** hr. Lysates were supplemented with water, commercial purified bovine catalase, and/or *E.* coli Mn **SOD** prior to the one hour incubation step of the MIOX assay. **\*** P-values relative to the control were calculated using paired two-tailed student's t-tests with unequal variance. The



Figure 2.2. Supernatant hydrogen peroxide levels in *E. coli* expressing *Miox.* Strains **LG1458** and LG1460 harboring pRSFDuet-I ("EV") or **pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX ("MIOX")** were grown in LB with or without **60** mM MI  $("MI" and "+MI," respectively).$  Hydrogen peroxide levels were measured in the supernatant, and mean values  $\pm$ **SD** for triplicate samples are shown. P-values were calculated for unpaired two-tailed student's t-tests with unequal variance. In all cases, **\*** denotes **p < 0.05** for **+MI** samples relative to **-MI** samples for the same strain and time point, **\*\*** denotes **p <** *0.05* for **MIOX** samples relative to EV samples, and **\*\*\*** denotes **p** *<0.05* for both comparisons.



Figure **2.3.** Effect *of Miox* expression on biomass as measured **by** OD6oo. Strains **LG1458** and LG1460 harboring pRSFDuet-I ("EV") or **pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX** ("MIOX") were grown in LB with or without **60** mM MI ("-MI" and "+MI," respectively). Optical density was measured at  $600 \text{ nm } (\text{OD}_{600})$ , and mean values  $\pm$  SD for triplicate samples are shown.

### **2.3.2.** Overexpression of catalase

Given the higher hydrogen peroxide levels observed at late times in fermentations with *Miox* expression and substrate conversion, we then considered the impact of catalase overexpression *in vivo* on the production of glucuronic acid from MI. *E. coli katE* (KatE) and a catalytically inactive version *katE(H128A)* (KatE Mut; Obinger, Maj, Nicholls, **&** Loewen, **1997)** were compared. The strains with KatE had significantly increased glucuronic acid titers (Figure 2.4a). While **LG** 1458 produced higher absolute titers under all conditions, increasing KatE levels resulted in similar overall titer improvements relative to the control in both strains (1.9-fold in **LG1458** and 1.8-fold in LG1460). Surprisingly, overexpression of a catalytically inactive mutant *katE(H128A)* (KatE Mut) also improved titers, though the effect was larger in **LG1458** than in LG1460 (1.6-fold vs. 1.04-fold). These titer enhancements increased over the course of the fermentation for 1458 KatE, 1458 KatE Mut, and 1460 KatE.

These improvements in glucuronic acid titer were accompanied **by** similar enhancements in MIOX activity (Figure 2.4b). MIOX activity decreased over the course of the fermentation but was higher in LG1460 under all conditions. MIOX activity was higher when *katE* was overexpressed compared to the control in both strains at all time points, and the effect was largest at **72** hours (10.8-fold for **LG1458** and 3.8-fold for LG1460). LG1460 KatE retained an impressive **53%** of its 24 hour activity at the end of the fermentation, while **LG1458** KatE retained 12%. LG1460 KatE also showed increased soluble protein levels of MIOX at **72** hours relative to the control and KatE Mut (Figure *2.5).* KatE Mut had higher activity than the control in **LG1458** (up to 3.1-fold at **72** hours), but had a negative or neutral effect in LG1460 after 24 hours.



Figure 2.4. katE overexpression improves one-step conversion of MI to glucuronic acid. Strains LG1458 and LG1460 harboring **pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX** ("Control"), pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX-katE(H128A) ("KatE Mut"), or pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX-katE ("KatE") were grown in LB with **60** mM MI. Mean values + **SD** for quintuplicate samples are shown, and p-values were calculated for unpaired two-tailed student's t-tests with unequal variance. In all cases, **\*** denotes **p < 0.05** relative to Control for the same strain and time point, and **\*\*** denotes **p < 0.05** relative to both KatE Mut and Control. (a) Glucuronic acid titers. **(b)** MIOX activity in crude cell lysates. (c) Hydrogen peroxide concentrations in the supernatant.



Figure 2.5. *katE* overexpression increases MIOX soluble expression. Strain LG1460 harboring pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX ("Control"), pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX-katE(H128A) ("KatE Mut"), or pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX-katE ("KatE"), as well as LG1460 harboring pRSFDuet-1 and pETDuet-1 ("EV Control"), were grown in LB with **60** mM MI. Crude lysates for one sample each of the Control, KatE Mut, and KatE strains at 48 and **72** hours and one sample of the EV Control strain at 24 hours were run on an **SDS-PAGE** gel. The band corresponding to **SUMO-MIOX** (46 kDa) is indicated **by** the arrow. The band corresponding to KatE (84 kDa) was not easily distinguishable.

To verify that overexpression of catalase reduced hydrogen peroxide in the system, we measured hydrogen peroxide levels in the supernatant. *LG1458* had higher hydrogen peroxide levels that generally fell over the course of the fermentation, while **LG1460** had lower levels that were more stable with time (Figure 2.4c). Overexpression of *katE* dramatically reduced hydrogen peroxide for both strains and at all time points compared to the control **(68-85%** reduction), with the relative effect generally increasing with time. Interestingly, KatE Mut also reduced hydrogen peroxide concentrations at 24 and 48 hours, though the effect was smaller **(13-** **33%** reduction) and diminished with time. These effects were accompanied **by** modest increases in stationary phase OD600 for KatE and KatE Mut (Figure **2.6).**



Figure 2.6. *katE* overexpression increases biomass as measured by OD<sub>600</sub>. Strains LG1458 and LG1460 harboring pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX ("Control"), pRSFD-SUMO-MLOX-katE(H128A) ("KatE Mut"), or **pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX**katE ("KatE") were grown in LB with **60** mM MI. Optical density was measured at **600** nm **(OD600),** and mean values  $\pm$  SD for quintuplicate samples are shown.

We also tested the effect of KatE in the context of the full glucaric acid pathway (Figure **2.7).** Titers are significantly lower from glucose than from MI because MIPS competes with central carbon metabolism for glucose-6-phosphate, limiting substrate availability to MIOX. However, when expressed from low-copy pACYCDuet plasmids, *katE and katE(H128A)* corresponded to small but significant increases in glucaric acid titers. The negative effect of expression from high-copy pETDuet plasmids suggests a tradeoff between hydrogen peroxide scavenging and metabolic burden associated with gene expression.



Figure **2.7.** Effect *of katE* overexpression on glucaric acid production. Strain LG1460 harboring pACYCDuet-I or pETDuet-1 ("Control"), pACYC-katE(H128A) or pET-katE(H128A) ("KatE Mut"), or pACYC-katE or pET-katE ("KatE") were grown in LB with **60** mM MI. Mean values **SD** for triplicate samples are shown. P-values were calculated for unpaired two-tailed student's t-tests with unequal variance, and **\*** denotes **p < 0.05** relative to Control for the same plasmid backbone and time point, \*\* denotes **p <** *0.05* relative to KatE Mut, and \*\*\* denotes **p** *< 0.05* relative to both Control and KatE Mut.

## **2.3.3.** Overexpression of SODs

While we did not observe an increase in MIOX activity with exogenous **SOD** addition, we still proceeded to evaluate the impact of overexpression of *sodA and sodB in vivo* in LG1460. The MIOX mechanism likely includes both superoxo and hydroperoxo intermediates,<sup>62</sup> and negative effects of superoxide could be present in the cell without particular damage to MIOX itself. SodA and SodB are both cytoplasmic SODs, but SodA employs a manganese cofactor whereas SodB uses an iron cofactor.<sup>112</sup> Expression of catalytically inactive versions of each gene, sodA(Q147E) and sodB(Q70E),<sup>113,114</sup> was also included. Consistent with our previous findings, the presence of KatE substantially improved titers (Figure **2.8).** While the effect of **SOD** was less pronounced than that of catalase, all strains overexpressing either *sodA or sodB* outperformed the empty vector control. Moreover, strains overexpressing *sodA or sodB* outperformed their counterparts expressing *sodA(Q147E) or sodB(Q70E),* though the effect was more pronounced for *sodA.* However, overexpression of both SodB and KatE resulted in the

highest titers of all cases tested, achieving a 2.6-fold increase over the control as well as a **7%** increase over KatE alone. As before, titer improvements generally increased over the course of the fermentation.



Figure **2.8. SOD** overexpression further improves glucuronic acid production. Strain **LG** 1460 harboring **pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX** and pETDuet-l or a derivative thereof was grown in LB with **60** mM MI. Glucuronic acid titers were measured, and mean values **SD** for triplicate samples are shown. P-values were calculated for unpaired twotailed student's t-tests with unequal variance. (a) Glucuronic acid titers for *sodA* overexpression, both with and without katE overexpression. "Control" refers to pETDuet-1, "KatE" to pET-katE, "SodA" to pET-sodA, "KatE Mut SodA Mut" to pET-sodA(Q147E)-katE(H128A), "KatE SodA Mut" to pET-sodA(Q147E)-katE, "KatE Mut SodA" to pET-sodA-katE(H128A), and "KatE SodA" to pET-sodA-katE. **All** strains at all time points yielded higher titers than the control **(p** *< 0.05),* and strains with plasmids containing both *sodA and katE* genes, whether active or mutant, performed better than that with  $sodA$  alone  $(p < 0.05)$ . In addition, strains with plasmids containing *katE* performed better than their counterparts with  $k \alpha t E(H128A)$  ( $p < 0.01$ ). On the plot, \* denotes  $p <$ **0.05** for comparisons of *sodA to sodA(Q147E)* (SodA KatE Mut vs. SodA Mut KatE Mut and SodA KatE vs. SodA Mut KatE) at the same time point. **(b)** Glucuronic acid titers for *sodB* overexpression, both with and without *kaE* overexpression. "Control" refers to pETDuet-1, "KatE" to pET-katE, "SodB" to pET-sodB, "KatE Mut SodB Mut" to pET-sodB(Q70E)-katE(H128A), "KatE SodB Mut" to pET-sodB(Q70E)-katE, "KatE Mut SodB" to pET-sodB**katE(H128A),** and "KatE SodB" to pET-sodB-katE. **All** strains at time points later than 12 hours yielded higher titers than the control **(p < 0.005),** and strains with plasmids containing both *sodB and katE* genes, whether active or mutant, performed better than that with *sodB* alone ( $p < 0.05$ ). In addition, strains with plasmids containing *katE* performed better than their counterparts with *katE(H28A) (p* **< 0.005).** On the plot, **\*** denotes **p < 0.05** for comparisons of *sodB to sodB(Q70E)* (SodB KatE Mut vs. SodB Mut KatE Mut and SodB KatE vs. SodB Mut KatE) at the same time point, and \*\* indicates titers above that of the strain containing  $k \alpha t E$  alone with  $p \le 0.01$ .



Figure **2.9.** Effect of **SOD** overexpression on hydrogen peroxide levels. Strain LG1460 harboring **pRSFD-SUMO-**MIOX and pETDuet-1 or a derivative thereof was grown in LB with **60** mM MI. Hydrogen peroxide concentrations **in** the supernatant were measured, and mean values **SD** for triplicate samples are shown. P-values were calculated for unpaired two-tailed student's t-tests with unequal variance. (a) Hydrogen peroxide levels for for *sodA* overexpression, both with and without *katE* overexpression. "Control" refers to pETDuet-1, "KatE" to pET-katE, "SodA" to pET-sodA, "KatE Mut SodA Mut" to pET-sodA(Q147E)-katE(H128A), "KatE SodA Mut" to **pET**sodA(Q147E)-katE, "KatE Mut SodA" to pET-sodA-katE(H128A), and "KatE SodA" to pET-sodA-katE. Strains with plasmids containing *katE* had lower hydrogen peroxide levels than their counterparts with *katE(H128A) (p* **<** *0.005).* On the plot, **\*** denotes **p** *< 0.05* for comparisons of *sodA to sodA(Q147E)* (SodA KatE Mut vs. SodA Mut KatE Mut and SodA KatE vs. SodA Mut KatE) at the same time point. **(b)** Hydrogen peroxide levels for *sodB* overexpression, both with and without *katE* overexpression. "Control" refers to pETDuet-l, "KatE" to pET-katE, "SodB" to pET-sodB, "KatE Mut SodB Mut" to pET-sodB(Q70E)-katE(H128A), "KatE SodB Mut" to **pET**sodB(Q70E)-katE, "KatE Mut SodB" to pET-sodB-katE(H128A), and "KatE SodB" to pET-sodB-katE. Strains with plasmids containing *katE* performed better than their counterparts with *katE(H128A) (p < 0.005).* On the plot, **\*** denotes **p** *<0.05* for comparisons of *sodB to sodB(Q70E)* (SodB KatE Mut vs. SodB Mut KatE Mut and SodB KatE vs. SodB Mut KatE) at the same time point, **\*\*** indicates **p** *< 0.05* for comparisons of *sodB or sodB(Q70E) to sodA or sodA (Q147E),* respectively, and **\*\*\*** denotes **p <** *0.05* for both comparisons.



Figure 2.10. Effect of SOD overexpression on biomass as measured by OD<sub>600</sub>. Strain LG1460 harboring pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX and pETDuet-1 or a derivative thereof was grown in LB with **60 mM Ml.** Optical density was measured at  $600 \text{ nm}$  ( $OD_{600}$ ), and mean values  $\pm$  SD for triplicate samples are shown. P-values were calculated for unpaired two-tailed student's t-tests with unequal variance. (a) Hydrogen peroxide levels for for *sodA* overexpression, both with and without *katE* overexpression. "Control" refers to pETDuet-1, "KatE" to pET-katE, "SodA" to pET-sodA, "KatE Mut SodA Mut" to pET-sodA(Q147E)-katE(H128A), "KatE SodA Mut" to **pET**sodA(Q147E)-katE, "KatE Mut SodA" to pET-sodA-katE(H128A), and "KatE SodA" to pET-sodA-katE. **(b)** Hydrogen peroxide levels for *sodB* overexpression, both with and without *katE* overexpression. "Control" refers to pETDuet-1, "KatE" to pET-katE, "SodB" to pET-sodB, "KatE Mut SodB Mut" to pET-sodB(Q70E)-katE(H128A), "KatE SodB Mut" to pET-sodB(Q70E)-katE, "KatE Mut SodB" to pET-sodB-katE(H128A), and "KatE SodB" to pET-sodB-katE.

Hydrogen peroxide levels were also measured for these cultures (Figure **2.9).** While increasing KatE again substantially reduced hydrogen peroxide levels, the effects of the SODs were comparatively small. Cultures without overexpressed *katE* had higher hydrogen peroxide levels than the control at 48 and **72** hours, and SodB and SodB Mut samples had slightly higher levels than SodA and SodA Mut ones at the end of the fermentation. Higher hydrogen peroxide levels generally corresponded to higher cell densities (Figure **2.10),** but the differences noted above largely persisted in normalized data (not shown). We also attempted to measure MIOX activity, but activities were low and became undetectable **by** 48 hours (data not shown). Overall, SodB improved titers more than SodA, and SodB Mut KatE performed markedly better than SodA Mut KatE.

### 2.3.4. Addition of iron chelators

The improved performance seen with both KatE Mut and SodB Mut led us to suspect that labile iron levels may also be important in our system. Both mutant enzymes have been shown to retain their bound iron cofactor.<sup>111,114</sup> To test this hypothesis, chemical iron chelator supplementation was used to assess the effect of reducing labile iron levels on glucuronic acid titers. We considered four chelators with different cell permeability and metal binding selectivity characteristics: one cell-permeable and favoring  $Fe^{3+}$  binding (deferoxamine), <sup>115</sup> two cell-permeable and favoring  $Fe^{2+}$  binding (2,2'-bipyridine and 1,10-phenanthroline),<sup>78,116,117</sup> and one cell-impermeable (DTPA).<sup>118</sup> We determined appropriate concentration ranges for each chelator **by** serial dilution until growth impairment was no longer evident. We observed a significant increase in glucuronic acid titers for deferoxamine and **1, 1** 0-phenanthroline, and this benefit was most pronounced later in the fermentation (Figure **2.11).** Addition of deferoxamine resulted in the largest titer increases at the end of the fermentation, but it also significantly decreased titers at 12 and 24 hours.



Figure **2.11.** Iron chelator supplementation improves glucuronic acid titers. Strain LG1460 harboring **pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX** was grown in LB with **60** mM MI and supplemented with iron chelators at the indicated concentrations. Glucuronic acid titers were measured, and mean values  $\pm$  SD for triplicate samples are shown. Pvalues were calculated for unpaired two-tailed student's t-tests with unequal variance, and **\*** denotes **p <** *0.05* relative to the no chelator control at the same time point.

### 2.4. Discussion

2.4.1. ROS measurement methods

Studying ROS in cells is challenging because many detection and diagnostic methods are nonspecific and subject to interference **by** unrelated phenomena. <sup>11</sup>9-121 Here, we employed overexpression of enzymes specific to particular reactive oxygen species and selective measurement of hydrogen peroxide via horseradish peroxidase and Amplex red. Direct measurement of ROS levels was restricted to measurement of extracellular hydrogen peroxide due to limitations of ROS probes. Unlike superoxide and hydroxyl radicals, hydrogen peroxide is relatively stable in culture media, and elevated intracellular concentrations that exceed a cell's scavenging capacity are reflected in elevated extracellular concentrations.<sup>121-124</sup>

## 2.4.2. Selection of scavenging strategies

The addition of purified catalase improved *in vitro* MIOX activity of crude lysates, consistent with reports that hydrogen peroxide inhibits the enzyme<sup>66,67</sup> and suggesting that hydrogen peroxide levels present in the system may affect performance. The lower initial supernatant hydrogen peroxide levels observed in the presence of overexpressed *Miox* could be a result of induction of *E. coli* ROS scavenging systems, similar to the induction seen in rice.<sup>70</sup> However, this potential scavenging appears to be less effective at late times in the fermentation, particularly in LG1460. It is also notable that the measured hydrogen peroxide levels are so high. Growth defects in *E. coli* are evident at hydrogen peroxide concentrations of 0.4  $\mu$ M.<sup>86</sup> and we measured a maximum concentration of 4.1  $\mu$ M for EV samples and 2.9  $\mu$ M for MIOX samples. While the measured supernatant concentrations are not necessarily equivalent to intracellular concentrations, the hydrogen peroxide levels observed both in the presence and absence of MIOX are clearly a potential cause for concern.

In selecting strategies to improve ROS scavenging capacity in *E. coli,* we focused on catalases and SODs to directly address elevated levels of hydrogen peroxide and superoxide. We also hoped that scavenging these two species would help reduce the formation of the especially damaging hydroxyl radical **by** limiting the Fenton reaction and the Haber Weiss cycle. Catalases are efficient scavengers of hydrogen peroxide at high concentrations and are thus well-suited to supplement native antioxidant capacity. While cells also use several other hydrogen peroxidespecific scavenging enzymes and systems, they ultimately require reducing power, consuming additional cellular resources and potentially upsetting redox balance.<sup>76,91</sup> SODs are the only known enzymes in *E. coli* that scavenge superoxide, and they also do not require reducing power.<sup>125</sup> While antioxidant supplementation of culture media has shown some promise in mitigating oxidative stress, we did not consider that strategy here due to the expense, possible prooxidant rather than antioxidant effects,  $102$  and likely limited potential benefit for bacteria.<sup>119</sup>

*E. coli* has at least two catalases, encoded **by** *katE and katG.* KatE is a typical monofunctional catalase, while KatG is a bifunctional catalase-peroxidase.<sup>126</sup> Both enzymes have high catalytic efficiencies ( $k_{cat}/K_M \sim 10^6 M^{-1} s^{-1}$ ).<sup>76</sup> *katG* is part of the OxyR regulon that is induced under oxidative stress, while *katE* is commonly expressed in stationary phase.<sup>126</sup> We chose to overexpress *katE* to minimize disruption to native metabolism and regulation.

*E. coli* contains at least three SODs, encoded **by** *socA, sodB, and sodC.* SodA and SodB are cytoplasmic, while SodC is periplasmic.<sup>125</sup> SodA and SodB are highly homologous, share the same active site sequence, and have similar kinetics. **127-129** The genes are also differentially regulated. Fur represses *sodA* but activates *sodB* when iron is available, and SoxR upregulates *socA* in response to redox stress. 119 130 The cytoplasmic SODs *socA and sodB* were both selected for this work because each is likely to impact native regulation differently, and it has been suggested that the two enzymes may not be functionally equivalent. <sup>129</sup> The SODs were expressed both alone and in combination with catalase since the **SOD** reaction generates hydrogen peroxide.

# 2.4.3. Effect of ROS scavengers on MIOX performance

In our system, catalase overexpression appears to improve production of glucuronic acid largely **by** helping to maintain soluble expression and activity of MIOX over time. While MIOX activity still decreased over the course of the fermentation, as previously observed, <sup>63</sup> strains overexpressing *katE* produced the largest gains in titers, MIOX soluble protein, and MIOX activity at later time points. These results are consistent with the activity benefit seen from exogenous addition of catalase to crude lysates and the known hydrogen peroxide sensitivity of the enzyme.

Slight differences in behavior were observed between the two strains tested. **LG** 1458 (K strain) produced higher glucuronic acid titers, and LG1460 (B strain) generally reaped more benefit from KatE, as reflected in titer, activity, and biomass data. However, **LG1458** was associated with higher hydrogen peroxide concentrations and showed more benefit from KatE Mut. Literature results conflict with respect to strain differences in antioxidant capacity, with some reports suggesting *E. coli* K strains have higher capacity than B strains<sup>131,132</sup> and another showing the opposite.<sup>133</sup> Our results do not fully support either conclusion and instead suggest that scavenging capacity may differ between ROS species.

When catalase overexpression was tested in the context of the full glucaric acid pathway, a small but significant benefit was detected when *katE* was expressed from low-copy pACYCDuet vectors, but no improvement was seen for *katE* expressed from high-copy pETDuet vectors. This suggests that metabolic burden is significant when many genes are overexpressed.

In addition, this result indicates that tuning the expression level of *katE* is likely required to produce optimal results.

The smaller effect of **SOD** overexpression relative to catalase overexpression suggests that hydrogen peroxide impacts performance more than superoxide. However, SODs do still boost glucuronic acid titers, indicating that their benefit outweighs their protein production cost. Because the **SOD** reaction produces hydrogen peroxide, we expected that SODs would perform best when catalase was also overexpressed. This is indeed what is observed for SodA. However, SodB performs similarly in both the presence and absence of catalase overexpression. Because there was no observed benefit from exogenous **SOD** addition for *in vitro* MIOX activity, the small increase in titers from overexpression of **SOD** *in vivo* may be due to differences in superoxide between the *in vitro and in vivo* conditions or to systemic effects of superoxide that do not directly impact MIOX.

Overexpression of genes for catalytically inactive enzymes was intended to help correct for the increased burden associated with protein overexpression, and the significant positive effect of KatE(H128A) and SodB(Q70E) was unexpected. However, while these mutations destroy activity, iron cofactor binding is retained. This suggests that KatE and SodB **-** both catalytically active and inactive versions **-** may function to sequester labile iron. The similar boost in glucuronic acid titers observed upon addition of cell-permeable chemical iron chelators deferoxamine and 1,10-phenanthroline confirmed that iron sequestration is effective in the system. Both  $Fe^{2+}$ -selective and  $Fe^{3+}$ -selective chelators improved performance. Iron is tightly regulated in living systems because it is essential for life but also has the potential to promote hydroxyl radical formation.<sup>89,134</sup> Both catalase and iron-sequestering proteins are upregulated via the OxyR regulon in response to oxidative stress in *E. coli,'7* and this native response appears to be insufficient for optimal production of glucuronic acid. However, directly tuning iron levels can also trigger iron starvation, and we indeed see negative effects from deferoxamine early in the fermentation. Further work to optimize labile iron levels may yield valuable tools to reduce damage from hydroxyl radicals.

Oxidative stress has become a common problem in metabolic engineering, and the strategy outlined here for its relief is general and could be applied to other pathways and organisms. Catalases and SODs are efficient enzymes that can be employed to address hydrogen peroxide and superoxide stress from any source. Moreover, the approach is applicable to other

organisms. The well-characterized **E.** *coli* enzymes used here may be suitable for use in other hosts, but homologous scavengers of ROS are also present across all kingdoms of life. Among the many hydrogen peroxide scavenging enzymes, typical catalases like KatE are the most abundant in nature.<sup>126</sup> Similarly, Fe-SODs like SodB are the most abundant scavengers of superoxide. $135$ 

#### **2.5.** Conclusions

The performance of MIOX in **E.** *coli* was shown to be affected **by** ROS, and a systematic approach was used to alleviate oxidative stress. Catalase and **SOD** overexpression led to increased biomass, MIOX activity, and glucuronic acid titers. The beneficial effect of ROS scavenging increased with fermentation time and corresponded to maintenance of soluble MIOX expression and activity. Alone, catalase had a larger impact than SODs, but the highest titers were produced when both were overexpressed. The addition of iron chelators and overexpression of iron-binding proteins also improved performance, suggesting labile iron levels contribute to ROS damage. The strategies used here to supplement native ROS scavenging capacity substantially improved glucuronic acid production and are in principle adaptable to a wide range of other metabolic pathways and organisms.

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# **3.** Leveraging Sequence Networks to Identify Improved MIPS Enzymes

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# **Abstract**

The MIPS enzyme (INO1 in *S. cerevisiae*) appears to limit glucaric acid pathway flux due to its competition with central carbon metabolism for its substrate, glucose-6-phosphate. Many putative MIPS enzymes have been identified, and we aimed to leverage this natural diversity to help identify improved homologs. Thirty-one diverse MIPS enzymes were selected from a sequence similarity network for Pfam family **PF01658. Of** these **31** sequences, **19** produced detectible MI production when expressed with an N-terminal polyhistidine tag. One homolog, *H. contortus* (Hc31) MIPS, performed as well as or better than **INO1** under most experimental conditions. Several eukaryotic and prokaryotic enzymes also had significantly higher activity than **INO1.** However, stable enzyme expression and thermostability appears to be a challenge. While statistical power to determine important sequence features was limited because of the small number of experimentally validated sequences, this work provides guidance for further exploration of the MIPS network.

# **3.1. Introduction**

Making bioprocesses economically competitive often requires developing better enzymes to catalyze reactions of interest. Directed evolution is a powerful and well-utilized tool in metabolic engineering to improve an enzyme from a template sequence. However, sequence spaces are vast and can be difficult to navigate, even **by** directed evolution." Utilizing natural protein diversity can provide an alternative or complementary approach. Nature has already produced many sequences that can perform the same reactions, and using this information wisely can reduce the screening effort and allow for more exploration in sequence space.

However, extracting useful information from protein databanks is challenging. As discussed in Section **1.3.1,** databases are growing exponentially, and the vast majority of sequences have not been functionally validated. In addition, deposited protein sequences may contain errors from sequencing or miscalled introns, and automatic protein classification algorithms are imperfect. Moreover, making effective use of large or diverse sets of proteins is difficult without testing large numbers of sequences. An inherent tradeoff exists between leveraging sequence diversity and obtaining useful structural information. Proteins that are diverse have many amino acid differences, which makes pinpointing particular structure-function relationships challenging.

While most engineering work in the glucaric pathway to date has focused on the MIOX enzyme due to its low activity and stability, MIPS also appears to limit pathway performance. MIOX has already been the subject of a directed evolution study, $63$  and a bioprospecting effort to identify improved homologs is ongoing.<sup>136</sup> However, there has been comparatively little focus on MIPS, which also has relatively low activity in the pathway.59 MIPS competes with glycolysis and the pentose phosphate pathway for its substrate, glucose-6-phosphate, and elimination of flux to the pentose phosphate pathway and dynamic downregulation of glycolysis improves glucaric acid production.<sup>14,74,137</sup> Improvement of MIPS may thus allow it to better compete with endogenous pathways.

MIPS is not naturally present in **E.** *coli,* but it is widely conserved throughout all branches of life.<sup>138</sup> Its mechanism and key catalytic residues have been well-studied <sup>139,140</sup>, a few homologs have been crystallized,<sup>139,141-143</sup> and conserved sequence stretches have been identified.<sup>144,145</sup> Eukaryotic sequences are relatively similar, while prokaryotic and archaea sequences have significantly more variability.<sup>144</sup> In addition, eukaryotic sequences are longer

than their prokaryotic and archaeal counterparts, though the lengths of these sequence insertions vary, and their function is not well known.<sup>140</sup> In general, while there has been interest in the phylogeny of MIPS enzymes, the functional differences between homologs are still not well understood.

Sequence similarity networks (SSNs) are a relatively new tool that display pairwise alignments (edges) between sequences (nodes), grouping more similar sequences into clusters. **A** simple example **SSN** is shown in Figure **3.1.** Increasing the stringency of the threshold value applied to pairwise alignments prunes edges in the network, breaking apart existing clusters into subclusters containing more similar sequences. SSNs reduce sequence information to an intuitive two-dimensional format and allow orthogonal information to be overlaid on the network through node and edge properties.<sup>146</sup> In addition, they are faster to generate, can accommodate larger sets of sequences, and are easier to visualize than more traditional tools like multiple alignments and phylogenetic trees.<sup>146</sup> SSNs have been used to clarify differences in specificity and function within large superfamilies of proteins.  $37,147,148$  They have also been used to provide helpful context for identifying the function of unknown proteins and prospecting for new functions.<sup>146</sup>



Increasing Pairwise Similarity Threshold

Figure **3.1.** Effect of pairwise alignment threshold value on example **SSN.** As the threshold for similarity increases (i.e. as alignment score increases or the E-value decreases), the network breaks apart into smaller subclusters of more similar sequences. This figure was adapted from Atkinson et al., **2009.**

SSNs may also be helpful in identifying improved enzyme homologs for metabolic engineering applications. In this work, we employed SSNs as a primary tool to aid in categorizing and grouping putative MIPS sequences to efficiently explore natural sequence diversity.

### **3.2. Materials and Methods**

**3.2.1.** Sequence Similarity Network Generation and Visualization

Sequence similarity networks were generated using the University of Illinois Enzyme Function Initiative's Enzyme Similarity Tool (EFI-EST)<sup>149</sup> using the MIPS Pfam family **PF01658,** sometimes supplemented with additional user-supplied sequences (see Section 3.3.4). The resulting networks were visualized in Cytoscape.<sup>150</sup>

### **3.2.2.** Strains and Plasmids

The *E. coli* strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table **3.1.** Primers used for construction are listed in Table B. **1.** *E. coli* strain DH5a was used for molecular cloning and plasmid preparation. The *E. coli* strain used for all MIPS screening was LG1460, constructed as described in Chapter 2.

The plasmids **pRSFD-IN, pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX,** and pRSFD-IN-opt were previously constructed in the Prather lab 59,63. The initial set of **31** MIPS genes used in this work were obtained from the Joint Genome Institute **(JGI)** through the Community Science Program and were codon-optimized for *S. cerevisiae.* These gene sequences are listed in Table B.2.

Plasmids containing these MIPS genes were constructed **by** circular polymerase extension cloning **(CPEC;** Quan **&** Tian, **2009),** using primers **LG123** and LG124 to amplify the pRSFDuet-1 backbone. The primers used to amplify the MIPS genes are as follows: **LG125** and **LG126** *(T maritima),* **LG127** and **LG128** *(A. fulgidus),* **LG129** and *LG130 (M tuberculosis),* **LG131** and **LG132** *(A. thaliana),* **LG149** and *LG150 (A. clavatus), LG133* and **LG134** *(B. thetaiotaomicron), LG* **151** and **LG** *152 (C. glabrata), LG* **153** and **LG** *154 (C. orthopsilosis),* **LG135** and **LG136** *(C. halotolerans), LG155* and **LG156** *(D. squalens),* **LG137** and **LG138** *(D. melanogaster), LG139* and **LG140** *(G. vaginalis), LG141* and **LG142** *(H. sapiens), LG157* and **LG158** *(M australicum), LG159* and **LG160** *(M psychrophilus),* **LG161** and **LG162** *(M paludis), LG163* and **LG164** *(N. nova), LG165* and **LG166** *(P. ramorum), LG143* and **LG144** *(P. buccae),* **LG145** and **LG146** *(S. indicum),* **LG167** and **LG168** *(S. thermophilus), LG169* and **LG170** *(S. cattleya), LG171* and **LG172** *(T eurythermalis),* **LG147** and **LG148** *(V. radiata),* **LG173** and **LG174** *(Z bailii), LG175* and **LG176** *(N. maritimus), LG177* and **LG178** *(M thermautrophicus),* **LG179** and **LG180** *(T. albus), LG181* and **LG182** *(B. mycoides), LG183* and **LG184** *(Bradyrhizobium sp.),* and **LG185** and **LG186** *(H. contortus).* The resulting plasmids

were named using an abbreviation for the organism from which MIPS originated and a number referring to the order of the MIPS genes in the shipment (ex. pRSFD-Tm 1-MIPS).

The original **pRSFD-IN** and pRSFD-IN-opt plasmids had the **INOI** gene out of frame with the polyhistidine (His) tag on the pRSFDuet-1 backbone, so equivalent in-frame versions were created to allow protein purification. pRSFD-His-IN and pRSFD-His-IN-opt were created in the Prather lab **by** removing the start codon of **INO** 1 to put the protein back in frame with the His tag.

Analogous plasmids containing the MIPS genes in frame with the pRSFDuet-l His tag were constructed **by CPEC.** Primers **LG123** and **LG124** were used to amplify the pRSFD-His-IN backbone. MIPS genes were amplified from the pRSFDuet-derived plasmids described above. The primers used to amplify the MIPS genes are as follows: **LG220** and **LG126** *(T. maritima),* **LG221** and **LG128** *(A.fulgidus),* **LG222** and **LG130** *(M tuberculosis),* **LG223** and **LG132** *(A. thaliana),* LG224 and *LG150 (A. clavatus),* **LG225** and **LG134** *(B. thetaiotaomicron),* **LG226** and **LG** *152 (C. glabrata),* **LG227** and **LG** *154 (C. orthopsilosis),* **LG228** and **LG136** *(C. halotolerans),* **LG229** and *LG156 (D. squalens), LG230* and **LG138** *(D. melanogaster),* **LG231** and LG140 *(G. vaginalis),* **LG232** and LG142 *(H. sapiens),* **LG233** and *LG158 (M australicum),* LG234 and **LG160** *(M. psychrophilus), LG235* and **LG162** *(M paludis),* **LG236** and **LG164** *(N. nova),* **LG237** and **LG166** *(P. ramorum),* **LG238** and **LG144** *(P. buccae),* **LG23 9** and **LG** 146 *(S. indicum),* LG240 and **LG 168** *(S. thermophilus),* LG241 and **LG170** *(S. cattleya),* LG242 and **LG 172** *(T. eury'thermalis),* LG243 and **LG148** *(V. radiata),* LG244 and **LG174** *(Z bailii), LG245* and **LG176** *(N. maritimus),* LG246 and **LG178** *(M thermautrophicus),* LG247 and **LG 180** *(T. albus),* LG248 and **LG182** *(B. mycoides),* LG249 and **LG** 184 *(Bradyrhizobium sp.),* and **LG250** and **LG 186** *(H. contortus).* These resulting plasmids were named to indicate the presence of the in-frame N-terminal His tag (ex. pRSFD-His-TmI-**MIPS).**

N-terminal small ubiquitin-related modifier **(SUMO)** protein fusions were created for a subset of the MIPS genes **by CPEC.** Primers **LG123** and **LG251** were used to amplify the **pRSFD-SUMO-MIOX** backbone. MIPS genes were amplified from the His-tagged plasmids described above. The primers used to amplify the MIPS genes are as follows: **LG253** and **LG252** *(INO1),* LG254 and **LG252** *(T maritima),* **LG255** and **LG252** *(A. thaliana),* **LG256** and **LG252** *(H. sapiens),* **LG257** and **LG252** *(S. indicum),* **LG258** and **LG252** (Z *bailii),* and *LG259* and **LG252** *(H. contortus).* The resulting plasmids were named to indicate the presence of the **N**terminal **SUMO** tag (ex. pRSFD-SUMO-Tml-MIPS).

**A** subset of the MIPS genes were codon-optimized for *E. coli* using Thermo Fisher's GeneArt GeneOptimizer tool.<sup>152</sup> The genes were designed to include in-frame N-terminal His tags and to avoid the EcoRI and HindII restriction sites intended for construction. The *A. thaliana, B. thetaiotaomicron, C. glabrata, M psychrophilus, S. indicum, and H. contortus MIPS* sequences used are included in Table B.3. The pRSFDuet-l plasmid and the optimized MIPS gene inserts were each digested with EcoRI and HindIII and ligated. The resulting plasmids were named to indicate the presence of the N-terminal His tag as well as the *E. coli* codon optimization (ex. pRSFD-His-At4-MIPS-opt).

Finally, selected single amino acid mutations were introduced to pRSFD-His-IN, **pRSFD-**His-At4-MIPS-opt, and pRSFD-His-Prl8-MIPS **by** amplifying the appropriate plasmid using primers designed using Agilent's QuikChange primer design web tool.<sup>108</sup> The following primers were used with pRSFD-His-IN: **LG271** and **LG272** to create pRSFD-His-IN(V82M), **LG273** and LG274 to create pRSFD-His-IN(A83G), **LG279** and **LG280** to create pRSFD-His-IN(Nl41D), *LG275* and **LG276** to create pRSFD-His-IN(Y250F), and **LG277** and **LG278** to create **pRSFD-**His-IN(V413R). With pRSFD-His-At4-MIPS-opt, primers **LG281** and **LG282** were used to create pRSFD-His-At4-MIPS(A79G)-opt, and primers **LG283** and LG284 were used to create pRSFD-His-At4-MIPS(D146N)-opt. Primers **LG285** and **LG286** were used with pRSFD-His-Pr18-MIPS to create pRSFD-His-Pr18-MIPS(F234Y).

Verification of all Duet vector constructs was performed using primers **LG73** and LG74. These were supplemented with **LG266** and **LG280** for verification of some of the pRSFD-His-IN mutations and with **LG206** for verification of the pRSFD-His-Prl **8-MIPS** mutation.

# **3.2.3.** Culture Conditions

Strains were grown in 1 mL of medium in 48-well flower plates (m2p-labs, Baesweiler, Germany) at **30'C** or **370C** and 1200 rpm. Strains were grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) media supplemented with glucose (Sigma-Aldrich). Working cultures were inoculated from overnight cultures at a dilution of 1:20, induced with  $100 \mu M$  isopropyl  $\beta$ -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG), and supplemented with kanamycin *(50* pg/mL) as required.

### 3.2.4. Measurement of MIPS Activity and Expression Level

For MIPS activity assays, cell pellets were taken from *750* p1L of culture media at 48 hr after inoculation, washed twice in Tris-acetate buffer *(0.5* M, **pH 7.2),** and resuspended in 200 **pL** B-PER (supplied in Tris buffer; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) supplemented with an EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche Applied Science). Lysates were prepared **by** shaking at room temperature for **15** min followed **by** centrifugation, and total soluble protein was measured using a **BCA** assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). MIPS activity was measured in crude lysates as previously described.<sup>59</sup> by the conversion of glucose-6-phosphate to *myo*inositol- 1-phosphate (MI-I -P) followed **by** release of inorganic phosphate (Pi) using sodium periodate. Activity was corrected using a no substrate control. **A** no periodate control was also tested, but we found little difference between the periodate and no periodate samples. We subsequently verified that periodate releases  $P_i$  from added *myo*-inositol-1-phosphate (Sigma-Aldrich), whereas lysate released little  $P_i$  from  $m\nu$ o-inositol-1-phosphate. This might suggest that there was little MIPS activity, but our lysates produced significant Pi from **G6P** as compared to controls without lysate. We therefore show relative measured activity for samples with periodate. Activity was normalized **by** the total protein concentration.

For analysis of MIPS expression levels, 15  $\mu$ g of total protein for each lysate was separated **by SDS-PAGE** using a **10%** polyacrylamide gel (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, **CA)** and transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane via wet electroblotting. Membranes were blocked overnight in *5%* milk at 4'C then incubated at room temperature for 2 hours in a **1:250** dilution of anti-His antibody conjugated to HRP (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, **CA).** Immunodetection was performed using Western Blotting Luminol Reagent (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The sum of pixel intensities (volume) for each band was measured and normalized to lane total protein using Bio-Rad's Image Lab software.<sup>153</sup>

# *3.2.5.* Measurement of Extracellular Metabolites

Glucose, MI, and acetate concentrations in culture supernatant samples were quantified **by** high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) on an Agilent 1200 series instrument (Santa Clara, **CA)** with an Aminex HPX-87H anion exchange column **(300** mm **by 7.8** mm; Bio-Rad Laboratories) using *5* mM sulfuric acid at a flow rate **0.6** mL/min as the mobile phase. The

column and refractive index detector temperatures were held at 45'C and **35'C,** respectively. Compounds were quantified from  $10 \mu$ L injections using the refractive index signal.

# **3.2.6.** MIPS Sequence Analysis

Multiple alignments of MIPS sequences were obtained using PROMALS3D,<sup>154</sup> using PDB structures **3QVS,** IGRO, IPlI, **3CIN,** and 1VKO. **A** phylogenetic tree was constructed using FastTree<sup>155</sup> and visualized in Archaeopteryx.<sup>156</sup> Python scripts for determining the number of differences in a given set of amino acid residue positions indexed with respect to a particular MIPS sequence and the amino acid identities of those differences from a given multiple alignment are included in Appendix B.2.1 and B.2.2, respectively. The amino acid positions used are listed in Table B.4. These include conserved amino acid positions from literature<sup>144,145</sup> as well as residues near the **INO1** active site (PDB 1RM0),<sup>139</sup> as determined using PyMol.<sup>157</sup> For analysis of sequence differences, residues of similar size, hydropathy index, and chemistry were grouped according to their IMGT classes. <sup>158</sup>





<b>Name</b>	Genotype <sup>a,b</sup>	<b>Source</b>
<b>Plasmids</b>		
pRSFD-Hs13-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with H. sapiens MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Ma14-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with M. australicum MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Mps15-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with M. psychrophilus MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Mpa16-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with M. paludis MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Nn17-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with N. nova MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Pr18-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with P. ramorum MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Pb19-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with P. buccae MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Si20-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with S. indicum MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-St21-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with S. thermophilus MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Sc22-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with S. cattleya MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Te23-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with T. eurythermalis MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Vr24-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with V. radiata MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Zb25-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with Z. bailii MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Nm26-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with N. maritimus MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Mth27-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with M. thermautrophicus MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Ta28-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with T. albus MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Bm29-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with B. mycoides MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-B30-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with Bradyrhizobium sp. MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-Hc31-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with H. contortus MIPS <sup>a</sup>	This study
pRSFD-His-Tm1-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with T. maritima MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Af2-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with A. fulgidus MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study

Table 3.1. *E. coli* strains and plasmids used in this chapter (cont.)

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<b>Name</b>	Genotype <sup>a,b</sup>	<b>Source</b>
<b>Plasmids</b>		
pRSFD-His-Mtu3-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with M. tuberculosis MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-At4-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with A. thaliana MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Ac5-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with A. clavatus MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Bt6-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with B. thetaiotaomicron MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Cg7-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with C. glabrata MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Co8-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with C. orthopsilosis MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Ch9-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with C. halotolerans MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Ds10-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with D. squalens MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Dm11-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with D. melanogaster MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Gv12-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with G. vaginalis MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Hs13-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with H. sapiens MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Ma14-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with <i>M. australicum MIPS</i> <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Mps15-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with M. psychrophilus MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Mpa16-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with M. paludis MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Nn17-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with N. nova MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Pr18-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with P. ramorum MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Pb19-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with P. buccae MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Si20-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with S. indicum MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-St21-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with S. thermophilus MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Sc22-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with S. cattleya MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study
pRSFD-His-Te23-MIPS	pRSFDuet-1 with T. eurythermalis MIPS <sup>a</sup> in frame with His tag	This study

Table *3.1.* **E.** *coli* strains and plasmids used in this chapter (cont.)



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Table 3.1. E. *coli* strains and plasmids used in this chapter (cont.)

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a Genes have been codon-optimized for *S. cerevisiae*

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<sup>b</sup> Genes have been codon-optimized for *E*. *coli* 

# **3.3.** Results

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**3.3.1.** MIPS Sequence Similarity Network and Representative Selection

An initial sequence similarity network with alignment score **170** was generated for Pfam PFO **1658,** and a network view is shown in Figure **3.2A.** The *S. cerevisiae INOI* sequence currently used in the pathway is indicated in yellow. As suggested **by** the literature, eukaryotic sequences show strong sequence similarity, while bacterial and archaeal sequences are widely varied (Figure **3.2A ). 138,140** Optimum organism growth temperature was also mapped onto the network (Figure 3.2B), <sup>159-163</sup> further underscoring the diversity within the bacterial and archaeal clusters.

After generating the network, we selected representative sequences for further study. In general, these sequences were selected to span the available sequence diversity but were also biased towards proteins more likely to perform the MIPS reaction. To increase our confidence in the sequence clusters and better survey the sequence diversity present in the network, a Markov cluster algorithm was implemented using the *clusterMaker* Cytoscape plugin, **164** in addition to the organic clustering shown in Figure **3.2.** The resulting alternative clustering allowed us to distinguish potentially different subclusters of sequences, which was particularly useful within the large eukaryotic cluster. The selection of cluster representatives was also guided **by** applying measures of node centrality (based on pairwise alignment scores as well as **%ID)** to individual clusters using *clusterMaker.164* We overweighted eukaryotic sequences in this initial sample, since most experimentally validated MIPS genes are eukaryotic.<sup>32</sup> Where possible, we selected previously validated sequences as well as those that contained key conserved active site residues identified in the literature (Figure **3.2C), <sup>144</sup>**as determined using a multiple alignment. The thirtyone selected sequence representatives are indicated **by** the large orange nodes in Figure **3.2A** and listed in Table **3.2.**


Figure 3.2. **MIPS** sequence similarity network for Pfam **PF01658.** This **SSN** was created using the University of Illinois Enzyme Function Initiative's Enzyme Similarity Tool and visualized in Cytoscape with an E-value cutoff of **170. A)** Selected sequences and domains of life. The number labels indicate the variant number. The large yellow node (variant **0)** is the *S. cerevisiae* **INOI** sequence currently used in the glucaric acid pathway. The large orange nodes indicate sequences selected for functional validation. The remaining nodes are colored **by** domain of life. B) **SSN** colored **by** organism optimum growth temperature. Sequences lacking optimum organism temperature data are shown in white. Large nodes indicate selected sequences. C) **SSN** colored **by** number of differences in conserved amino acid residues reported in the literature relative to **INO** 

#	<b>UniProt ID</b>	Organism	Domain	Length (aa)	<b>UniProt Status</b>
1	Q9X1D6	Thermotoga maritima	<b>Bacteria</b>	533	Unreviewed*
$\overline{2}$	A0A075WEG3	Archaeoglobus fulgidus	Archaea	382	Unreviewed*
3	P9WKI1	Mycobacterium tuberculosis	<b>Bacteria</b>	392	Reviewed*
4	Q38862	Arabidopsis thaliana	Eukaryota	367	Reviewed
5	A1CFT5	Aspergillus clavatus	Eukaryota	510	Unreviewed
6	D7IFW4	<b>Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron</b>	<b>Bacteria</b>	534	Unreviewed
$\overline{7}$	Q6FQI1	Candida glabrata	Eukaryota	429	Reviewed
8	<b>H8X4H9</b>	Candida orthopsilosis	Eukaryota	538	Unreviewed
9	<b>M1P1K8</b>	Corynebacterium halotolerans	<b>Bacteria</b>	520	Unreviewed
10	<b>R7SX42</b>	Dichomitus squalens	Eukaryota	363	Unreviewed
11	097477	Drosophila melanogaster	Eukaryota	549	Reviewed
12	E3D8F4	Gardnerella vaginalis	Bacteria	565	Unreviewed
13	Q9NPH2	Homo sapiens	Eukaryota	380	Reviewed
14	LOKRR8	Mesorhizobium australicum	Bacteria	558	Unreviewed
15	<b>K4ME48</b>	Methanolobus psychrophilus	Archaea	367	Unreviewed
16	H1Y1B6	Mucilaginibacter paludis	Bacteria	376	Unreviewed
17	W5TTL7	Nocardia nova	<b>Bacteria</b>	441	Unreviewed
18	<b>H3G8E9</b>	Phytophthora ramorum	Eukaryota	363	Unreviewed
19	D3HVK9	Prevotella buccae	Bacteria	517	Unreviewed
20	Q9FYV1	Sesamum indicum	Eukaryota	435	Reviewed
21	D1C4I3	Sphaerobacter thermophilus	<b>Bacteria</b>	510	Unreviewed
22	F8JTE4	Streptomyces cattleya	<b>Bacteria</b>	375	Unreviewed
23	A0A097QQW8	Thermococcus eurythermalis	Archaea	360	Unreviewed
24	A8WEL5	Viana radiata	Eukaryota	382	Unreviewed
25	S6EIK9	Zygosaccharomyces bailii	Eukaryota	510	Unreviewed
26	A9A3B6	Nitrosopumilus maritimus	Archaea	529	Unreviewed
27	<b>T2GII1</b>	Methanothermobacter thermautotrophicus	Archaea	364	Unreviewed
28	D3SMX0	Thermocrinis albus	<b>Bacteria</b>	365	Unreviewed
29	A0A076W5U7	<b>Bacillus mycoides</b>	Bacteria	369	Unreviewed
30	<b>I2QG71</b>	Bradyrhizobium sp. WSM1253	<b>Bacteria</b>	394	Unreviewed
31	U6NKU3	Haemonchus contortus	Eukaryota	366	Unreviewed

Table **3.2.** Selected MIPS Sequences for Experimental Verification.

\*Has PDB Structure

# **3.3.2.** Initial Evaluation of MIPS Genes

The purview of our **JGI** Community Science Program project also included synthesis of MIOX homologs, and all MIPS and MIOX variants were codon optimized for *S. cerevisiae* because we intended initial characterization to occur in yeast. However, difficulty with cloning and integration in yeast led us to pursue MIPS evaluation in *E. coli.*

Enzyme expression of many of the homologs initially hampered evaluation. When unmodified sequences were expressed at **30\*C,** only four achieved measurable MI production from glucose (blue bars in Figure **3.3).** These were **Cg7** *(C. glabrata), Vr24 (V radiata), Zb25 (Z. badiii),* and Hc31 *(H. contortus).* **Of** these, only Hc31 produced comparable MI to **INOL.**



Figure **3.3.** MI titers produced **by** selected MIPS variants. The MIPS variants were expressed from pRSFDuet vectors in LG1460. N-terminal His tags were added where indicated. Cells were grown at **30'C** in LB supplemented with glucose as indicated and induced with **0.1** mM IPTG at inoculation. EV refers to the empty vector control, and INOL refers to the **S.** *cerevisiae* MIPS, The other MIPS variants are indicated **by** organism abbreviation and number from the JGI synthesis order. MI concentration was measured at 48 hours after inoculation **by** HPLC. Error bars correspond to the standard error from three biological replicates.

In order to separate issues of catalytic activity from those of protein expression, the homologs were then His-tagged to allow for detection **by** Western blot. Interestingly, the addition of the N-terminal His tag dramatically improved MI production at **300C** for many homologs (orange bars in Figure **3.3),** increasing the number of functional variants from 4 to **19.** In addition, His-tagged MIPS homologs At4 *(A. thaliana),* **Cg7,** and Hc31 produced MI titers comparable to that of His-tagged **INO** . Analysis **by** Western blot revealed a wide range of

expression levels (Figure 3.4 and Table B.5). The variants with the lowest MI titers also showed undetectable or low expression. Even among the top MI producers, some variants had much higher expression than others. In addition, MIPS variants Ac5 *(A. clavatus), Bt6 (B. thetaiotaomicron), Gvl2 (G. vaginalis),* and Mps15 *(M. psychrophilus)* had both moderate titers and low expression.



Figure 3.4. MIPS protein expression and MI titer data overlaid on **SSN.** Nodes are colored **by** the relative protein expression level, as measured **by** densitometry from Western blot images. The node size reflects the MI titer achieved from **3 g/L** of glucose. The number labels indicate the variant number.

We also measured **MIPS** activity for the variants that produced detectible MI (Figure *3.5).* While it was difficult to distinguish relatively low activity for **INOI** and some low-activity MIPS variants from the empty vector control, several variants showed substantially higher activity. The highest measured activity was from variant Gv12, followed **by** Ac5. These were

two of the enzymes that had moderate MI titers but low expression. In addition, variants At4, Bt6, **Cg7,** Dm11 *(D. melanogaster), Nn17 (N. nova),* **Pbl9** *(P. buccae),* Vr24, **Zb25,** and Hc31 also showed significant MIPS activity. Apart from **Cg7,** these variants showed moderate to low expression.



Figure 3.5. **IPS** activity of selected **MIPS** variants. **MIPS** variants with N-terminal His tags were expressed from pRSFDuet vectors in LG1460. Cells were grown at **30'C** in LB supplemented with **3 g/L** glucose and induced with **0.1** mM IPTG at inoculation. EV refers to the empty vector control, and **INOl** refers to the **S.** *cerevisiae* MIPS. The other **MIPS** variants are indicated **by** organism abbreviation and number from the JGI synthesis order. MIPS activity was measured from crude cell lysates taken at 48 hours. Error bars correspond to the standard error from three biological replicates.

Because the poor activity of INOl above **30\*C** currently restricts the temperature at which the glucaric acid pathway is functional,<sup>59</sup> the His-tagged MIPS enzymes were also tested at **37\*C.** The MI titers are shown **by** the gray bars in Figure **3.6.** While MI titers are generally lower at **37\*C** than at **300C,** the relative decrease varies widely, with some variants producing no MI at the higher temperature and others maintaining nearly the same titers at both temperatures. His-tagged MIPS variants **Cg7,** Co8 *(C. orthopsilosis), Si20 (S. indicum),* and Hc31 produced MI titers comparable to or better than that of His-tagged INO **1.** At4, **Pr18** *(P. ramorum),* and *Zb25* MIPS all experienced a precipitous drop in MI production at **37\*C** relative to **30<sup>0</sup> C,** and Western blots showed no detectible enzyme at **37\*C,** suggesting these variants are not stably expressed at the higher temperature.



Figure 3.6. MI titers produced by His-tagged MIPS variants at 30°C and 37°C. The MIPS variants were expressed from pRSFDuet vectors in **LG1460.** Cells were grown at the indicated temperature in LB supplemented with **3** *g/L* glucose as indicated and induced with **0.1** mM IPTG at inoculation. EV refers to the empty vector control, and **INOI** refers to the **S.** cerevisiae **MIPS.** The other MIPS variants are indicated **by** organism abbreviation and number from the JGI synthesis order. MI concentration was measured at 48 hours after inoculation **by** HPLC. Error bars correspond to the standard error from three biological replicates.

#### **3.3.3.** Improvement of Enzyme Expression

Several of the MIPS variants tested suffered from poor enzyme expression. Because many homologs tolerated and benefited from the addition of N-terminal His tags, N-terminal **SUMO** tags were added to a partial set of MIPS enzymes **(INO1,** Tml (T. *maritima),* At4, **Hs13** (H. sapiens), Si20, Zb25, and Hc31). MI production for the His-tagged and SUMO-tagged variants were compared. As shown in Figure **3.7,** At4 and **Zb25,** two variants with poor thermostability, showed an improvement in MI titers at **30\*C** with the **SUMO** tag. However, INOI and Si20 actually performed worse with the **SUMO** tag. No variants showed improvement with the SUMO fusion at 37<sup>°</sup>C (data not shown).



Figure **3.7.** MI titers produced **by** selected SUMO-tagged **MIPS** variants at **300C. MIPS** variants were expressed from pRSFDuet vectors in LG1460. Cells were grown at **30\*C in** LB supplemented with **3 g/L** glucose and induced with **0.1** mM IPTG at inoculation. EV refers to the empty vector control, and **INOI** refers to the **S.** *cerevisiae MIPS.* The other **M41PS** variants are indicated **by** organism abbreviation and number from the JGI synthesis order. MI concentration was measured at 48 hours after inoculation **by** HPLC. Error bars correspond to the standard error from three biological replicates.

The *MIPS* genes we used in the above experiments were codon optimized for expression in *S. cerevisiae,* which may also contribute to expression limitations. We therefore codon optimized At4, Bt6, **Cg7,** Mps 15, Si2O, and Hc31 MIPS for expression in *E. coli.* The MI titers produced **by** the newly codon-optimized variants at **30\*C** and **37\*C** are shown in Figure **3.8.** At **30'C,** At4 benefits significantly from codon optimization, producing similar titers to nonoptimized INO **1.** Bt6 and **Cg7** also show a small benefit. The other MIPS variants perform similarly with and without codon optimization. However, *E. coli* codon-optimized INOl performs significantly worse than its non-optimized analogue. Interestingly, the optimized INOl performs well at **37\*C.** Hc31 also benefits from codon optimization at the higher temperature, but optimized **Mps15** and Si2O show a clear decrease in production.



Figure **3.8.** MI titers produced **by** selected *E. coli* codon-optimized **MIPS** variants. **MIPS** variants were expressed from pRSFDuet vectors in LG1460. Cells were grown in LB at the indicated temperature, supplemented with **3 g/L** glucose, and induced with **0.1** mM IPTG at inoculation. EV refers to the empty vector control, and INOI refers to the **S.** *cerevisiae* MIPS. The other **MIPS** variants are indicated **by** organism abbreviation and number from the JGI synthesis order. MI concentration was measured at 48 hours after inoculation **by** HPLC. Error bars correspond to the standard error from three biological replicates.

#### 3.3.4. Sequence Analysis

Following initial evaluation, an updated **SSN** was prepared in September **2018.** The original **MIPS** network was created in **2015** and contained **1,895** nodes representing a total of 4,104 sequences. Sequence databases have continued to grow and change since that time. The updated network is shown in Figure **3.9** at an alignment score cutoff of **180.** It contains information for **9,902** sequences, including sequences recently added to the Pfam and UniProt databases as well as additional putative MIPS sequences retrieved from JGI's Phytozome, MycoCosm, and IMG databases<sup>165</sup> by BLAST or Pfam searches. These JGI sequences are shown in gray. **A** eukaryotic sub-network was also created and is shown in

Figure **3.10** at an alignment score cutoff of **210.** Plant sequences cluster most closely together, while animal sequences are present in two distinct groups. Fungal and protist MIPS sequences are the most variable.

A new multiple alignment was also generated using the full set of sequences. This multiple alignment was used to construct a phylogenetic tree (not shown due to its large size) to complement the network, as well as compute residue differences between sequences. As expected, the phylogenetic tree showed many of the same features as the network. In the

network, we noticed that the eukaryotic subcluster containing MIPS genes from nematodes, including the top producer Hc3 **1,** split off from the rest of the eukaryotic sequences at a relatively low alignment score. This was confirmed **by** the phylogenetic tree, which suggested the nematode sequences are part of a separate branch from other eukaryotic sequences.

The new multiple alignment was also used to search for sequence information given the performance data we obtained for the **31** MIPS representatives. Amino acid differences relative to **INOl** and At4 MIPS were tabulated using the multiple alignment. These differences are summarized for the eukaryotic sequences in Table B.6. Prokaryotic and archaeal sequences encompassed too much sequence variation to explore with our small data set. Statistical power was also limited with only the eukaryotic sequences, but correlation coefficients were calculated for each amino acid difference to evaluate possible contributions of the sequence differences to observed MI titers and protein expression. These coefficients are also shown in Table B.6. Only amino acid differences that were observed in two or more sequences were considered potentially meaningful. **Of** these, five differences were selected for further study. Five single mutations were introduced into **INO 1,** two were introduced into At4-MIPS-opt, and one was introduced into **Prl8-MIPS.** These mutations are listed in both Table **3.3** and Table B.6.

<b>Selected Mutations</b>					
INO <sub>1</sub>	At4-opt	Pr18			
V82M					
A83G	A79G				
<b>Y250F</b>		F233Y			
V413R					
N151D	D146N				

Table **3.3.** Selected mutations for evaluation.



Figure **3.9** Updated **MIPS SSN** for full network with alignment score cutoff of **180.** The yellow node is **S.** cerevisiae **1NO1.** Orange nodes represent the **31** MIPS homologs (numbered **1-31** as in Table **3.2).** The remaining nodes in the network are colored according to domains of life.

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Figure 3.10 Updated MIPS **SSN** for eukaryotic sub-network with alignment score cutoff of 210. The blue nodes represent the initial set of **31 MIPS** homologs, and their relative sizes correspond to MI titers produced **by** Histagged variants at **30\*C.** The remaining nodes in the network are colored according to kingdoms of life.

The MI titers produced **by** these mutations are shown in Figure **3.11.** Most mutations do not have significant effects. However, **INO1(A83G)** at **37\*C** and At4-opt(A79G) at **300C** both show reduced titers relative to their unmodified counterparts. These mutations correspond to the same position in the multiple alignment, which is located in the Rossmann fold domain of the enzyme.<sup>140</sup>



Figure **3.11.** Effect of selected MIPS mutations on **Ml** titers. MIPS variants and their mutant versions were expressed from pRSFDuet vectors in LG1460. Cells were grown in LB at the indicated temperature and supplemented with **3 g/L** glucose. EV refers to the empty vector control, **INOl** refers to the **S.** *cerevisiae MIPS,* At4-opt refers to the *A. thaliana* codon-optimized MIPS, and Pr18 refers to *P. ramorum* **MIPS.** MI concentration was measured at 48 hours after inoculation **by** HPLC. Error bars correspond to the standard error from three biological replicates.

#### 3.4. Discussion

While many putative MIPS enzymes have been identified, most have not been experimentally validated. Here, we tested a diverse set of **31** MIPS enzymes in *E. coli* and confirmed activity for many previously uncharacterized enzymes. Active MIPS enzymes were discovered from all domains of life. For enzymes that had been previously studied in the literature, we were able to detect measurable MIPS activity for all but Hs **13,** which did not express in our system.

Interestingly, we found that His-tagging the **MIPS** enzymes often led to significant increases in performance. **Of** the set of MIPS enzymes that were not tagged, only 4 showed discernible MI production. However, **19** of the His-tagged enzymes produced MI, and many of them produced substantially more MI than their non-tagged counterparts. This is a somewhat

unusual finding, as His tags have been generally shown to have a neutral or deleterious effect on enzyme activity and function.<sup>166</sup> The disparity in performance between tagged and untagged enzymes may be related to differences in stability in *E. coli* due to the N-end rule.<sup>167</sup>

We examined enzyme performance at both  $30^{\circ}$ C and  $37^{\circ}$ C. INO1 currently limits the glucaric acid pathway to operation at **30\*C** because it has substantially reduced activity at higher temperatures. However, MIOX is more active at **37\*C,** so finding a MIPS enzyme tolerant of higher temperatures could improve overall pathway flux. While MI titers generally were lower at **37"C** than at **30"C** for the His-tagged enzymes, the size of the difference varied substantially among the variants. MIPS variants At4, Prl **8,** and *Zb25* retain essentially no MI production at the higher temperature, and no protein was detected **by** Western blot. In addition, At4 and *Zb25* responded well to an N-terminal **SUMO** fusion tag, and At4 was improved **by** codon optimization, further suggesting that expression limits performance of these enzymes. At4, **Prl8,** and *Zb25* are all eukaryotic, but they are otherwise quite different. For instance, plant MIPS Si20 and Vr24 (closely related to At4), as well as fungal MIPS **INOI, Cg7,** and Co8 (closely related to *Zb25),* did not show this behavior. To date, relatively few studies of MIPS expression or stability at different temperatures have been conducted.<sup>141,168</sup> Further work in this area may yield more information about sequence, structure, and function relationships.

The current analysis is limited **by** the relatively small number of sequences tested within the full sequence space. While there are fewer amino acid differences between the eukaryotic sequences tested versus the prokaryotic and archaeal sequences, it is still difficult to achieve sufficient statistical power to distinguish beneficial and deleterious amino acid changes. This is due to the large number of amino acid differences relative to sequences as well as the low frequency of most differences within the selected sequences. As a result, most of the differences we selected for mutational analysis did not have significant effects when moved into a new sequence context. However, **A83G** in **INOI** and the analogous mutation **A79G** in At4-opt both slightly reduced MI production. This residue is located far from the active site within a conserved eukaryotic block identified by Basak and coworkers<sup>145</sup> that forms part of the Rossmann fold domain.<sup>140</sup> In addition to the challenges in identifying contributions of individual amino acids to function, pairwise or higher order relationships between residues and function are also difficult to access. This limitation is significant because evolutionary trajectories are often rugged and epistatic effects often confound analysis of individual amino acid changes.<sup>169</sup>

Our initial selection of variants from the **SSN** was intended to span the sequence space and identify which parts of the network merit further study. Hc3 **1,** which produced the most MI of all variants tested, is part of a distinct nematode subcluster in the **SSN** and in the phylogenetic tree. Gv12, Ac5, **Cg7,** Nn17, and **Pbl9** vary widely in sequence but have significantly higher measured MIPS activity than **INO** 1. Consideration of additional sequences located near these productive variants in the network will help increase statistical power **by** reducing the number of differences between sequences, likely yielding more structure-function information. The same approach could be taken to better understand sequence features related to stable expression.

# **3.5.** Conclusions

Many diverse MIPS enzymes were shown to be functional in *E. coli,* and this work provides a basis for additional exploration of the sequence similarity network to obtain structurefunction information. **Of** the **31** sequences tested, **19** produced detectible MI production when expressed with an N-terminal polyhistidine tag. *H. contortus (Hc3* **1)** MIPS performed as well as or better than **INOl** under most experimental conditions. In addition, several homologs had significantly higher MIPS activity than **INO1**. However, stable protein expression appears to be a challenge for some variants, and the sequence features that affect expression are not yet clear. While statistical power was limited in this study due to the small number of relatively diverse sequences, a mutation in the Rossmann fold domain and far from the active site of **INO** 1 and *A. thaliana* (At4) MIPS has a small negative effect on MI production. Further study of the regions in the network near high-performing variants may help discern additional sequence features that are important for activity and expression.

# 4. Development of Screening Methods for Glucuronic and Glucaric Acid

# **Abstract**

The improvement of glucaric acid pathway enzymes has been hampered **by** the lack **of** an effective screen for protein engineering. Both MIPS and MIOX have relatively low activity in the pathway and have been the focus of previous engineering work. To this end, two potential screens for detection of glucuronic acid or glucaric acid produced from glucose via the glucaric acid pathway were evaluated. The first, a growth screen, appears to be limited **by** pathway flux, as growth was possible from MI but not from glucose. The second, a previously developed biosensor based on the CdaR activator, was shown to respond to a downstream catabolic product of glucaric acid, likely glycerate, but not to glucaric acid itself. In addition, our desired application of the sensor to production of glucaric acid from glucose was hindered **by** catabolite repression of the fluorescent reporter or glucaric acid catabolism in the presence of glucose, regulation that was not previously confirmed. Further work to understand this regulation could point to strain engineering strategies to improve these approaches or to alternative screening schemes. While neither screen is currently ideal for use with the glucaric acid pathway, this work clarified native catabolite repression and CdaR regulation in **E.** *coli.*

## **4.1. Introduction**

Efforts to improve the performance of the glucaric acid pathway have been hampered **by** a lack of effective screening and selection methods. In particular, substantial protein engineering efforts are impractical without high-throughput detection methods. This is significant because protein engineering has been critical for most commercial processes to reach economic viability.<sup>1,3,170</sup> Most substantial gains realized in the glucaric acid pathway to date have instead addressed limitations using small search spaces and low throughput HPLC quantification.

Protein engineering is a powerful tool for improving enzyme activity, specificity, and stability. As discussed in Section **1.3.3,** directed evolution involves the generation of random mutations in the protein of interest and then screening of the resulting variation for improvements in the desired characteristic. Because the vast majority of mutations are detrimental, directed evolution requires a high-throughput screen to distinguish improved performance and thus identify the beneficial mutations.<sup>171</sup> In addition, screens can produce context-dependent results, as summarized by the maxim "you get what you screen for."<sup>50</sup>

In the glucaric acid pathway, MIPS and MIOX may both benefit from protein engineering. Both enzymes have low activity relative to **Udh,59** and each appears to limit flux through the pathway under some conditions. Increasing the flux through MIPS relative to glycolysis via dynamic knockdown of  $pfk$  expression improved titers and yield.<sup>14,74</sup> In addition, improving MIOX stability **by** adding an N-terminal **SUMO** fusion also boosted titers. 63 These previous findings suggest that protein engineering has the potential to increase activity and stability and further improve performance.

**A** previous growth screen was developed with the goal of evolving MIOX. *E. coli* can grow on glucuronic acid but not on MI, and the screen relied on the conversion of MI to glucuronic acid **by** MIOX to support growth in minimal media. However, instead of producing a MIOX variant with improved activity, directed evolution instead led to the discovery of a mechanism to increase MI transport into the cell.<sup>63</sup> While awareness of this MI transport limitation is valuable, improving MI transport is not beneficial in the full pathway from glucose. **A** screen design that begins from glucose may be more successful.

An alternative biosensor approach was offered **by** the Church lab at Harvard. *E. coli* CdaR was previously shown to respond to glycerate, galactarate, and glucarate, and the regulator

activates genes involved in the catabolism of the three sugar derivatives. **172,173** The Church lab repurposed the *cdaR* gene to control the expression of **GFP** from a CdaR-responsive promoter.54

Here, we evaluate two different screening strategies for the glucaric acid pathway, one based on growth from glucose and one based on the fluorescent CdaR biosensor developed **by** the Church lab.

#### 4.2. Materials and Methods

# 4.2.1. Strains and Plasmids

The *E. coli* strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table **4.1.** Primers used for construction are listed in Table 4.2. *E. coli* strain  $DH5\alpha$  was used for molecular cloning and plasmid preparation. The *E. coli* strains used for screening were derived from **MG1655, MG 1655 (DE3),** and BL21Star **(DE3).** M4, MKTS3, and **GALG20** were constructed previously in our lab. **LG** 1458 and **LG** 1460 were constructed as described in Chapter 2. Knockouts of *pgi* and zwf were performed in BL21 Star **(DE3) by** sequential P1 transduction using Keio collection donor strains **JW3 985-1** and **JWl 841-1,** respectively.103 FLP recombinase expressed from plasmid pCP20 was used to cure the kanamycin resistance cassette after each transduction.<sup>104</sup> Transduction and curing were verified **by** PCR amplification and sequencing using primer pairs LG13 and LG14 for *pgi* and LG15 and LG16 for *zwf*. The resulting single and double knockout strains are **LG2212 (Apgi)** and LG2214 *(Apgi Azwf).*

Plasmids containing glucaric acid pathway genes were constructed previously.<sup>59,63</sup> pJKR-H-cdaR was obtained from Addgene.54 Genes *gudD, garL, and cdaR* involved in glucaric acid catabolism were amplified from *E. coli* strain **MG1655** genomic **DNA** with primer pairs **LG 105** and **LG 106, LG 107** and **LG 108,** and **LG 109** and **LG 110,** respectively. pET-gudD was created from pETDuet- **I by** inserting *gudD* into the Ncol and PstI sites. pET-gudD-garL was created from pET-gudD **by** inserting *garL* into the Mfel and AvrII sites. pACYC-cdaR was created from pACYCDuet-l **by** inserting *cdaR* into the NcoI and Pstl sites. pACYC-gudD was created **by** circular polymerase extension cloning **(CPEC;** Quan **&** Tian, **2009),** using primers **LG** 11 and **LG 112** to amplify gudD from pET-gudD and primers **LG 113** and **LG 114** to amplify the pACYCDuet- **I** backbone. Verification of the Duet vector constructs was performed using primers **LG73** and LG74 for the first multiple cloning site and **LG75** and **LG76** for the second site.

# 4.2.2. Culture Conditions

Strains were grown in **2-3** mL of medium in culture tubes at **30'C** and *250* rpm. For the growth screen, strains were transformed and recovered in **SOC** medium, then transferred to liquid M9 medium. For the fluorescence screen, strains were grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium. For both, the medium was supplemented as described with *myo*-inositol (MI; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MA), glucuronic acid (Sigma-Aldrich), glucaric acid (Sigma-Aldrich), glucose (Sigma-Aldrich), and glycerate (Sigma-Aldrich). Working cultures were inoculated from overnight cultures at a dilution of  $1:100$  and were induced with  $100 \mu$ M isopropyl  $\beta$ -D- $\beta$ thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) and supplemented with kanamycin (50  $\mu$ g/mL), carbenicillin (100  $\mu$ g/mL), and chloramphenicol (34  $\mu$ g/mL) as required.

# 4.2.3. **GFP** Measurements

For the fluorescence screen, culture samples were taken, washed in **0.1** M sodium phosphate buffer **(pH 7),** and diluted 1:2 or 1:4 in sodium phosphate buffer in a **96** well plate. Fluorescence and absorbance measurements were taken in a Tecan Infinite F200Pro plate reader (Mannedorf, Switzerland). **GFP** fluorescence was read at an excitation wavelength of 485 nm and an emission wavelength of *535* nm. Cell density was measured **by** absorbance at **600** nm. Reported fluorescence values are normalized **by** cell density.

# 4.2.4. Measurement of Extracellular Metabolites

Where needed, **MI,** glucuronic acid, and glucaric acid concentrations in culture supernatant samples were quantified **by** high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) on an Agilent 1200 series instrument (Santa Clara, **CA)** with an Aminex HPX-87H anion exchange column **(300** mm **by 7.8** mm; Bio-Rad Laboratories) using *5* mM sulfuric acid at a flow rate **0.6** mL/min as the mobile phase. The column and refractive index detector temperatures were held at 45<sup>o</sup>C and 35<sup>o</sup>C, respectively. Compounds were quantified from 10 µL injections using the refractive index signal.



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Table *4.1. E. coli* strains and plasmids used in this chapter (cont.)

Name	Sequence <sup>a</sup>
LG13	gctcctccaacaccgttacttg
<b>LG14</b>	ggattaacctcacggtatgatttccg
<b>LG15</b>	gatattacgcctgtgtgccgtg
<b>LG16</b>	tctcgcgcgaacgttcaatg
LG105	tgcttaCCATGGatgagttctcaatttacgacgc
LG106	tccattCTGCAGttaacgcaccatgcacg
LG107	tgcttaCAATTGatgaataacgatgttttcccgaa
LG108	tgcattCCTAGGttattttttaaaggtatcagccagtttc
LG109	tcgttaCCATGGatggctggctggcatc
LG110	tcaataCTGCAGctaccgctcttcatccagttg
LG111	ccctgtagaaataattttgtttaac
LG112	gcgttcaaatttcgcag
LG113	ctgcgaaatttgaacgc
LG114	gttaaacaaaattatttctacaggg
<b>LG73</b>	ggcgctatcatgccataccg
<b>LG74</b>	gattatgcggccgtgtacaatacg
<b>LG75</b>	cgtattgtacacggccgcataatc
<b>LG76</b>	gctagttattgctcagcggtgg

Table 4.2. Oligonucleotides used in this chapter

'Restriction sites used for cloning are capitalized and underlined.

## **4.3.** Results

4.3.1. Growth Screen from Glucose

It was hypothesized that a growth screen from glucose could be created **by** extending the previous screen from MI. *E. coli* cannot grow from MI as a sole carbon source, but can grow on glucuronic acid and glucaric acid, the products of MIOX and **Udh,** respectively. To extend the screen to glucose, it was necessary to create a strain that could only grow on glucose if the glucose were converted to glucuronic acid or glucaric acid. This was done **by** knocking out *pgi* and *zwf,* which direct glucose-6-phosphate into glycolysis and the pentose phosphate pathway, respectively. The resulting strain LG2214 did not grow on glucose as the sole carbon source. The desired growth pathways with glucuronic acid and glucaric acid intermediates as mapped from the KEGG database<sup>6</sup> are summarized in Figure 4.1.



Figure **4.1.** Growth pathways from glucose in the engineered strain LG2214. The strain cannot grow from glucose without expression of heterologous glucaric acid pathway genes due to knockouts of *pgi* and *zwf*, whose gene products direct **G6P** into glycolysis and the pentose phosphate pathway, respectively. Growth can be achieved from glucuronic acid catabolism via UxaC, UxuB, UxuA, **KdgK,** and Eda. Growth can also be achieved from glucaric acid catabolism via GudD, GarL, GarR, and GarK.

While growth was achieved in the knockout strain from glucuronic acid, glucaric acid, and MI, growth from glucose proved elusive. LG2214 could grow from glucuronic acid or glucaric acid, and LG2214 harboring pTrc-MIOX allowed growth from MI. Growth was relatively slow in all cases, and pretreatment with glucuronic or glucaric acid allowed for faster

subsequent growth on MI. LG2214 harboring pTrc-MIOX and **pRSFD-IN** grew on glucuronic acid, glucaric acid, and MI, but did not grow on glucose, even with pretreatment.

We were concerned that the expression levels of the necessary catabolic enzymes may not be high enough when multiple glucaric acid pathway genes are **highly** expressed, due to metabolic burden effects or other regulation. Glucuronic acid catabolism requires at least five genes for growth, but glucaric acid catabolism appears to require just two, *gudD and garL.* We tested the effect of overexpression of these two genes from pET-gudD-garL. We also considered overexpression of the transcriptional activator *cdaR* from pACYC-cdaR. However, these strains did not show a growth benefit upon glucaric acid addition in LB media, suggesting that endogenous expression may not be the limiting factor.

#### 4.3.2. Initial Evaluation of CdaR Biosensor

The function of the biosensor plasmid pJKR-H-cdaR is summarized in Figure 4.2. Briefly, CdaR is a native *E. coli* activator for glucaric acid catabolism genes, and it is autoregulated. pJKR-H-cdaR contains *cdaR* under the control of its native promoter, as well as superfolder **GFP** under the control of the native *gudP* promoter, which is subject to CdaR activation.<sup>54,172</sup> *gudP* encodes a putative glucarate transporter.<sup>176</sup>



Figure 4.2. CdaR biosensor diagram. CdaR is believed to act as an activator when bound to glucarate, galactarate, or glycerate. CdaR then binds to its operator sequence in the *gudP* promoter region, recruits RNA polymerase, and promotes expression of superfolder **GFP.**

While the sensor had been previously characterized and applied to the production of glucaric acid,<sup>54,177</sup> we also characterized the sensor's behavior in our system. BL21Star (DE3) harboring pJKR-H-cdaR was grown with exogenous glucaric acid added to the culture medium, and the fluorescence response is shown in Figure 4.3. As expected, the sensor responds to glucaric acid, though it takes some time for the signal to fully develop for higher concentrations of glucaric acid. The sensor responded to glucaric acid at the lowest concentration tested, **0.1** mM (0.2 **g/L).** It also appears to have a large dynamic range, as the signal does not saturate even at **100** mM (21 **g/L),** the highest concentration tested. This general behavior is similar to that reported previously, and the dynamic range is well-suited for improving the glucaric acid production beyond its **I g/L** baseline level.



Figure 4.3. Response of CdaR sensor to exogenously added glucaric acid. Strain BL21Star **(DE3)** harboring **pJKR-**H-cdaR was grown in LB with various concentrations of glucaric acid as indicated. **GFP** fluorescence was measured at the indicated times and normalized to cell density, and fold change in normalized fluorescence relative to the **0** mM glucaric acid samples was then calculated. Mean fold change values **SD** for triplicate samples are shown.

The previous experiment tested the effect of exogenously added glucaric acid, but the ultimate goal is to apply a sensor for intracellular production. To test whether the sensor would work in this situation, we applied the sensor to detection of glucaric acid produced from MI via MIOX and **Udh.** As shown in Figure 4.4, both added glucaric acid and MI led to a substantial increase in fluorescence for MKTS3, with MI showing the stronger response. In contrast, only glucaric acid elicited a response in **GALG20,** which lacks the **XDE3** lysogen that includes the gene for **T7** polymerase, which is necessary for *MIOX and udh* expression from **pRSFD-MI-Udh.** Glucaric acid production was confirmed **by** HPLC.



Figure 4.4. Response of CdaR sensor to glucaric acid produced from MI. Strains **GALG20** and MKTS3 harboring **pRSFD-MI-Udh** and pJKR-H-cdaR were grown in LB with **10** mM glucaric acid or **30** mM MI as indicated. **GFP** fluorescence was measured at 24 hr and normalized to cell density, and fold change in normalized fluorescence relative to the control samples without added glucaric acid or MI was then calculated.

#### 4.3.3. Catabolite Repression

In order to avoid the transport limitation found previously with production from MI, we sought a new screen that would allow detection of glucuronic acid or glucaric acid produced from glucose. However, some genes involved in transport and catabolism of glucuronic and glucaric acid have been shown or suggested to be subject to carbon catabolite repression of transcription in the presence of glucose. **A** common mechanism of catabolite repression is gene activation **by** CRP (cAMP receptor protein) or Cra (catabolite repressor and activator) in the absence of glucose <sup>28</sup>. As reported in RegulonDB, many genes in glucuronic acid catabolism require activation **by** CRP or Cra, including *uxaC, uxuA, uxuB, eda,* as well as the transporter *exuT* and regulators *exuR, uxuR, and kdgR* 178. In addition, there is a CRP operator site upstream of the glucaric acid transporter *garP* that may control the operon *garPLRK,* and a Cra operator site upstream of a second glucaric acid transporter *gudP* that may control the operon *gudPXD,* though this regulation does not appear in RegulonDB  $28,178,179$ .

With respect to the growth screen described in Section 4.3.1, the deletion of *pgi* and zwf has been shown to alleviate catabolite repression for the two sugars xylose and arabinose **72.** The strain from that work, M4, was evaluated for growth from glucuronic acid, glucaric acid, MI, and glucose, and we found it behaved similarly to LG2214. We also observed growth for LG2214 from glucuronic acid or glucaric acid in the presence of glucose.

With respect to the CdaR sensor described in Section 4.3.2, we reevaluated the sensor response to glucaric acid in the presence of glucose to evaluate the impact of catabolite repression. As shown in Figure *4.5,* the fluorescence response of the sensor to glucaric acid is dramatically reduced even at low glucose concentrations. At **1.0 g/L** of glucose, only a **1.5-fold** change is evident, and the response is completely eliminated in the presence of *5.0* **g/L** glucose.





This substantial reduction in the response to glucaric acid in the presence of glucose is problematic for a screen of production from glucose. To this end, we evaluated the effectiveness of strain engineering strategies for alleviating this catabolite repression. Previous work suggested that knocking out parts of the phosphotransferase **(PTS)** system and compensating with upregulation of galactose permease (GalP) could partially alleviate the effect of catabolite repression 30. Strain MKTS3 is an *MG1655* derivative that contains *AptsHlcrr and gaiP* under the control of a constitutive promoter. As shown in Figure 4.6, this strain was tested with the CdaR sensor, and it substantially improved the signal's response at low levels of glucose (up to 1 **g/L),** maintaining the response near that observed with no added glucose. However, at 2 **g/L** of glucose, the signal fell dramatically to less than *25%* of the response observed with no glucose.

Previous reports also suggested that knocking out *pgi* may reduce catabolite repression via decreased glucose consumption 29. Strain **GALG20,** a **MG 1655** derivative that contains

 $\Delta pgi$ , was also tested with the CdaR sensor, as shown in Figure 4.6. While the fluorescence signal still dropped with added glucose, this strain showed considerable improvement in sensor signal at all glucose concentrations tested (up to **5.0 g/L).**



Figure 4.6. Effect of catabolite repression strain engineering strategies on CdaR sensor response to glucaric acid in the presence of glucose. Strains BL21Star **(DE3), GALG20,** and MKTS3, each harboring pJKR-H-cdaR, were grown in LB with **10** mM glucaric acid and various concentrations of glucose as indicated. **GFP** fluorescence was measured at 22, **27,** and **25** hours for the three strains, respectively, and normalized to cell density. To enable comparisons between strains, the fold change in normalized fluorescence was calculated for each strain relative to its signal at **10** mM glucaric acid and **0 g/L** glucose.

Because the CdaR biosensor was originally used to detect intracellularly produced glucaric acid, we also tested whether detection of intracellularly produced glucaric acid was subject to catabolite repression. Strains **MG1655 (DE3)** and MKTS3 were used test the CdaR sensor response to intracellular production of glucaric acid from MI (via MIOX and **Udh)** in the presence and absence of glucose. The results are shown in Figure 4.7. As before, glucaric acid alone activated the sensor, as did MI without added glucose. However, when glucose was added, the signal plummeted. The signal for MKTS3 in the presence of glucose is somewhat higher than for **MG1655 (DE3),** but MKTS3 also had significantly less residual glucose after 24 hr.



Figure 4.7. Response of CdaR sensor to glucaric acid produced from **MI.** Strains **MG1655 (DE3)** and **MKTS3** harboring **pRSFD-MI-Udh** and pJKR-H-cdaR were grown in LB with **10** mM glucaric acid, **30** mM **MI,** and/or **<sup>5</sup> g/L** glucose as indicated. **GFP** fluorescence was measured at 24 hr and normalized to cell density, and fold change in normalized fluorescence relative to the control samples without added glucaric acid, **MI,** or glucose was then calculated.

# 4.3.4. Clarification of CdaR Sensor Function

In our initial evaluation of the CdaR sensor, we noticed that there was no response to glucaric acid in strains with *gudD* knocked out. GudD is the first enzyme in the catabolism of glucaric acid. Glucarate, galactarate, and glycerate were all shown to activate CdaR in the original study,<sup>172</sup> and glycerate is produced by GarR as a downstream intermediate in the breakdown of both glucarate and galactarate.<sup>6</sup> In addition, the Church lab noticed in a previous study using a slightly different sensor configuration that a *AgarK* strain improved both the fluorescence signal and glucaric acid production.<sup>180</sup> GarK is the enzyme immediately downstream of glycerate in glucaric acid catabolism. We therefore hypothesized that the sensor may respond to glycerate rather than glucarate.

To evaluate this hypothesis, we first confirmed that GudD was essential for the sensor response. We expressed *gudD* from pACYC-gudD in **LG1458,** a strain with a *AgudD* genotype. The results are shown in Figure 4.8. Overexpression of *gudD* in **LG1458** enables the sensor to respond to glucaric acid, whereas there is no response when expression is not induced with IPTG.



Figure 4.8. Effect *of gudD* overexpression on CdaR sensor response to glucaric acid. Strain LG1458 harboring pJKR-H-cdaR and pACYC-gudD was grown in LB with **10** mM glucaric acid and induced with IPTG as indicated. **GFP** fluorescence was measured at 24 hours and normalized to cell density, and fold change in normalized fluorescence was calculated relative to the control grown without glucaric acid.

We also compared the exogenous addition of glycerate with the addition of glucaric acid in BL21 and **MG1655** strains with and without genomic *gudD* expression. As shown in Figure 4.9, glucaric acid produces a response in strains with *gudD* intact, while glycerate produces a response in all strains.



Figure 4.9. Response of CdaR sensor to exogenously added glucaric acid and glycerate. Strains BL21 Star **(DE3),** LG1460, **MG1655 (DE3),** and **LG1458,** each harboring pJKR-H-cdaR, were grown in LB with **10** mM glucaric acid or glycerate as indicated. **GFP** fluorescence was measured at 24 hours and normalized to cell density, and fold change in normalized fluorescence was calculated for each strain relative to the control grown without glucaric acid or glycerate.

# **4.4.** Discussion

In the context of the growth screen, we were able to achieve growth as previously described from MI but not from glucose. The lack of growth on glucose is likely due to low pathway flux, as native catabolite repression in the presence of glucose does not appear to be active in LG2214. While growth was possible from exogenously added glucuronic acid and glucaric acid within one or two days in minimal medium, growth from MI often took significantly longer, even after pretreatment with glucuronic acid or glucaric acid. Expression of the additional genes *INOI and udh* likely reduces flux compared to the previous MI screen that only required *MIOX.* Moreover, typical production of glucuronic or glucaric acid from MI in production strains with intact *pgi and zwf* in LB is *5-7* **g/L,63** but typical production from glucose is much lower, around  $1 \text{ g/L}^{59}$  While some of this reduction is likely due to competition between **INO** 1, Pgi, and Zwf for glucose-6-phosphate, the dramatic decrease in production is consistent with the lack of growth we observed from glucose in our growth screen strain.

The CdaR biosensor responded to glucaric acid in strains with intact glucaric acid catabolism genes. In particular, strains without *gudD* did not respond to the sensor, and plasmidbased expression restored the response. In addition, addition of glycerate, an intermediate in glucaric acid catabolism and another known activator of CdaR, produced a response in all strains tested. These results show that CdaR does not respond directly to glucaric acid and instead suggest that the true activator is glycerate. While we did not directly interrogate the response from galactaric acid, its catabolism also produces glycerate, so it may also activate CdaR via glycerate.

While a sensor for a downstream catabolic product may theoretically support a screen, in this case the catabolic pathway is branched. As already mentioned, galactaric acid shares much of the same catabolic pathway as glucaric acid. In addition, glycerate is produced **by** GarR from tartronate semialdehyde, which can itself be produced from other metabolites that connect to central carbon metabolism, including glyoxylate and hydroxypyruvate.6 Further work is necessary to ensure the sensor response is directly tied to glucaric acid catabolism. **If** other pathways contribute significantly, it may be possible to eliminate them via strain engineering.

In addition, the CdaR sensor suffers from catabolite repression. The precipitous decline we observed in the sensor's response to fed or produced glucaric acid in the presence of glucose suggests that **gfp** on the sensor plasmid or glucaric acid catabolic genes are affected. The CdaR

sensor plasmid uses the *gudP* promoter to drive expression of **gfp.** Since the relevant operons are *gudPXD and garPLRK,* both the fluorescent signal and catabolism are likely affected. We were able to partially alleviate the repression using strains MKTS3 and **GALG20,** and it may be possible to optimize the starting concentration **of** glucose to allow sufficient production of glucaric acid but minimize repression of the fluorescence signal, similar to the response we saw from MKTS3 in Figure 4.7. However, for the purpose of screening for protein and strain engineering, variation in glucose consumption rates is likely to affect the response. Further work to clarify the genes affected **by** catabolite repression may allow for targeted overexpression to help alleviate it. In addition, a more complete understanding of native regulation may point to alternative screening strategies that may be more effective for the glucaric acid pathway.

#### *4.5.* Conclusions

At this stage, neither the growth screen nor the CdaR fluorescent biosensor is well-suited for screening in the context of the glucaric acid pathway in *E. coli,* but we did uncover new pathway regulatory information. Genes involved in glucaric acid transport and catabolism appear to be subject to catabolite repression, which was suggested **by** computational motif searches but was not previously confirmed **by** experimental evidence. In addition, CdaR is not directly activated **by** glucaric acid but instead **by** a downstream product of glucaric acid catabolism, likely glycerate. Further work to clarify which genes are subject to catabolite repression and to eliminate other pathways that produce glycerate may improve these screening approaches or point to alternative screening opportunities.

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# **5.** Conclusions and Future Directions
#### **5.1. Summary of Goals and Conclusions**

The overall goal of this thesis was to further improve the productivity of the glucaric acid pathway. We did so **by** alleviating oxidative stress, leveraging natural homology, and evaluating screening strategies to improve the reactions catalyzed **by** MIPS and MIOX.

#### *5.1.1.* Alleviation of oxidative stress for MI production

MIOX is sensitive to hydrogen peroxide, and MIOX turnover may also produce ROS. However, it was unclear whether either of these phenomena was significant in the context of the glucaric acid pathway. We first verified that MIOX activity in crude cell lysates was sensitive to hydrogen peroxide. Then we took a systematic approach to reduce the prevalence of major ROS species hydrogen peroxide, superoxide, and hydroxyl radicals. We did this **by** overexpressing native catalase and superoxide dismutases. Overexpression of *katE* substantially increased overall glucuronic acid titers as well as soluble MIOX levels and activity. Overexpression of superoxide dismutases *sodA or sodB* in combination with *katE* led to a small additional increase in titers, suggesting that endogenous hydrogen peroxide and superoxide scavenging are insufficient in this system.

Interestingly, overexpression of catalytically inactive versions of iron-binding enzymes *katE and sodB* also improved glucuronic acid production. Labile iron has been linked to the production of hydroxyl radicals, so we hypothesized that the inactive enzymes may function as iron chelators. We confirmed that chemical iron chelators were able to produce the same effect.

The strategies used here to alleviate oxidative stress significantly improved performance of the glucaric acid pathway. Moreover, they are general and may be applied in other biological systems.

## *5.1.2.* Exploration of natural diversity in MIPS enzymes

The MIPS enzyme appears to limit glucaric acid pathway flux due to its competition with central carbon metabolism for its substrate, glucose-6-phosphate. Many putative MIPS enzymes exist in sequence databases, and we aimed to leverage this natural diversity to help identify improved homologs. Thirty-one MIPS enzymes were selected from a sequence similarity network for Pfam family **PF01658. Of** these **31** sequences, **19** produced detectible MI production when expressed with an N-terminal polyhistidine tag. One homolog, *H. contortus*

(Hc3 **1)** MIPS, performed as well as or better than **INO** 1 under most experimental conditions. Several eukaryotic and prokaryotic enzymes also appear to have significantly higher activity than **INOl.**

However, stable enzyme expression and thermostability seems to be a significant challenge for some variants. MIPS stability has received relatively little attention in the literature. The strong positive effect of N-terminal His tags on many enzyme variants led us to also test N-terminal **SUMO** tags and codon optimization. While these methods appeared to help stabilize some variants at **30 0C,** the effect was not maintained at **37"C.**

The small number of relatively diverse sequences tested so far limits statistical power to uncover sequence features that contribute to stability and activity. Mutations at five locations in the multiple sequence alignment were tested based on the limited information we did obtain, and one appears to slightly reduce performance in both the **INOI** and At4 MIPS sequences. Despite this challenge, our initial survey of the MIPS sequence network provides guidance for further exploration.

## *5.1.3.* Evaluation of glucuronic and glucaric acid screening methods

Improvement of glucaric acid pathway enzymes **by** protein engineering has been hampered **by** the lack of an effective screen. Both MIPS and MIOX have low activity in the pathway and may benefit from such engineering efforts. To this end, two potential screens for detection of glucuronic acid or glucaric acid produced from glucose were evaluated.

The first was a growth screen from glucose. **A** previously-developed growth screen from MI showed that MI import into the cell, rather than MIOX activity, was limiting. In our attempt to extend the screen to glucose, we developed an *E. coli* strain that could not grow from glucose without the expression of glucaric acid pathway genes. This engineered strain was able to grow from MI, but no growth was detected from glucose. Because catabolite repression in the presence of glucose does not appear to prevent consumption of glucuronic or glucaric acid in our strain, the problem is likely insufficient pathway flux.

The second was a fluorescence screen based on the previously-developed CdaR biosensor. While glucaric acid has been reported as an effector of CdaR, we found that the sensor did not respond to glucaric acid itself. Only when glucaric acid was allowed to be catabolized was a response observed. Further work to understand the sensor mechanism

suggested that the actual effector molecule may be glycerate, a downstream catabolic product of glucaric acid. In addition, the biosensor suffers from catabolite repression in the presence of glucose, which was not previously recognized. Partial alleviation of this repression can be achieved using strain engineering to reduce glucose import via the **PTS** system as well as glycolytic **flux.**

While neither screen is currently ideal for use with the glucaric acid pathway, this work served to clarify native catabolite repression and CdaR regulation in *E. coli.*

## **5.2. Future Directions**

This thesis work led to significant improvements in the glucaric acid pathway. In addition, we have gained an increased understanding of pathway enzymes and native regulation in *E. coli.* These findings can be applied for further improvement of glucaric acid production and to other pathways with similar limitations.

# *5.2.1.* Oxidative stress

The unexpected finding that a reduction in labile iron levels improves MIOX performance suggests that further work to investigate and improve iron regulation may be worthwhile. Overexpression of genes for iron sequestration proteins, such as *E coli* ferritin-like *dps* that is part of the OxyR regulon,<sup>75</sup> may produce positive results. This and other systems sensitive to ROS may also benefit from increased attention to iron content in media formulation.

As previously mentioned, the strategies we used to alleviate oxidative stress are quite general and can be used for other pathways and likely also other organisms. We selected catalase and superoxide dismutase because they are efficient enzymes that do not require reducing power. However, several other methods have been used in the literature. In order to evaluate which methods are the most effective, it would be useful to compare them side **by** side in a variety of systems known to be affected **by** ROS.

Finally, it is possible that overexpression of ROS scavenging enzymes may be beneficial for other systems under stress. This work showed that the native antioxidant network is not able to reduce ROS to sufficiently low levels for optimal MIOX performance. The regulatory responses to oxidative stress, heat shock, and osmotic stress overlap.<sup>181,182</sup> The likelihood of

overwhelming native capacity would be tied to the extent that ROS scavenging contributes to these other stress responses.

#### **5.2.2.** Protein engineering of MIPS

Further exploration of the MIPS network, coupled with directed evolution, is likely to produce an improved enzyme. Our initial survey of the MIPS sequence network showed a large number of active variants. Expression and stability appear to be significant problems for several enzymes with otherwise good performance, and these are problems that are likely amenable to further bioinformatic analysis. In addition, we found significant differences in stability between enzymes that are very similar in sequence, so the study of additional nearby sequences may illuminate sequence features associated with stability.

Since this work began, a biosensor for MI was developed in our lab. This allows for directed evolution of MIPS enzymes for enhanced MI production from glucose. Gene shuffling using a variety of active homologs may be able to produce an improved MIPS enzyme while offering further information about sequence and function.

**5.2.3.** Screen development for directed evolution in the glucaric acid pathway

The difficulties we encountered in our screen development work underscore that our understanding of native regulation, even in a comparatively well-characterized model organism like **E.** *coli,* is still incomplete. This finding motivates careful study and confirmation of regulatory mechanisms prior to deployment of biosensors.

It may be possible to modify the CdaR sensor for glucaric acid detection. First, the biosensor should be optimized for detection of glycerate, the likely true effector of the signal response. The consumption of glycerate should be prevented **by** knockout of *garK,* and other reactions that produce glycerate should be eliminated. **If** characterization of the glycerate sensor shows that it responds as expected, then relief of catabolite repression can be attempted. Based on our work, the *gudP* promoter used to drive *gfp* appears to be subject to catabolite repression, containing both a CdaR binding site and a CRP-cAMP binding site. The other CdaR-responsive promoters are likely to behave similarly.<sup>172</sup> Because both regulators function as activators and there could be interactions between them, the relief of catabolite repression may be challenging using the native promoter sequences. However, it may be possible to identify the operator

sequence and repurpose CdaR as a repressor in a new biosensor.<sup>61,183</sup> Constitutive expression of catabolic genes may also be necessary.

However, while it may be possible to overcome the regulatory limitations of the CdaR sensor, the development of a glucuronic acid biosensor may be more straightforward. UxuR is a repressor that responds to fructuronic acid and regulates glucuronic acid catabolism. **184-187** Fructuronic acid is reversibly produced from glucuronic acid via UxaC. Glucuronic acid catabolism genes are also subject to catabolite repression in the presence of glucose, but only UxaC is likely needed for sensor function.

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Appendix **A.** Supplemental Information for Chapter 2

#### **A.1. Genomic** *udh* **expression and verification**

Genomic integration of *udh* was performed to allow expression of the full glucaric acid pathway *(INO1, MIOX, and udh)* from fewer plasmids, minimizing metabolic burden. *Pseudomonas syringae* **Udh,** used in most prior glucaric acid work, was previously shown to have activity two orders of magnitude greater than that of either **INO1** or MIOX.<sup>59</sup> *Agrobacterium tumefaciens udh* was selected for integration because the rate constant for the *A. tumefaciens* enzyme is more than twice that of the *P. syringae enzyme.106*

After construction as described in Materials and Methods, genomic expression was validated to ensure it was sufficiently high to convert glucuronic acid to glucaric acid in the context of the glucaric acid pathway. This was done **by** growing **LG2512** (genomic *udh)* and **LG** 1460 harboring pTATudh2 in LB supplemented with **10** *g/L* of glucuronic acid **(pH 7).** Neither strain can consume glucuronic acid for growth. Supernatant samples were taken at **0** hours and **72** hours, and glucuronic acid concentrations were measured **by NADH** generation at 340 nm by purified Udh. LG2512 converted  $7.4 \pm 0.2$  g/L of glucuronic acid to glucaric acid, which is just slightly less than the  $8.0 \pm 0.2$  g/L converted by LG1458 with pTATudh2. These are equivalent to **8.0 g/L** and **8.6 g/L** of glucaric acid production, respectively. This rate of conversion is sufficient for the pathway because the maximum **72** hour glucaric acid titer we have observed from glucose is about 2  $g/L$  <sup>61</sup> and from myo-inositol is about 5  $g/L$ .<sup>63</sup>

**128**

 $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{2} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{2} \left(\$ 

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 $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$  and  $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$ 

Appendix B. Supplemental Information for Chapter **3**

# **El. I**, Tables

# Table B.1. Oligonucleotides used in Chapter 3



Name	<b>Sequence<sup>a</sup></b>
LG161	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGAAGACTAACATTGAACCAGC
LG162	gcggccgcaagcttTTATCACATGGATTCAACCAATTCT
LG163	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGTCTGATGTTAACCCAGCT
LG164	gcggccgcaagcttTTATCATTCAGCACCAATAATGAAAG
LG165	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGGCTTCTTCTGATTTCTTTCAA
LG166	gcggccgcaagcttTTATCATTGTCTAGCATCAATTTCGG
LG167	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGTCTTCCAGAAAGATCAGAGT
LG168	gcggccgcaagcttTTATCAACCTTGTTCAGCAGG
LG169	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGGGTTCTGTTAGAGTCGC
LG170	gcggccgcaagcttTTATCATCTCTCAACTTCACCTCT
LG171	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGGTTAAGGTTGTCATTTTGGG
LG172	gcggccgcaagcttTTATCACAACCATCTAGGTTTTAAACC
LG173	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGACTACTGATTCTTACTTCACC
IG174	gcggccgcaagcttTTATCACTTTAATCTTTCTTCAAAACGC
LG175	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGACTGGTAGAATTAAGGTTGG
LG176	gcggccgcaagcttTTATTCACCAGCAACGAACTT
<b>LG177</b>	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGGATAAGATTAAGATTGCTATTGTTG
LG178	gcggccgcaagcttTTATCTTTCTCTTTCACCAGCAATA
LG179	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGGCTGACAGAAAAATTAGAGTT
LG180	gcggccgcaagcttTTATCTTTCTCTTTCACCTCTAATGAAT
LG181	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGACTTACCAAACTGGTGTTTTAT
LG182	gcggccgcaagcttTTAGGCGTTGTATTCAAAGTGC
LG183	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGCACTCCAGATTGCAAG
LG184	gcggccgcaagcttTTAAGCGTAAGCCTTATCGTC
LG185	cacagccaggatccgaattcATGAACGGTTACGCTAACG
LG186	gcggccgcaagcttTTAGTTAGCTTTTGGTAATTGAGTGA
LG220	cacagccaggatccgaattcGGTCAAGGTTTTGATCTTGGGTC
LG221	cacagccaggatccgaattcGAAGGTTTGGTTAGTCGGTGC
LG222	cacagccaggatccgaattcGTCCGAGCACCAATCTTTGC
LG223	cacagccaggatccgaattcGTTCATCGAATCTTTCAAGGTTGAATCTC
LG224	cacagccaggatccgaattcGGCCCCACATGCTTCTTC
LG225	cacagccaggatccgaattcGAAGCAAGAGATTAAGCCAGCTAC
LG226	cacagccaggatccgaattcGACTGTTAATAAGGGTATTTCCATCAGAGT
LG227	cacagccaggatccgaattcGTCTTCCATTGACTTCAAATCTTCTAAGTC
LG228	cacagccaggatccgaattcGGGTAAGGTCAGAGTCGCC
LG229	cacagccaggatccgaattcGTCTTCCGGTGCTAACACTC
LG230	cacagccaggatccgaattcGAAGCCAACTAATAACTCTACTTTGGAAG
LG231	cacagccaggatccgaattcGTCTATTAGAGTTGCTATTGCCGG
LG232	cacagccaggatccgaattcGGAGGCTGCTGCTCAATTC

Table B.1. Oligonucleotides used in Chapter 3 (cont.)

Name	<b>Sequence<sup>a</sup></b>
LG233	cacagccaggatccgaattcGGGTTCCAAGAAGGTTAGAGTCG
LG234	cacagccaggatccgaattcGTATTACTTCGACAGAGGTAACGTCAT
LG235	cacagccaggatccgaattcGAAGACTAACATTGAACCAGCTGAAG
LG236	cacagccaggatccgaattcGTCTGATGTTAACCCAGCTGC
LG237	cacagccaggatccgaattcGGCTTCTTCTGATTTCTTTCAAGAACC
LG238	cacagccaggatccgaattcGGAAAGAACCAACGTTAAGCCAG
LG239	cacagccaggatccgaattcGTTCATCGAATCCTTCAAGGTTGAATC
LG240	cacagccaggatccgaattcGTCTTCCAGAAAGATCAGAGTCGC
LG241	cacagccaggatccgaattcGGGTTCTGTTAGAGTCGCTATTGT
LG242	cacagccaggatccgaattcGGTTAAGGTTGTCATTTTGGGTCAAG
LG243	cacagccaggatccgaattcGTTCATCGAAAACTTTAAGGTTGAATGTCC
LG244	cacagccaggatccgaattcGACTACTGATTCTTACTTCACCCCATC
LG245	cacagccaggatccgaattcGACTGGTAGAATTAAGGTTGGTTTGG
LG246	cacagccaggatccgaattcGGATAAGATTAAGATTGCTATTGTTGGTGTTG
LG247	cacagccaggatccgaattcGGCTGACAGAAAAATTAGAGTTGCTATC
LG248	cacagccaggatccgaattcGACTTACCAAACTGGTGTTTTATTCGTTG
LG249	cacagccaggatccgaattcGCACTCCAGATTGCAAGATAGAAG
LG250	cacagccaggatccgaattcGAACGGTTACGCTAACGGTAC
LG251	acctccaatctgttcgcgg
LG252	gcggccgcaagctt
LG253	cgcgaacagattggaggtACAGAAGATAATATTGCTCCAATCACC
LG260	cgcgaacagattggaggtGTCAAGGTTTTGATCTTGGGTCAA
LG261	cgcgaacagattggaggtTTCATCGAATCTTTCAAGGTTGAATCTC
LG262	cgcgaacagattggaggtGAGGCTGCTGCTCAATTCTT
LG263	cgcgaacagattggaggtTTCATCGAATCCTTCAAGGTTGAATC
LG264	cgcgaacagattggaggtACTACTGATTCTTACTTCACCCCATC
LG265	cgcgaacagattggaggtAACGGTTACGCTAACGGTACT
LG271	taccgaggccattaaagtggagccattgttgcc
LG272	ggcaacaatggctccactttaatggcctcggta
LG273	ttcgccaataccgagcccactaaagtggagc
LG274	gctccactttagtgggctcggtattggcgaa
LG275	gactgcaaatactgagaggttcgtagaagtatctcctg
LG276	caggagatacttctacgaacctctcagtatttgcagtc
LG277	ctcgtccattgccctttttgagtccccgacggg
LG278	cccgtcggggactcaaaaagggcaatggacgag
LG279	tatagatctgcgtcattgatgtcccaaccagagacg
LG280	cgtctctggttgggacatcaatgacgcagatctata
LG281	gtagcaccctgaccggaggcgttattgcaaa
LG282	tttgcaataacgcctccggtcagggtgctac

Table B.1. Oligonucleotides used in Chapter 3 (cont.)

Name	Sequence <sup>a</sup>
LG283	ggtggttgggatattagcaatatgaatctggcagacg
LG284	cgtctgccagattcatattgctaatatcccaaccacc
LG285	gtggtctgccaacactgaacgttattccgacatcgttgaag
LG286	cttcaacgatgtcggaataacgttcagtgttggcagaccac
LG73	ggcgctatcatgccataccg
LG74	gattatgcggccgtgtacaatacg
LG206	ggcttcttctgatttctttcaagaacc
LG266	cagccaggatccgaattcg

Table B. **1.** Oligonucleotides used in Chapter **3** (cont.)

<sup>a</sup>Homologous regions to MIPS genes are capitalized.

Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI**

 $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$  and  $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$ 



Organism UniProt **ID** MIPS **DNA** Sequence (Codon-Optimized for **S.** cerevisiae) Mycobacterium P9WK11 **ATGTCCGAGCACCAATCTTTGCCAGCCCCAGAAGCTTCCACTGAAGTTAGAGTCGCCATCGTCGGTGTCGGTAACTGTGCTTCC** tuberculosis **TC1TGGTTCAAGGTGTTGAGTACTATTATAATGCTGATGATACTTCTACCGTTCCAGGTTTGATGCATGTCAGATTTGGTCCTT ACCACGTTAGAGACGTCAAATTCGTTGCCGCTTTTGACGTTGATGCCAAGAAGGTTGGTTTTGACTTGTCTGATGCTATCTTCG CCTCCGAAAACAATACTATTAAGATCGCTGATGTTGCTCCAACTAACGTCATTGTTCAAAGAGGTCCAACTTTGGATGGTATCG GTAAATACTACGCCGACACTATTGAATTGTCCGATGCTGAACCAGTCGATGTTGTTCAAGCTTTAAAGGAAGCTAAGGTTGAC GTTTTGGTTTCCTACTTGCCAGTCGGTTCTGAAGAAGCCGACAAATTCTACGCTCAATGTGCTATCGATGCTGGTGTCGCCTTC GTTAACGCTTTGCCAG11 1ATTGCTTCGACCCAGTTTGGGCTAAAAAGTTCACTGATGCTAGAGTCCCTATCGTCGGTGAC GACATCAAATCTCAAGTCGGTGCTACTATTACTCACAGAGTTTTGGCTAAATTGTTCGAAGACAGAGGTGTTCAATTAGATCGT ACTATGCAATTGAACGTCGGTGGTAATATGGATTTCTTGAACATGTTGGAAAGAGAAAGATTGGAATCTAAGAAGATCTCTAA GACTCAAGCCGTTACTTCTAACTTGAAGAGAGAATTCAAGACCAAAGACGTTCACATCGGTCCATCTGACCACGTTGGTTGGT TGGATGATAGAAAGTGGGCTTACGTTAGATTGGAAGGTAGAGCTTGGTGATGTCCCATTGAATTTGGAATACAAGTTAGA GGTTTGGGATTCTCCAAACTCTGCCGGTGTTATCATCGATGCTGTTAGAGCCGCTAAGATTGCTAAAGATAGAGGTATTGGTG GTCCTGTTATTCCAGCTTCTGCCTACTTGATGAAGTCTCCACCAGAACAATTGCCAGACGACATCGCCAGAGCTCAATTGGAAG AATTTATTA1TGGTTGATAA** Arabidopsis thaliana **Q38862 ATGTTCATCGAATCTTTCAAGGTTGAATCTCCAAACGTrAAATACACTGAAAACGAAATTAACTCTGTCTACGATTACGAAACT ACTGAAGTTGTCCACGAAAACCGTAATGGTACCTATCAATGGGTTGTCAAACCAAAGACTGTTAAGTACGACTTCAAGACTGA CACCAGAGTCCCAAAGTTGGGTGTCATGTTGGTTGGTTGGGGTGGTAATAACGGTTCTACCTTAACTGCTGGTGTCATCGCCA ACAAAGAAGGTATTTCTTGGGCTACCAAGGATAAGGTTCAACAAGCTAACTACTTCGGTTCTTTAACTCAAGCTCTTCCATTA** GAGTTGGTTCTTACAACGGTGAGGAAATCTACGCTCCTTTCAAGTCTTTATTGCCAATGGTTAACCCAGAAGATGTCGTCTTTG **GTGGTTGGGATATCTCTGACATGAATTTGGCCGATGCTATGGCCAGAGCTAGAGTCTTAGACATCGACTTGCAAAAACAATTA AGACCTTACATGGAAAACATGATCCCATTGCCAGGTATTTACGACCCAGATTTCATTGCTGCTAATCAAGGTTCCAGAGCCAAT TCTGTTATTAAGGGTACCAAGAAGGAACAAGTTGATCATATCATCAAGGATATGAGAGAATTCAAGGAAAAGAACAAGGTTG ATAAATTGGTTGTCTTGTGGACTGCTAACACCGAAAGATACTCCAACGTTATTGTGGTTTGAACGATACTACCGAAAACTTGT TAGCCTCCGTCGAAAAGGACGAATCTGAAATCTCCCCATCTACTTTGTATGCTATTGCTTGTGTTTTGGAAGGTATTCCATTCAT CAACGGTTCTCCACAAAACACTTTCGTTCCAGGTTTAATTGAATTGGCCATCTCTAAGAACTGTTTAATCGGTGGTGATGATTTT AAGTCCGGTCAAACTAAGATGAAGTCCGTCTTAGTTGACTTCTTGGTCGGTGCCGGTATCAAACCAACTTCTATCGTTTCTTAC AATCACTTGGGTAACAACGATGGTATGAACTTATCTGCTCCACAAACCTTTAGATCTAAGGAAATCTCTAAATCCAACGTTGTT GACGACATGGTTGCTTCTAATGGTATTTTATTCGAGCCAGGTGAACACCCAGACCATGTCGTTGTCATTAAGTACGTTCCATAC GTCGCTGATTCCAAAAGAGCTATGGACGAATATACCTCTGAAATTTTCATGGGTGGTAGAAACACCATCGTTTTGCACAATACT TGTGAAGATTCTTTGTTGGCCGCTCCAATCATTTAGATTTGGTTTTGTTGGCTGAATTATCTACTCGTATTCAATCAAGGCTG AAGGTGAAGGTAAGTTTCACTC111TCACCCAGTTGCTACTATTTTATCCTACTTGACTAAGGCTCCATTGGTrCCACCAGGTAC CCCAGTTGTCAACGCCTTGTCTAAGCAAAGAGCTATGTTGGAAAACATCTTGAGAGCTTGTGTGGTTTGGCTCCAGAAAACA ACATGATCATGGAATATAAGTGATAA**

Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)

Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)

<b>Organism</b>	<b>UniProt ID</b>	MIPS DNA Sequence (Codon-Optimized for S. cerevisiae)
Aspergillus clavatus	A1CFT5	ATGGCCCCACATGCTTCTTCCGATGTTGCTGCCAACGGTGCCGTCAACGGTTCCGCTCGTGCTACCTCCGCCCCATTGTTCACT
		GTCGCTTCCCCAAATGTCGAATACACTGACAACGAAATTAAATCTCAATATGCCTACCACACTACTGAAATTACCAGAAACGCT
		GACGGTAAGTGGGTTGCTACTCCAAAAGTCACTAACTACCAATTCAAGGTTGACCGTAAGGTTGGTAAGGTTGGTATGATGTT
		AGTTGGTTGGGGTGGTAACAACGGTTCTACCGTCACCGCTGGTATCATTGCTAACAGAAGAAACTTGTCCTGGGAGACCAGA
		GAAGGTGAAAGAGCTTCTAACTATTACGGTTCTGTCGTTATGTCTTCTACCGTTAAATTAGGTACCGAGACCAAGACTGGTGA
		AGAGATCAACATCCCATTCCACGATTTATTGCCAATGGTCCACCCAAACGACTTGGTTATTGGTGGTTGGGACATCTCTTCCTT
		AAACCATTGCCTTCTATTTATTACCCAGATTTCATTGCTGCTAATCAAGAAGACAGAGCTGACAATGTTATCGAAGGTGATAAG
		GCTTGTTGGGCTCATGTTGAAAGAATCCAAAAGGATATGCGTGATTTCAAAACCCAACATGGTTTGGATAAGGTTATTGTCAT
		GTGGACTGCCAATACCGAACGTTACGCTGATATCTTGCCAGGTATTAACGACACTGCCGACAACTTGTTGAATGCTATCAAGA
		ACGGTCACGAAGAAGTTTCTCCATCTACTGTTTTCGCTGTTGCTTGTATTTTGGACAACGTTCCATTTATCAATGGTTCCCCACA
		AAACACTTTCGTTCCAGGTGCTATCCAATTAGCCGAAAAGCATAACGCTTTCATCGGTGATGACGATTTCAAGTCCGGTCAAAC
		CAAGATGAAGTCCGCTTTGGTTGATTTTTTGATTAACGCTGGTATTAAATTGACTTCTATCGCTTCTTACAACCACTTGGGTAAT
		AACGACGGTAAGAATTTGTCCTCCCAAAAGCAATTCCGTTCTAAGGAAATTTCTAAGTCTAACGTTGTCGATGACATGGTCGCC
		GCCAACAACATTTTGTACAAGGAAGGTGAACACCCTGATCACACCGTTGTTATCAAGTACATGCCAGCTGTTGGTGATAACAA
		AAGAGCTTTAGACGAGTACTACGCTGAAATTTTCATGGGTGGTCATCAAACTATCTCTTTGTTCAATATTTGTGAGGACTCTTT
		GTTAGCCTCCCCATTGATCATCGACTTGGTCGTCATCGCTGAAATGATGACCAGAATTTCTTGGAAGTCTGCTGAAGAGGCCG
		ACTACAAAGGTTTCCACTCCGTCTTATCCATTTTATCCTATATGTTAAAAGCCCCATTGACCCCACCAGGTACCCCTGTTGTCAAT
		GCTTTGGCTAAGCAAAGATCTGCCTTGACCAACATTTTCCGTGCTTGTGTTGGTTTGCAACCAGACTCTGAAATGACTTTGGAA
		CATAAGTTGTTCTGATAA
<b>Bacteroides</b>	D7IFW4	ATGAAGCAAGAGATTAAGCCAGCTACTGGTAGATTGGGTGTCTTAGTCGTTGGTGGTGGTGCTGCTGCTACTACCATGAT
thetaiotaomicron		CGTCGGTACTTTGGCTTCCCGTAAGGGTTTGGCCAAACCAATCGGTTCTATTACTCAATTGGCTACCATGAGAATGGAAAACA
		ACGAGGAAAAGTTGATTAAGGATGTTGTTCCATTGACCGACTTGAACGATATTGTCTTCGGTGGTTGGGACATTTTCCCTGAC
		AACGCTTATGAAGCTGCCATGTACGCTGAAGTCTTGAAGGAAAAGGACTTAAACGGTGTTAAAGATGAATTGGAAGCCATCA
		AACCAATGCCAGCTGCTTTCGATCACAATTGGGCCAAACGTTTAAACGGTACTCACATTAAGAAGGCTGCCACTAGATGGGAA
		ATGGTCGAGCAATTAAGACAAGACATTCGTGATTTCAAGGCTGCCAACAATTGTGAAAGAGTTGTTTTATGGGCTGCTTC
		CACCGAAATTTACATCCCATTATCTGATGAACATATGTCTTTGGCTGCTTTGGAAAAGGCTATGAAGGACAACAACACCGAAGT
		CATTTCTCCATCTATGTGTTACGCTTACGCTGCCATCGCCGAAGATGCTCCATTCGTTATGGGTGCTCCAAACTTATGTGTCGAT
		ACCCCTGCCATGTGGGAGTTCTCTAAGCAAAAAAACGTCCCTATCTCTGGTAAAGACTTCAAGTCTGGTCAAACCTTAATGAAA
		CAATATTGATATCTTTGGTTGGATGGGTTACCCAATGGAGATTAAAGTTAACTTTTTGTGTAGAGACTCTATCTTGGCTGCTCC
		AATCGCCTTGGATTTGGTTTTATTCTCTGACTTGGCTATGAGAGCTGGTATGTGTGGTATTCAAACTTGGTTGTCCTTTTTCTGT
		CATGATCGGTGAAAAGGAACCAGACTACTTGGCCTGATAA





Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)



Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)

Organism	<b>UniProt ID</b>	MIPS DNA Sequence (Codon-Optimized for S. cerevisiae)
Dichomitus squalens	<b>R7SX42</b>	ATGTCTTCCGGTGCTAACACTCCAGAATCTCAATTGGAATCTGTTTTGCCAGTTCACCCAACCGCTGTTAGAAGAGCTTCTCCAA
		TIGTTGTTCAATCCGAACACACCTCCTACACTAACGATCACATTATTTCCAAATTCACCAACAGAGGTGCTGACGTCACTATCGT
		TGAAGGTCAATACATCGTTACCCCAACTGCCAAGCCATACGAATTCCAAACCGCTAGAAAGGTTGCTAAGACTGGTTTGATGA
		TGGTCGGTTGGGGTGGTAACAACGGTTCCACTTTGTCTGCCACCATTTTAGCTAATCGTCACAACATTGTCTGGAGAACTAAGT
		CCGGTGTCCAACAACCTAACTACATTGGTTCCTTATTAAGAGCCTCCACTGTTAGATTGGGTGCTGACCCATCTACCGGTAAGG
		ATGTTTACGTTCCTATCTCCGATGTTTTGCCTATGGTTCATCCAAACGACTTAGTCTTAGGTGGTTGGGATATCTCTGGTGCTAG
		ATTGGACGAAGCTATGAAGAGAGCTCAAGTTTTGGATTGGGATTTACAAAGACAAGTTATGCCACATATGGCCGCTTTGGGTT
		CCCCATTGCCATCTATTTATTACCCAGACTTCATCGCTGCCAATCAAGAAGCTAGAGCCGACAACGTTGTTCCAGGTACCGATA
		AACAAGCCCACTTGGAACACTTAAGAGCCGACATCAGAAAATTCAAAGAACTCACGGTTTAGACAGAGTTGTCTTTTGG
		ACTGCCAATACCGAAAGATATTCCGACATCATCCCAGGTGTCAACGACACCGCTGATAACTTGTTGAACGCTATTAAAGCTTCT
		CATTCTGAAGTCTCTCCTTCCACTTTGTTTGCTGTTGCCGCCATTTTGGAAGGTGAACCATTCGTTAACGGTGCCCCACAAAACA
		CTTTCGTTCCAGGTGTTATCGAATTAGCCGAAAGATTGCAATCCTTTATCGGTGGTGATTGAATTTGAAGTCCGGTCAAACTAAGT
		TGAAGTCTGTTTTCGCCGAATTTTTAGTCAACGCTGGTATTAAGCCATTGTCCATTGCTTCTTACAACCACTTGGGTAACAACGA
		TGGTCATAACTTGTCCGCCGAACCACAATTCAAGTCCAAGGAAATTTCTAAGTCTTCTGTTGTTGATGACATGGTTTCCGCCAA
		CGCTTTGTTATTCAAGCCATCTGCCGTTGGTGCTCCAGCTGGTTCTAAGGAAGCTAAGGGTGAACATCCAGATCACATCGTTGT
		CATTAAGTACGTTCCAGCTGTCGGTGATTCTAAGAGAGCTATTGACGAATATTACTCCGAAATTTTCTGTGGTGGTAGATCTAC
		TATCAACATTTTTAACGAATGTGAAGACTCCTTGTTGGCTACTCCATTGATCTTGGACTTGACCATCTTGACTGAATTATTGACT
		CGTGTCAAGTACAGAGACGCTTCTGCCGGTAAGGACTTCAAACCTTTGTATCCAATTTTATCCTTGTTGTCTTACATGTTGAAG
		GCCCCATTGGTCAAGCCAGGTACCGATGTCGTCAACTCCTTGAATAGACAAAGAAATGCTTTGGAAACCTTTTTGAAGGCCTG
		TATCGGTTTGGAAGGTTCTTCCGACTTATTGTTGGAGACTAGAATCTGGTGATAA

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Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)

Organism	<b>UniProt ID</b>	MIPS DNA Sequence (Codon-Optimized for S. cerevisiae)
Drosophila	097477	ATGAAGCCAACTAATAACTCTACTTTGGAAGTTATCTCCCCAAAGGTCCAAGTTGACGATGAATTCATTACCACTGACTACGAT
melanogaster		TACCAAACTTCCCACGTCAAGCGTACTGCTGACGGTCAATTGCAAGTTCACCCTCAAACTACCTCTTTAAAAATCAGAACCGGT
		CGTCATGTTCCAAAATTAGGTGTTATGTTAGTTGGTTGGGGTGGTAACAACGGTTCTACCTTGACTGCTGCCTTGGAAGCTAAC
		AGAAGACAATTGAAATGGAGAAAGAGAACCGGTGTTCAAGAAGCTAATTGGTACGGTTCCATCACTCAAGCCTCTACCGTTTT
		CATCGGTTCCGATGAAGACGGTGGTGATGTCTACGTTCCAATGAAAGAATTGTTGCCTATGGTTGAACCTGATAACATTATCG
		TCGATGGTTGGGACATCTCCGGTTTGCATTTAGGTGACGCTATGAGAAGAGCCGAAGTTTTAGATGTTGCTTTGCAAGATCAA
		ATCTACGATCAATTGGCTCAATTGAGACCAAGACCATCTATTTATGACCCAGACTTTATTGCTGCTAACCAATCTGACAGAGCT
		GACAACGTTATTAGAGGTACTAGATTGGAACAATACGAACAAATCAGAAAGGACATTAGAGACTTCCGTGAGAGATCTGGTG
		TTGATTCTGTCATCGTCTTGTGGACCGCTAACACCGAAAGATTCGCTGACGTCCAACCAGGTTTGAATACTACTTCCCAAGAAT
		TAATTGCTTCTTTGGAAGCCAACCACTCTGAAGTTTCCCCATCTACCATCTTTGCCATGGCTTCTATCGCTGAAGGTTGTACCTA
		CATTAATGGTTCTCCTCAAAATACTTTTGTCCCAGGTTTGATTCAATTGGCTGAAGAAAAGAACGTCTTCATTGCTGGTGATGA
		TTTCAAGTCTGGTCAAACCAAGATTAAGTCTGTTTTGGTCGATTTCTTGGTCGGTGCCGGTATCAAACCAGTCTCTATTGCTTCC
		TACAACCACTTGGGTAACAACGATGGTAAGAACTTGTCTGCTCCTCAACAATTCAGATCTAAAGAAATCTCTAAATCTAACGTT
		GTTGATGACATGGTTGCCTCTAATCGTTTGTTGTACGGTCCAGACGAACACCCAGATCATGTCGTTGTTATCAAGTACGTTCCA
		TACGTTGGTGACTCCAAGAGAGCTATGGACGAATATACCTCTGAAATTATGATGGGTGGTCACAACACCTTGGTTATCCACAA
		CACTTGTGAAGATTCTTTGTTAGCTACCCCATTGATTTTAGATTTGGTTATTTTAGGTGAATTATCCACCAGAATTCAATTGAGA
		AATGCCGAAAAGGAATCTGCTCCATGGGTTCCATTCAAGCCAGTCTTATCCTTGTTATCTTATTTGTGTAAAGCTCCTTTGGTCC
		CACAAGGTTCTCAAGTCGTTAACTCTTTATTCAGACAAAGAGCTGCTATTGAAAACATTTTGCGTGGTTGTATTGGTTTGCCAC
		CTATCTCTCACATGACTTTGGAACAAAGATTCGATTTCTCTACCATTACTAACGAACCACCATTGAAAAGAGTTAAAATTTTGGG
		TCAACCTTGCTCCGTTGAATCTGTTACTAACGGTAAAAAGTTACACGCTAACGGTCACTCCAACGGTTCTGCTAAGTTGGCCAC
		<b>TAATGGTAACGGTCACTGATAA</b>
Gardnerella vaginalis	<b>E3D8F4</b>	ATGTCTATTAGAGTTGCTATTGCCGGTGTTGGTAATTGTGCTTCTTCCTTGGTTCAAGGTGTCGAGTACTATAAGAACGCCAAC
		GATGGTGATAAGATCCCTGGTTTGATGCATGCCGTTTTCGGTCAATACAGAGTTAGAGATATTGAGTTTGTTGCTGCTTTCGAC
		GTTGACGCTTTGAAGGTTGGTCACGACTTGTCTGAAGCCATTTATGCTTCTCAAAACAACACCATTCGTTTCGCCGACGTTCCTA
		ACTTGGGTGTCAAGGTTCAAAGAGGTCCAACCTACGACGGTTTGGGTGACTACTACAAGCAAATGATCGAAGAGTCTAAGGA
		AGAACCAGTTAACGTTGCTGCTGTCTTGAGAGATTTACATGTCGACGTTTTGGTCTCTTACTTGCCAGTTGGTTCTGAACAAGC
		TGACAAGGCTTACGCTACCGCTGCTATGGAAGCCGGTTGTGCCTTCGTTAACTGTTTACCAGTCTTCATTGCTTCTGACCCAGTC
		TGGGCTCAAAAGTTTAGAGATGCTGGTGTCCCAATTATCGGTGATGATATCAAGTCTCAAGTTGGTGCTACTATTACTCACAGA
		AACATGTTGCAAAGATCCAGATTAGAATCCAAAAAAATTTCTAAGACCCGTGCTGTTACTTCCATTGTTCCTCACGATATGGAT
		ACTTTTGGTGATGTCCCATTATCTTTGGAATACAAGTTGGAAGTTTGGGATTCTCCTAACTCTGCTGGTATCGTCATTGACGCC
		GTTAGAGCTGCTAAAATTGCTTTGGATAGAAAATTGTCTGGTCCAATCTTAGCTCCATCTTCTTACTTCATGAAATCTCCAGCTG
		TCCAACACGAAGATTCTGAAGCCAGAGAATTGGTCGAAAGATATATCGCTGGTGACGTTGAAGCCGACGAATCCCAATTGAA
		TGCCGATGTCGAGGCTGCTAAGGAACACGGTAAGTCCGTTTGGAGAGCCTGATAA

Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)

Organism	<b>UniProt ID</b>	MIPS DNA Sequence (Codon-Optimized for S. cerevisiae)
Homo sapiens	Q9NPH2	ATGGAGGCTGCTGCTCAATTCTTCGTTGAATCTCCAGACGTCGTCTACGGTCCTGAGGCTATCGAAGCTCAATACGAATATAG
		AACTACTAGAGTTTCTAGAGAAGGTGGTGTTTTGAAGGTCCACCCAACTTCCACTAGATTTACTTTCAGAACTGCCAGACAAGT
		TCCACGTTTGGGTGTCATGTTAGTTGGTTGGGGTGGTAACAACGGTTCTACTTTGACTGCCGCTGTTTTGGCCAACAGATTAAG
		ATTGTCTTGGCCAACTAGATCCGGTAGAAAGGAAGCTAATTACTATGGTTCTTTAACTCAAGCCGGTACCGTTTCTTTGGGTTT
		AGACGCTGAAGGTCAAGAAGTCTTCGTTCCATTCTCCGCCGTTTTACCAATGGTTGCTCCAAACGATTTGGTTTTTGATGGTTG
		GGATATTTCCTCTTTAAACTTGGCTGAAGCTATGAGAAGAGCTAAGGTTTTGGACTGGGGTTTGCAAGAACAATTGTGGCCAC
		ATATGGAAGCTTTGAGACCAAGACCATCTGTCTACATTCCAGAATTTATTGCTGCTAACCAATCCGCTAGAGCTGACAATTTGA
		TTCCAGGTTCCAGAGCTCAACAATTGGAACAAATTAGAAGAGATATTAGAGACTTCAGATCCTCTGCCGGTTTGGACAAAGTC
		ATCGTCTTATGGACCGCCAACACCGAAAGATTCTGTGAAGTTATTCCAGGTTTAAACGACACTGCTGAAAATTTGTTGCGTACC
		ATCGAATTGGGTTTGGAAGTTTCTCCATCTACCTTATTCGCCGTTGCTTCCATCTTGGAAGGTTGTGCTTTCTTGAACGGTTCTC
		CTCAAAACACCTTGGTCCCAGGTGCTTTGGAGTTAGCTTGGCAACATAGAGTCTTCGTCGGTGGTGATGACTTCAAGTCTGGT
		CAAACTAAGGTCAAATCCGTCTTGGTCGATTTCTTGATCGGTTCCGGTTTGAAGACCATGTCCATTGTTTCTTACAATCATTTGG
		GTAACAACGACGGTGAAAACTTGTCCGCTCCATTGCAATTCAGATCTAAAGAAGTTTCCAAGTCTAACGTCGTCGATGACATG
		GTTCAATCCAATCCAGTTTTATACACTCCAGGTGAAGAACCAGACCACTGCGTTGTTATTAAATACGTCCCATATGTCGGTGAC
		TCTAAACGTGCTTTAGACGAATATACCTCCGAATTAATGTTGGGTGGTACTAACACCTTGGTTTTACATAACACTTGTGAAGAC
		TCTTTGTTGGCTGCTCCAATTATGTTGGATTTGGCTTTATTGACTGAATTATGCCAAAGAGTCTCTTTCTGCACCGATATGGATC
		AACGCTTTGTTCAGACAAAGATCTTGTATCGAAAACATTTTGAGAGCCTGTGTTGGTTTGCCACCACAAAACCACATGTTGTTG
		GAACACAAGATGGAAAGACCAGGTCCTTCCTTGAAGAGAGTCGGTCCAGTTGCTGCTACTTACCCAATGTTAAATAAGAAGG
		GTCCAGTTCCAGCTGCTACCAACGGTTGCACTGGTGATGCTAACGGTCATTTGCAAGAAGCACCTCCAATGCCAACCACTTGA
		<b>TAA</b>
Mesorhizobium	LOKRR8	ATGGGTTCCAAGAAGGTTAGAGTCGGTATTGTTGGTGTTGGTAACTGTGCCTCCTCCTTGGTTCAAGGTTTGTCTTATTACAGA
australicum		CACGCCAAGTCTAACGAACCAATTCCTGGTTTAGTTCATGCCGACTTGGGTGGTTACCATGTCGATGACATTGAAATTGTCTGT
		GCTTTCGATGTTGCTAAGTCTAAGGTCGGTCGTGACGTTGCTGACGCTATTTACGCTCCACCAAATAATACCTTCAGATTCGCC
		GATGCTCCAACTACCGGTGTTTTGGTTGAAAGAGGTCCAACTTTAGATGGTATTGGTAAGTATTTGAGAGATGAAATCGAAGA
		AGCCCCAGAACCAGTCGCTAACGTTTCCGAAATTTTGCGTGATTCCGGTGCTGATGTCTTGGTCTCTTATTTGCCAGTCGGTTC
		CGAAGAAGCCACTCATTTTTACGCTGAATGTGCTTTGGAAGCCGGTTGTGCTTTCGTCAACTGCATTCCTGTCTTCATCGCCTCT
		ACCGATTTCTTAAATATGTTGGAACGTGAAAGATTGGAATCCAAGAAGATCTCCAAGACTCAATCTGTCACTTCTCAATTAGAC
		AGTTGAGGGTACCACCTTCGGTGGTGTCCCATTAAATGCTGAATTAAAGTTAGAGGTCTGGGACTCTCCAAACTCTGCTGGTG
		TIGTTATTGACGCTGTTAGATGTGCTAAATTGGCCTTGGACAGAGGTATTGCTGGTGCTTTAACCGGTCCTTGTTCCTACTTCAT
		GAAGTCCCCACCAGAACAATTCACCGATGCTGAAGCCCGTCAACGTACCTTGGCTTTCATTGCTGGTAAGGATGAACCATTGTT
		<b>GGACGCTGCTGAGTGATAA</b>

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Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)

Organism	<b>UniProt ID</b>	MIPS DNA Sequence (Codon-Optimized for S. cerevisiae)
Methanolobus	<b>K4ME48</b>	ATGTATTACTTCGACAGAGGTAACGTCATGGACAAGATCAAGATCGCTATTGCCGGTGTCGGTAACTGTGCTTCCTCTTTAATC
psychrophilus		CAAGGTATCGAATACTACAGAGACAAACATGAAAACGACGCTATCGGTTTGATGCACTGGGACATTGGTGGTTACCGTCCATC
		TGACATTGAAGTCGTCGCCGCTTTCGACATCGACAAGAGAAAGGTTGGTAAAGACATCTCTGAAGCCATCTTCGCCCCACCAA
		ATTGTACTGCCATCTTCTGTTCTGACATTCCACAAAGAGGTGTCGTTGTTAAGATGGGTTGTATTTTGGACGGTTTCTCTGAAC
		AAGGACTCTGGTGCTGAAATCTTGTTGAACTATTTACCAGTTGGTTCTGAACAAGCCACTCGTTTCTACATGGATTGTGCTTTG
		GACGCCGGTGTCGCCTGTGTCAACAACATGCCAGTTTTCATCGCTTCTGATCCAGAATGGGCTGCTAAGTTCGAGAAGCGTGG
		TATTCCTATCATTGGTGACGATATCAAAGCTCAATTAGGTGCTACCCATTACCCATAGAATGTTGGCTGACTTGTTCAACAAGAG
		AGGTGTTAAGTTGGAAAGAACTTACCAATTGAACACTGGTGGTAATACTGACTTCTTGAATATGTTGAATAGATCTAGATTGG
		CTTCTAAGAAGACTTCCAAAACTGAAGCTGTTCAATCCGTTTTGGCTCAAAGATTGGACGACGACAACATTCATGTCGGTCCTT
		CCGACTACGTTCCATGGCAAAACGACAACAAGGTCTGTTTCTTGAGAATGGAAGGTAAGTTATTTGGTGATGTTCCAATGAAC
		TTAGAGTTGCGTTTGTCTGTTGAAGACTCTCCAAACTCTGCTGGTGTCGTCATTGACGCTATTCGTTGTTGTAAGTTGGCCTTG
		GATAGAGGTATCGGTGGTGTCTTGTACTCCCCATCTGCCTACTTCATGAAACATCCACCAAAACAATTCACTGACGATGAAGCT
Mucilaginibacter	H1Y1B6	ATGAAGACTAACATTGAACCAGCTGAAGGTAAATTGGGTATCTTGATCCCTGGTTTGGGTGCTGTTGCTACTACTTTAATCGCT
paludis		GGTGTCGAAGCTGTTAAGAAGGGTATTTCTAAGCCAATCGGTTCCTTGACCCAAATGTCCTCCATCCGTTTAGGTAAGAGAAC
		CGATAATAGATACCCAAAGATCAAGGACTTCGTTCCATTGGCTGACTTAAACGACATTGTCTTCGGTGGTTGGGATGTCTACG
		CTGACAACGTTTACCAAGCTGCCTCCAACGCCAAGGTCTTGGACCAACACTTGTTGGACGCTGTTAAGGAACCTTTGGAAGCT
		ATCGTCCCAATGAAGGCCGCTTTCGACCATAATTACGTTAAGAATTTGACCGGTACCCATATCAAGGAATTTACTACCAGATAC
		GACTTAGCCCAACAAGTCATCGCCGACATTGAAAACTTTAAGGAAAAGCACAACTTAAACAGAGTCGTTTTGGTTTGGTGTGG
		TTCTACCGAAATTTACTTCGAAGAATCTGAAATTCACCAAAACTTGGCTAATTTCGAACAAGCTTTACAAAACAACGATGAACG
		TATCGCTCCATCTATGATTTACGCTTACGCTGCTTTGAAGTTGGGTATTCCATTCGCCAACGGTGCTCCAAATTTGACTGTTGAC
		ATTCCAGCTTTAGTCGAATTGTCCAAGTTGACCCAACACTCCAATTGCCGGTAAGGACTTCAAGACCGGTCAAACTTTGATGAAG
		TGGGTTTTGGACGATCCAGACAATTTTAAAACTAAGGAGGTTTCTAAGTTGTCTGTTTTGGAAGAAATCTTCCAACCAGAAATT
		AACCCAGAATTATACGGTGACATGTACCACAAGGTTAGAATCAACTACTACCCACCACGTGGTGATAACAAGGAATCCTGGGA
		CAACATTGACATCTTCGGTTGGTTGGGTTATGAAATGCAAATCAAGATCAACTTCTTGTGCAGAGATTCCATCTTGGCTGCCCC
		AATCGTTTTGGATTTGGCTTTGTTCATGGACTTGGCTAAGAGAGCTGATATGTCCGGTATCCAAGAATGGTTGTCCTTCTACTT
		AAAGTCCCCACAAACCGCTCCAGGTTTGAAGCCAGAACACGATATCTTTAAGCAATTGATTAAGTTGCAAAATACTTTGCGTCA
		TATGATGGGTGAAGATTTAATTACCCACTTAGGTTTAGACTACTACCAAGAATTGGTTGAATCCATGTGATAA

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 $\label{eq:2.1} \mathcal{L}_{\text{max}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{max}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{max}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{max}}$ 

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Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)



<b>Organism</b>	<b>UniProt ID</b>	MIPS DNA Sequence (Codon-Optimized for S. cerevisiae)
Sphaerobacter	D1C413	ATGTCTTCCAGAAAGATCAGAGTCGCCATCATCGGTGTCGGTAACTGTGCTTCTTCCTTAGTTCAAGGTGTTGAATACTACAGA
thermophilus		CACGCCGACCCAAATGACTTCGTCCCAGGTTTAATGCATGTCGACTTGGGTGGTTACCACGTTGGTGACATTGAATTCTCTGCT
		GCCATTGATATTGACAAGAACAAGGTCGGTAAGGACTTGTCTGAAGCCATCTTCACCTCCCCAAACAACACCTACAAGTTCTCT
		GATGTCCCACATTTGGGTGTTCCAGTCCACAGAGGTATGACTCACGACGGTTTGGGTAAGTACTTATCCCAAATTATCGAAAA
		AGCCCCTGGTTCCACTGCCGATATCGTCGGTATCTTAAAAGAGACTGGTACTGACGTCGTTAACTTCTTGCCTGTTGGTTC
		TGAAATGGCTACTAAGTGGTACGTTGAACAAGTTTTGGAAGCCGGTTGTGCTTTCGTTAACTGTATTCCAGTCTTTATCGCTAG
		AGAGGAATACTGGCAAAACAGATTCAGAGAACGTGGTTTGCCAATTATCGGTGATGATATTAAGTCCCAAGTTGGTGCTACCA
		TTACCCATAGAGTCTTAACCAGATTGTTCGCCGACAGAGGTGTCAGAATTGACCGTACTTACCAATTGAATTTCGGTGGTAACA
		CTGATTTTTTGAACATGTTGGAAAGAGAAAGATTGGAATCTAAGAAGATTTCCAAGACCAATGCTGTTACTTCTCAAATTGATT
		ACCCAGTTGACCCAGAAAACGTCCACGTCGGTCCATCTGACTACGTCCCATGGTTGCAAGACCGTAAGTGGTGTCATATCAGA
		ATGGAAGGTACCACTTTCGGTGATGTTCCATTGAACATCGAATTGAAATTAGAAGTCTGGGACTCCCCAAACTCTGCCGGTGT
		CGTCATCGATGCCATCAGATGTGCCAAATTGGCCTTGGACACTGGTATCTCTGGTGCTTTGTTGGGTCCATCTGCTTACTTCAT
		GAAGTCTCCACCAGTCCAATACCATGACGACCAAGCCAGAGAAATGGTCGAATCTTTCATTAGAGAAACTGTCGCTCACAGAG
		AAGCTGCTGAAGCTGCCGCTACTCCTGCTGAACAAGGTTGATAA
Streptomyces cattleya	F8JTE4	ATGGGTTCTGTTAGAGTCGCTATTGTCGGTGTCGGTAACTGTGCCGCTTCTTTAGTTCAAGGTGTCGAATACTACAAGGATGCT
		GACCCAGATTCTAGAGTTCCAGGTTTGATGCACGTCCAATTTGGTGACTACCACGTTAGAGATGTCGAGTTTGTCGCCGCTTTC
		GATGTTGACGCTAAGAAGGTCGGTTTAGACTTGGCTGATGCCATCGGTGCTTCTGAAAACAACACTATTAAGATCTGTGACGT
		CCCACCATCTGGTGTTACTGTCCAAAGAGGTCACACTTTGGACGGTTTGGGTAGATACTATAGAGAAACTATTGAAGAGTCCG
		CCGAAGAACCTGTTGATGTCGTTCAAATTTTGAAAGATAGACAAGTTGATGTTTTGGTCTGTTATTTGCCAGTTGGTTCTGAAG
		AGGCTGCTAAGTTTTATGCTCAATGCGCCATCGACGCCAAGGTCGCCTTCGTTAACGCCTTGCCAGTCTTCATTGCTGGTACTA
		AGGAATGGGCTGATAAATTCACCGAAGCCGGTGTTCCAATCGTTGGTGACGATATCAAGTCTCAAGTTGGTGCTACCATTACC
		CACCGTGTCATGGCTAAGTTGTTCGAAGATCGTGGTGTTGTCTTGGATCGTACTATGCAATTGAATGTCGGTGGTAACATGGA
		TTTCAAGAACATGTTGGAAAGAGATAGATTAGAATCCAAAAAGATCTCCAAGACTCAAGCTGTCACTTCTCAAATCCCAGATA
		TTAGAAGGTAGAGCCTTCGGTGACGTCCCATTGAACTTGGAATACAAGTTGGAAGTCTGGGACTCTCCAAACTCTGCTGGTGT
		TATCATCGATGCCTTGAGAGCTGCCAAGATTGCCAAGGACCGTGGTATCGGTGGTCCAGTTTTATCTGCTTCTTCCTATTTCAT
		GAAATCCCCACCTGTCCAATACTTTGACGATGAAGCCAGAGAAAATGTTGAAAAGTTCATCAGAGGTGAAGTTGAGAGATGA
		<b>TAA</b>

Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)

Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)

Organism	<b>UniProt ID</b>	MIPS DNA Sequence (Codon-Optimized for S. cerevisiae)
Thermococcus	A0A097QQW8	ATGGTTAAGGTTGTCATTTTGGGTCAAGGTTACGTTGCTTCCATCTTCGCTTCTGGTTTGGAAAAGATTAAGGCTGGTAAGATG
eurythermalis		GAACCATATGGTGTCCCATTGGCTGATGAATTACCAATTAAGATCAAGGACATCGAAATCGTTGGTTCCTACGATGTTGACAA
		AGCCAAGGTTGGTAAGGATTTGTATGAAGTCGTTAAGGCCTACGATCCAGAGGCCCCAGAATCTTTGAAGGGTATTACCATCA
		CGTCGAACATTTGGTTTCTGAGTGGAAGGAATTGGGTGCTGAAGGTTTCATTAACGTCTGTACTACTGAAGCTTTCGTCCCATT
		TGGTAACAAGGAAGAATTGGAAAAGGCCATTGCTGAGGACAACAGAGACAGATTGACTGCTACTCAAGTTTACGCTTATGCC
		GTTGCTCAATACGCTAAAGAAGTCGGTGGTGCTGCCTTTGTTAACGCCATTCCAACCTTAATTGCCAACGATCCAGCTTTCGTT
		GAATTAGCTAAAGAATCTAACATGGTTATCTTCGGTGATGATGGTGCCACCGGTGCTACCCCATTAACCGCCGATATCTTATCC
		CACTTGGCTCAAAGAAACAGATATGTTTTGGATATTGCTCAATTCAACATCGGTGGTAACCAAGACTTCTTAGCCTTGACCGAC
		AAAGAAAGAAACAAGTCTAAGGAATTCACCAAGTCCTCCATTGTTAAGGACTTGTTGGGTTACGACGCTCCACATTACATTAA
		ACCAACTGGTTTCTTAGAACCTTTGGGTGATAAGAAATTCATCGCTATGCATATTGAATACGTCTCTTTCAACGGTGCTCACGA
		CGAATTGGTTATTACTGGTAGAATTAACGATTCTCCAGCTTTGGCCGGTTTATTGGTCGACTTGGCCAGATTGGGTAAGATTGC
		TTTGGAAAAGAAAGCTTTCGGTACTGTTTACGAAGTTAACGCTTTCTACATGAAGCAACCCAGGTCCAAAGGAAATGCCAAACA
		TTCCACGTATTATTGCTCACGAAAAGATGAGAACTTGGGCTGGTTTAAAACCTAGATGGTTGTGATAA
Vigna radiata	A8WEL5	ATGTTCATCGAAAACTTTAAGGTTGAATGTCCAAACGTTAGATACACCGAGACTGAAATTCAATCTGTCTACAACTACGAAACC
		ACTGAATTGGTTCACGAAAACCGTAACGGTACTTACCAATGGATTGTTAAGCCAAAGTCCGTTAAGTATGAATTCAAGACTGA
		ACAGAGAAGGTATCTCTTGGGCTACTAAGGACAAGATCCAACAAGCCAACTACTTCGGTTCCTTGACTCAAGCTTCTGCTATCA
		GAGTTGGTTCTTTCCAAGGTGAAGAAATCTACGCCCCATTCAAATCTTTATTACCTATGGTTAACCCAGATGACATTGTCTTCGG
		TGGTTGGGACATCTCCAACATGAACTTGGCTGATGCTATGGGTAGAGCTAAGGTTTTCGATATCGACTTGCAAAAGCAATTGA
		AACGTTATCAAGGGTACTAAGAAGGAACAAGTCCAACAAATCATCAAGGACATTAAGGAATTCAAGGCTGCTACTAAAGTTG
		ATAAAGTTGTTGTTTTATGGACTGCTAATACCGAAAGATACTCCAACTTGGTTGTCGGTTTGAACGATACTTCCGAAAACTTGT
		TGGCCGCTTTGGATAGAAACGAAGCTGAAATCTCCCCTTCTACCTTGTACGCTATCGCTTGCGTTATGGAGAATGTCCCATTCA
		AACCATTTAGGTAATAACGATGGTATGAATTTATCCGCTCCTCAAACTTTCAGATCTAAAGAAATCTCCAAGTCCAACGTTGTT
		GACGATATGGTCAACTCTAACGCTATCTTGTTTGAACCAGGTGAACATCCAGACCATGTCGTCGTTATCAAATACGTCCCATAT
		GTCGGTGACTCTAAGAGAGCCATGGACGAATACACCTCTGAAATCTTTATGGGTGGTAAGAACACTATCGTTTTACACAACAC
		CTGTGAAGACTCTTTGTTAGCCGCTCCTATCATTTTGGATTTGGTCTTATTGGCTGAATTATCTACTAGAATCCAATTTAAGGCT
		GAAAACGAAGGTAAGTTCCACTTATTCCATCCTGTTGCTACTATTTTATCCTACTTGACTAAAGCTCCATTGGTCCCACCAGGTA
		CTCCTGTTGTTAACGCTTTGTCTAAACAAAGAGCTATGTTGGAAAACATCTTACGTGCCTGTGTTGGTTTAGCTCCAGAAAACA
		ACATGATTTTGGAATACAAGTGATAA

Table B.2. **MIPS DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)

Organism	<b>UniProt ID</b>	MIPS DNA Sequence (Codon-Optimized for S. cerevisiae)
Zygosaccharomyces	S6EIK9	ATGACTACTGATTCTTACTTCACCCCATCTATTAAGGTTGCTAACGAAAATGTCCAATACTCCGAAACTGAATTAACCACCAAGT
bailii		ACACTTACGTCAACTCTATCGTTACCGAAAACCCATCCACTCAAACCTTGTCTGTTAACCCAGTTGAACAAACCTACCAATTCAA
		GGTCGATTTGAAGTTGCCAAAGGTTGGTGTTATGTTGGTCGGTTTCGGTGGTAACAACGGTACTGCTTTCTTGGCTTCCATTTT
		AGCCAACAGAGAAAAATTGAAGTTCAACACTAAGGAAGGTTTGTTGCAAGCTAACTACTACGGTTCCGTCACTCAATCTTCCA
		CCTTAAAATTGGGTATCAGAGAAGACGGTTCTGATTACTACGTTCCATTTAACTCCTTATTACCATTTGTTTCTCCAAACGACTT
		CGAAGTTACTGGTTGGGATATCAACGGTTCCGATATGGGTAAGGCCATGACCAGAGCTCAAGTTTTGGAATATGACTTGCAA
		AGAGCCGATAATTGTATCAACAGACCAGACAACTCTGCCCCAGCTTCTACTAAGAACAAGTGGTCTCATTTGGAAAAGATTCG
		TTCCGATATCAGAAACTTTAAGGAAAAGAAGAACTTAGATAAGGTCTTGGTCTTGTGGACCGCTAATACTGAGAGATACGCTG
		ATATCGTCCCAAACGTTAACGATACCGCTGATAACTTGTTGAATGCTATTAAGGAAGACAACGAAGAAATTGCTCCTTCCACTA
		TCTTCGCTGTTGCTTCCATCTTGGAAAACGCCGTTTACATTAATGGTTCTCCTCAAAACACTTTCGTTCCAGGTGTTATTGAATT
		GGCTGAAAGAGAAGATACTTTTATCGCTGGTGATGACTTGAAGTCCGGTCAAACTAAAGTCAAGTCCGTTTTGGCTCAATTTTT
		GGTCGATGCCGGTATCAGACCAGTCTCTATCGCTTCTTACAACCACTTGGGTAATAATGATGGTTACAACTTGTCTTCCGAGCG
		TCAATTCAGATCCAAAGAAATCTCTAAAAAGTCCGTTGTTGATGATGTCATTGCTTCTAACCAAATTTTGTACAACGATAAATTG
		GGTAAGACCATTGACCATTGTATCGTTATCAAATACATGAACGCTGTCGGTGACTCTAAGGTCGCCATGGACGAATACTACTCT
		GAATTGATGTTAGGTGGTCACAACAGAATTTCCATCCACAACGTCTGTGAAGATTCTTTGTTGGCTACCCCATTGATCATTGAC
		TTATTAATCATGGCTGAATTTTGTACTCGTGTTTCCTACAAGGAGGCTGGTGGTAACGACAATTACGAAAAATTCTACAACATT
		TTGTCTTTTTTATCCTACTGGTTGAAGGCCCCATTGACTAGAAAAGGTTACCAAACTATTAACGGTTTGAACAAGCAAAGAGCT
<b>Nitrosopumilus</b>	A9A3B6	ATGACTGGTAGAATTAAGGTTGGTTTGGTTGGTATCGGTAACTGTTTCTCCGGTTTGATCCAAGGTATTGAATACTATCGTAAG
maritimus		AACCCATCTCAAGAAGTTATTGGTATCATTCATGACAAGTTAGCCGGTTACGGTATTCACGATATTGACTTCGTTTGTGGTTTC
		GACGTCGGTGAAAACAAGGTCGGTAAATTGATTAACGAAGCCATTTATGAATACCCAAACATGGTTGATTGGATCCCAAAAG
		ATGAAATGCCAAAGACCGATGGTAAGGTTTTCGAATCCCCAGTTTTAGATGGTGTTGGTTTGTGGGTTGAAAACAGAGTCAAG
		CCAATTAAGTCTGCCAAAACTGACGATGAGATCGCTGAAGAAGCTAAAAAAATTATTAAAGAAACTGGTGCCGAAATCATTGT
		TTCCTATTTGCCAGTCGGTTCTGACAAGGTTACCCAATTCTGGGCTCAAGTCTGTTTAGACACCAATACCGCTTTTGTCAATTGT
		ATCCCTTCTTTTATTGCTTCTGATCCAGAGTGGGCTAAGAAGTTTGAAGAAAAGAACATTCCATGTATTGGTGATGATATCAAA
		GGTCAAGTTGGTGCTACCATTGTCCACAGAACTTTGGCTAAGTTATGTAATGACAGAGGTACTAAAATTGAAAAGACTTACCA
		CTGTCCAATCTCAATTGGACGAAAGATTAGATGATGACCAAATCTACGTTGGTCCATCCGATTTTATCCCTTTCTTGGGTAACAC
		TAAATTAATGTTTATGAGAATCGAAGGTAGACAATGGGCTAACATTCCTTACAACATGGAAGTTCGTTTAGACGTTGATGACA
		AGGCTAACTCCGCCGGTATTGTTATCGACGCCATCAGATTGGCTAAGATCGCTTTGGATAGAGGTGTTGGTGCTCCAATCAAG
		CCAGCTTCCGCTTACTTGATGAAGCATCCAATTGAACAAACTTCTGACGTTGCTGCCAAAACTGCTTGTGAAAAGTTCGTTGCT
		<b>GGTGAATAA</b>

Table B.2. MIPS DNA sequences from JGI (cont.)

Organism	<b>UniProt ID</b>	MIPS DNA Sequence (Codon-Optimized for S. cerevisiae)
Methanothermobacter	<b>T2GII1</b>	ATGGATAAGATTAAGATTGCTATTGTTGGTGTTGGTAACTGTGCCTCTTCCTTAATTCAAGGTATTTACTACAGAAACAAG
thermautotrophicus		GGTGCTGGTGACTCCATTGGTTTGATGCATTGGGATATTGGTGGTTACGAACCAGGTGACATCGAAGTTGTTGCCGCCTTCGA
		CATCGATAGAAGAAAGGTTGGTAGAGATGTTTCTGAAGCTATTTTCGCTCCACCAAATTGTACCGCCGTTTTCTGTGACGACGT
		TCCAGAAATGGGTGTCGAAGTTTCCATGGGTCACGTCTTGGATGGTGTTGCTCCACACATGAAGGATTACCCAGAAAAGCAAA
		CCTTCGTTGTTGCTGACGAAGAACCAGTTGACGTTGTTGAAGTTTTGAGAGAGTCTGGTGCCGAGATTTTGTTGAACTACTTGC
		CAGTTGGTTCTGAAGAAGCCGCTCGTTTTTATGCCAGATGTGCTTTGGAAGCTGGTGTTGCTTACATCAACAACATGCCAGTCT
		TCATTGCTTCCGATCCAGAATGGGCCGCTAGATTTCAAGAAAAGGGTATTCCAATTGTCGGTGATGACATTAAGGCTCAATTG
		GGTGCTACTATTACCCACAGAACCTTGACCAACTTATTCAAGAGAAGAGGTGTTAAGTTGGATAGAACTTACCAAATTAACACT
		TATTTTAGGTGAAGACAGATTGGATGACGAAAACATTCACATCGGTCCATCTGACTATATTCCATGGCAAAAGGACAACAAAA
		TTTGTTTTTTAAGAATGGAAGGTCGTTTGTTCGGTGATGTCCCAATGAACTTGGAATTGAGATTGTCCGTCGAAGACTCCCCTA
		ACTCCGCTGGTTGTGTTATCGACGCTATTAGATGTTGTAAGTTAGCTATTGACAGAGGTATTGGTGGTCCATTGACTTCCATTT
		CTTCCTACACCATGAAGCACCCACCTGTCCAATATACCGACGACGTTGCTGCTAGAATGGTCGATGAATTTATTGCTGGTGAAA
		<b>GAGAAAGATAA</b>
Thermocrinis albus	D3SMX0	ATGGCTGACAGAAAAATTAGAGTTGCTATCGTCGGTGTTGGTAACTGTGCTTCCGCTTTGGTCCAAGGTATTTACTACTATCAA
		AAGAGACAAAATTTGGACACTTCTGGTTTAATGTTTGAAGATGTTGGTGGTTACAAGCCATGGGATATCGAAATTGTTGCTGC
		CTGGGACATTGACGCTCGTAAGGTTGGTAAAGATGTCTCTGAAGCCATCTTTTCTCCACCAAACTGTACTACTGTCTTCGAACC
		AGAAGTTCCACATATGGGTGTCAAGGTCAGAATGGGTAAGGTTTTGGATGGTTATGCTCCACATATGGCTAATTACCCACCAG
		AATGGTATGCCAACCTTCATCGTTTCTGATCCAGAATGGGCTAAGAGATTTGAAGCTGAAGGTATCCCAGCTGTCGGTGACGA
		TATTAAGTCCCAAGTCGGTGCTACTATCTTACACAGAACTTTGGTTCAATTATTCGTCGAAAGAGGTGTCAAGATCGATAGAAC
		TTATCAATTGAATTTCGGTGGTAACACTGACTTCTTGAACATGTTAGAACGTTCTAGATTGCAAACCAAGAAGACCTCCAAAAC
		TGAAGCTGTCTCCTCCTTGATCCCATATACCTTGGATTGGGAAAATATTCATATCGGTCCATCTGACTGGGTTCCATGGTTGAA
		AGATAGAAAGATTGCTTACATTAGATTGGAGGGTAGATTGTTCGGTGATGTCCCAATGTACGTCGAAGTTAAATTGGACGTCG
		AAGATTCCCCAAACTCTGCTGGTTCCATGATCGACGCTATTAGATGTTGTAAATTGGCCAGAGACAGAGGTATTGGTGGTCCA
		TTATACTCCATTTCCGCTTACACTATGAAACACCCACCAGTCCAATACCCAGATTGGCAAGCTAGAAAGATGGTTGAAGAATTC
		ATTAGAGGTGAAAGAGAAAGATAA





Table B.2. MIPS **DNA** sequences from **JGI** (cont.)

Organism	UniProt ID	MIPS DNA Sequence (Codon-Optimized for S. cerevisiae)
Haemonchus	U6NKU3	ATGAACGGTTACGCTAACGGTACTGACGCTAATCATCAAAAGCACAAGAGAGTTATCGTTGATTCTCCTTATGTTAGATGTGA
contortus		CGGTAAAGAAATGGAAACTAGATTCTGTTATAGAAAGAATCATTTCTCCCACACCGCTGACGGTTTGAAGGTCACCCCAAAGG
		ACTTCTGTCGGTGCCATTTACGCTAATAAGAAACACATGACCTGGCGTACCAAAGAAGGTATTCAAACTGCTAACTACTTTGGT
		TCCGTTACTCAATCTTCCACCATTCACTTGGGTTGGGATGGTCAACAACAATTCATGTCCCATTCAACGAGATCATTCCAATCT
		TGTCTCCAAACGACTTGATTATTGACGGTTGGGATATCAACAACGCTAACTTGTACCAAGCTATGGTCAGAGCTAAAGTTTTTG
		CTAATCAAGGTGACAGAGCTAACAACACTATTCCAGGTACTGACAAGAAGGAACACTTAGAACACATCAGAAGAGACATTAG
		AAACTTCAAGGCTAAGCATGACTTGGAGTGTGTCATCGTTTTGTGGACCGCTAACACCGAAAGATACACTGATGTTGTTGATG
		TGCTATCTTAGAAGGTGCCCACTACATCAACGGTTCCCCACAAAATACTTTGGTCCCAGGTATTATCGATTTGGCTCACAAGCA
		CAATGTCTTTGTCGGTGGTGACGACTTCAAATCTGGTCAAACTAAGATCAAGTCTGCTTTGGTTGATTTCATGGTTCTTCTGGT
		TTGAAGCCAGAATCCATTGTCTCCTACAACCACTTGGGTAACAACGACGGTAAGAACTTGTCTGAAGCCAGACAATTTAGATCT
		AAGGAAATCTCCAAGTCTTCTGTTGTTGATGACATGGTTGAAGCTAACAAGATCTTATACCCTACCGGTCAAAAGCCAGACCAC
		TGTATTGTTATTAAGTATGTCCCATTTGTTGGTGATTCTAAGCGTGCTATGGATGAATACATTTGTTCTATTTTCATGGGTGGTC
		GTCAAACTTTTGTCATCCACAATACCTGTGAAGACTCCTTATTAGCTACTCCTTTGATCTACGACTTAGCTATCTTGACTGAATTG
		AGGCTCCAGTTGTTCCACCAGGTACTCCAGTTTCCAACGCTTTCATGCGTCAATTCGCTTCCTTAACCAAGTTGATTACCGCCTT

## Table B.3. Sequences codon-optimized for *E. coli*



Table B.3. Sequences codon-optimized for **E.** *coli* (cont.)



## Table B.3. Sequences codon-optimized for **E.** coli (cont.)



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## Table B.4. Amino acid residue positions for **INOl** used for sequence analysis

Group	<b>Absolutely</b> conserved	Conserved eukaryotic	Within 5Å of active site	5-10 Å from active site	Conserved "blocks"	Conserved eukaryotic "block"
Source	Dastidar &	Dastidar &	Jin et al., 2004	Jin et al., 2004	Basak et al.,	Basak et al.,
	Chatterjee,	Chatterjee,			2017	2017
	2006	2006				
<b>Residues</b>			÷.			
		326	326	204	414	
		348	327	211	415	
		349	350	223	416	
		350	352	226	417	
		351	354	242	418	
		352	355	249	433	
		353	356	275	434	
		354	360	276	435	
		355	369	278	436	
		356	373	279	437	
		357	402	280	438	
		360	410	292	439	
		369	412	293	440	
		372	438	294	441	
		373	439	298		
		374	442	300		
		376	489	319		
		378		328		
		379		329		
		400		330		
		402		335		
		412		348		
		438		349		
		489		351		
				353		
				357		
				358		
				359		
				361		
				365		
				366		
				367		
				368		
				370		
				371		

Table B.4. Amino acid residue positions for **INO** 1 used for sequence analysis (cont.)

 $\sim 10^{-1}$ 

Group	Absolutely conserved	Conserved eukaryotic	Within 5Å of active site	5-10 Å from active site	Conserved "blocks"	Conserved eukaryotic "block"
Source	Dastidar & Chatterjee, 2006	Dastidar & Chatterjee, 2006	Jin et al., 2004	Jin et al., 2004	Basak et al., 2017	Basak et al., 2017
<b>Residues</b>						
				372		
				374		
				376		
				398		
				400		
				401		
				403		
				404		
				405		
				408		
				409		
				411		
				413		
				414		
				415		
				416		
				418		
				421		
				428		
				434		
				435		
				436		
				437		
				440		
				441		
				443		
				444		
				445		
				446		
				449		
				486		
				487		
				488		
				490		
				503		

Table B.4. Amino acid residue positions for **INOI** used for sequence analysis (cont.)

JGI#	Volume normalized to total protein								
0	213207851								
1	215223459								
$\overline{2}$	Not detected								
3	289432274								
4	186416266								
5	37779991								
6	55036810								
7	356345438								
8	376738280								
9	48405086								
10	Not detected								
11	95667834								
12	108602900								
13	Not detected								
14	Not detected								
15	36777581								
16	266534670								
17	282095224								
18	284547034								
19	137201046								
20	288600190								
21	86304966								
22	151584031								
23	65518722								
24	90964213								
25	198848391								
26	39818545								
27	Not detected								
28	23925600								
29	Not detected								
30	6523368								
31	119320926								

Table B.5. His-tagged MIPS protein expression at 30°C as measured by volume normalized to total protein





	<b>MIPS Variants</b>							Factor R <sup>2</sup>		<b>Selected Mutations</b>						
	0	4	5	7	8	11	18	20	24	25	31	Stability	<b>Titer</b>	INO1	At4	Pr18
<b>L308F</b>	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\pmb{0}$	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{0}$	0	0.01	0.08			
L321F	0	1	$\mathbf{1}$	1	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	1	1	1	0	1	0.05	0.02			
<b>S374A</b>	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.01	0.06			
S374Q	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	0	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	0.14	0.15			
S374K	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0.11	0.03			
411N	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.15	0.34			
<b>V413R</b>	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0	$\mathbf{1}$	1	1	1	$\bf{0}$	1	0.01	0.23	<b>V413R</b>		
M415L	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0	0	$\mathbf{1}$	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	0.01	0.05			
<b>H433F</b>	0	0	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	0	0.15	0.34			
<b>V435T</b>	0	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf{1}$	1	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf 0$	1	0.02	0.02			
<b>Amino acid differences</b> relative to At4																
N24G/T	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\pmb{0}$	0	0	0	0	1	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0.00	0.01			
<b>D31N</b>	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	0	$\bf{0}$	0	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0	0.09	0.00			
<b>Y120F</b>	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0.09	0.00			
D151N	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf 1$	$\mathbf{1}$	0	$\mathbf{1}$	0.17	0.12	<b>N151D</b>	D146N	
A159G	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\bf{0}$	0	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	0	1	$\mathbf{1}$	$\bf{0}$	0	0.09	0.00			
N178H/S	$\mathbf 0$	$\bf{0}$	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	0	0	$\mathbf 1$	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0	0.09	0.00			
D221Q	$\mathbf{1}$	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	$\mathbf{1}$	1	$\bf{0}$	$\bf{0}$	0.08	0.00			
<b>H222Q</b>	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{1}$	0	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf 0$	0	0.00	0.00			
D271N	$\bf{0}$	0	0	0	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{1}$	1	0	0	0.06	0.06			
<b>S273A</b>	$\bf{0}$	0	0	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf 0$	0	0.09	0.00			
L287F/M	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\bf{0}$	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\bf{0}$	0	0.09	0.00			
G289N	0	0	$\mathbf{1}$	0	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0.23	0.00			
S311Q/E	0	0	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\bf{0}$	0	0.07	0.03			
A409G	$\mathbf{1}$	0	$\mathbf 1$	$\mathbf{1}$	1	$\mathbf{1}$	1	1	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.16	0.00			
<b>M528L</b>	0	0	$\mathbf{1}$	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	1	$\mathbf{1}$	0	0	0.00	0.03			

Table B.6. Selected amino acid differences relative to **INO1** and At4 **MIPS** (cont.)

## B.2. Python Scripts

B.2. **1.** Python script to calculate and return the number of amino acid IMGT differences relative to a given sequence for all sequences in a given multiple alignment file and a given list of amino acid positions indexed relative to the sequence of interest.

```
#file name for FASTA file containing multiple alignment
align_file = "promals3d_mult_align_20181010_formatted.fasta"
#reference sequence name (string) within multiple alignment file
ref_seq_name = "sp_P11986_IN01_YEAST_Inos"
#file name containing amino acid residue position numbers
select file = "Ino1_5A_resi_positions.txt"
#Output node attribute file name
outfile name = "INOl_5A diffIMGT_20181013_corrected.na"
output-text = "\t5A diff IMGT from Inol" #node attribute coLumn name
from Bio import SeqIO
import numpy
#Import pos t ion numbers
literature_pos = numpy.loadtxt(select_file, dtype = int)
#Get aligned positions from Literature positions
alnList = []
count = 0for seq_record in
    SeqIO.parse(align_file, "fasta"):
    if ref_seq_name in seq_record.id:
        for pos in range(len(seq_record.seq)):
            char_check = seq_record.seq[pos]
            if char_check.isalpha(): #if char is Letter, count it
                count = count +1 #thls is Literature position
                if count in literature_pos:
                  #add position to List
                  alnList.append(pos)
#initiaLize reference re-sidue IT ,tonaru (position r'sidue ID dictiona y)
posResult = \{\}#Make dictionary of reference residues at positions of interest
for position in alnList:
    #Get residue(s) from reference sequence(s) at given position
    for seq_record in SeqIO.parse(align_file,"fasta"):
       #Get residue at position of interest
       ResID = seq_record.seq[position]
       #Converc to IM6T class
            if (ResID == 'A' or ResID == 'I' or ResID == 'L' or ResID =='V'):
                ResID = 1
```

```
elif (ResID == 'N' or ResID == 'Q'):
    ResID = 2elif (ResID == 'M' or ResID == 'C'):
    ResID = 3elif (ResID == 'S' or ResID == 'T):
    ResID = 4elif (ResID == 'R' or ResID == 'K' or ResID == 'H):
    ResID = 5elif (ResID == 'D' or ResID == 'E'):
    ResID = 6elif (ResID == 'F):
    ResID = 7elif (ResID == 'W):
   ResID = 8elif (ResID == 'Y):
   ResID = 9elif (ResID == 'P):
   ResID = 10elif (ResID == 'G):
   ResID = 11
```
#print seq record.id, ResID

```
#Populate residue dictionary for reference sequence
ResIDList = []if ref seq name in seq record.id:
    if ResID in ResIDList: #useful for residues in more than one sequence
        continue
    else:
        ResIDList.append(ResID)
        posResIDDict[position] =ResIDList
        #print seq record.id, position, ResIDList
```
#print posResIDDict

```
#Initialize dictionary of number of differences from reference sequence(s)
#(distance count dictionary)
DistanceCountDict = \{\}count = 0for seq record in SeqIO.parse(align file,"fasta"):
     DistanceCountDict[seq record.id] = count#Get number of conserved residues from reference sequence(s)
for position in alnList:
    for seq_record in SeqIO.parse(align_file,"fasta"):
        #Get residue at position of interest and check if it matches reference
        ResID = seq record.seq[position]#Convert to IMGT class
            if (ResID == 'A' or ResID == 'I' or ResID == 'L' or ResID == 'V'):
                ResID = 1elif (ResID == 'N' or ResID == 'Q'):
                ResID = 2elif (ResID == 'M' or ResID == 'C'):
```

```
ResID = 3
            elif (ResID == 'S' or ResID == :
                ResID = 4elif (ResID == 'R' or ResID == 'K' or ResID == 'H'):
                ResID = 5elif (ResID == 'D' or ResID =='E'):
                ResID = 6elif (ResID == 'F'):
                ResID = 7
            elif (ResID == 'W'):
                ResID = 8
            elif (ResID == 'Y'):
                ResID = 9
            elif (ResID == 'p'
                ResID = 10
            elif (ResID == 'G'):
                ResID = 11
        #Count number of residues that match reference
        for ResType in posResIDDict[position]:
            #print ResType
            if ResID = ResType:
                continue
            else:
                #Get number of residue matches found previously and add 1
                count = DistanceCountDict[seq_record.id]
                count = count+1
                DistanceCountDict[seq_record.id] = count
#print DistanceCountDict
#Moximum number of matches/differences is number of residues in aLignment List
MaxScore = len(alnList)
#print number of differences to node attriobute fiLe
output = open(outfile_name,'w')
output.write(output_text)
output.write('\n')
for seq record in SeqIO.parse(align file,"fasta"):
    spliter = seq_record.id.split('_') #match to shared name/ID in network
    if 'sp' in seq_record.id: #Swiss-prot sequences
       ID = spliter[1]
       output.write(ID)
       output.write('\t')
       #Convert number of matches to number of differences
       SpecificScore = DistanceCountDict[seq_record.id]
       Score = MaxScore - SpecificScore
       output.write(str(Score))
       output.write('\n')
    elif 'tr' in seq_record.id: #TrEMBL sequences
       ID = spliter[1]
       output.write(ID)
       output.write('\t')
```

```
163
```

```
#Convert number of matches to number of differences
   SpecificScore = DistanceCountDict[seq_record.id]
   Score = MaxScore - SpecificScore
   output.write(str(Score))
   output.write('\n')
elif 'zzz' in seq_record.id:
   ID = spliter[0]
   output.write(ID)
   output.write('\t')
   #Convert number of matches to number of differences
   SpecificScore = DistanceCountDict[seq_record.id]
   Score = MaxScore - SpecificScore
   output.write(str(Score)) output.write('\n')
```
output.close()

```
empty\_str = ""for seq record in SeqIO.parse(align file, "fasta"):
        DistanceCountDict[seq record.id] = empty str#Get different residues from reference sequence(s)
for seq record in SeqIO.parse(align file, "fasta"):
    differences = [] #initialize array
    for position in alnList:
        #Get residue at position of interest and check if it matches reference
        ResID = seq record.seq[position]
        ResType = posResIDDict[position]#If not identical, encode in IMGT and check again
        if ResID != ResType:
            if (ResID == 'A' or ResID == 'I' or ResID == 'L' or ResID == 'V'):
                ResID IMGT = 1elif (ResID == 'N' or ResID == 'Q'):
                ResID IMGT = 2elif (ResID == 'M' or ResID == 'C'):
                ResID IMGT = 3elif (ResID == 'S' or ResID == 'T):
                ResID IMGT = 4
            elif (ResID == 'R' or ResID == 'K' or ResID == 'H):
                ResID IMGT = 5elif (ResID == 'D' or ResID == 'E):
                ResID IMGT = 6
            elif (ResID == 'F):
                ResID IMGT = 7elif (ResID == W):
                ResID IMGT = 8elif (ResID == 'Y):
                ResID IMGT = 9elif (ResID == 'P'):
                ResID IMGT = 10elif (ResID == 'G'):
               ResID IMGT = 11#convert ResType to IMGT class
           ResType_IMGT = ResType
           if (ResType == 'A' or ResType == 'I' or ResType == 'L' or ResType == 'V'):
                ResType IMGT = 1elif (ResType == 'N' or ResType == 'Q'):
                ResType_MGT = 2elif (ResType == 'M' or ResType == 'C'):
                ResType IMGT = 3elif (ResType == 'S' or ResType == 'T):
               ResType_MGT = 4elif (ResType == 'R' or ResType == 'K' or ResType == 'H'):
               ResType IMGT = 5elif (ResType == 'D' or ResType == 'E'):
               ResType_MGT = 6elif (ResType == F):
               ResType IMGT = 7elif (ResType == 'W):
```
B.2.2 Python code to extract amino acid IMGT differences relative to a given sequence for all sequences in a given multiple alignment file and a given list of amino acid positions indexed relative to the sequence of interest.

```
#file name for FASTA file containing multiple alignment
align file = "Mult align 31var only 20181011. fasta"
#reference sequence name (string) within multiple alignment file
ref seq name = "sp P11986 INO1 YEAST Inos"
#file name containing amino acid residue position numbers
select file = "Ino1 5A resi_positions.txt"
#Output node attribute file name
outfile_name = "31var_only_5A_diff_IMGT.txt"
from Bio import SeqIO
import numpy
#Import position numbers
literature pos = numpy.loadtxt(selfile, dtype = int)literature pos = literature pos.tolist()#Get aligned positions and IDs from literature positions
#Initialize list of corresponding position numbers wrt alignment file
alnList = []#Initalize dictionary of literature positions that correspond to aligned positions
orig pos = \{\}#Initialize reference residue ID dictionary (position residue ID dictionary)
posResIDDict = \{\}count = 0for seq_record in SeqIO.parse(align_file,"fasta"):
    if ref_seq_name in seq_record.id:
       for pos in range(len(seq_record.seq)):
            ResID = seq\_record \cdot seq[pos]if ResID.isalpha(): #if char is Letter, count it
                count = count +1 #this is literature position
                if count in literature_pos:
                    #add position to List
                    alnList.append(pos)
                    #get index of orig position in List and associate with entry
                    index orig = literature pos.index(count)orig pos[pos] = literature pos[index orig]#add aa char to posResIDDict
                    posResIDDict[pos] = ResID
```
#Print statements for verification #print sorted(orig pos.items(), key=Lambda x: x[0]) #print sorted(posResIDDict.items(), key=Lambda x: x[0])

#Initialize dictionary of strings of differences from reference sequence(s) DistanceCountDict =  $\{\}$ 

```
ResTypeIMGT = 8elif (ResType == 'Y'):
                ResType_IMGT = 9
           elif (ResType == 'P'):
                ResTypeIMGT = 10
           elif (ResType == 'G'):
                ResTypeIMGT = 11
           #Check whether IMGT classes match, If not, add difference to list,
           if ResID IMGT != ResType_IMGT:
               #save difference in mutation format, using original index
               strresi = ResType + str(origpos[position]) + ResID
               differences.append(str_resi)
    #convert entries to single string
   DistanceCountDict[seq_record.id] = ", ".join(differences)
#print DistanceCountDict
output = open(outfile-name,'w')
for seq record in SeqIO.parse(align_file,"fasta"):
    spliter = seq_record.id.split('_') #match to shared name/ID in network
   if 'sp' in seq_record.id: #Swiss-prot sequences
        ID = spliter[1]
   elif 'tr' in seq_record.id: #TrEMBL sequences
        ID = spliter[1]
   elif 'zzz' in seq record.id:
        ID = spliter[O]
   output.write(ID)
   output.write('\t')
   output.write(DistanceCountDict(seq_recprd. id])
   output.write('\n')
```

```
output. close()
```