

De novo creation of MG1655-derived E. coli strains specifically designed for plasmid DNA production

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Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology De novo creation of MG1655-derived E. coli strains specifically designed for plasmid DNA production --Manuscript Draft--

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July 13, 2012

Dear Editor,

Please receive the revised version of our manuscript entitled "*De novo* creation of MG1655derived E. coli strains specifically designed for plasmid DNA production" for consideration for publication in *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* (manuscript number AMAB-D-12-00981). Specific responses to each of the reviewers' comments have been provided in a separate document. We have made a sincere effort to address the concerns raised by the reviewers and hope that our responses are found to be satisfactory.

Thank you,

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Kristala Jones Prather

Responses to reviewers' comments

Manuscript AMAB-D-12-00981 De novo creation of MG1655-derived *E. coli* strains specifically designed for plasmid DNA production

Original text is referenced according to the page/line numbers of the original manuscript. Revised text is referenced according to the page/line numbers of the revised manuscript.

Reviewer #1: General comments:

The authors conducted the research in an interesting area of developing new E. coli strains for plasmid DNA production based on carbon source metabolic pathway and plasmid DNA yield. The results generated by the authors indicated that mutated wild type strain MG1655 in genes coding pyruvate kinase and phosphoglucose isomerase may result in significant increase in plasmid DNA production yield. The authors presented logical designing of the experiments, reliable data, and reasonable conclusion, which is within the scope of "Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology". While the strategy for experimental designing is reasonably planned and most critical data is presented, however, some data of supporting the final results were not clear or missing (see below specific comments/questions). My recommendation for this manuscript is "acceptable for publication with minor revision".

Specific Comments:

1. Questions to content:

1).Statement in Page 8 Line 16: Nevertheless, pDNA ? was 20g/L (Table 3). There was no GALG20 data either in glucose or glycerol in the Table 3.

First, we thank the reviewer for a careful reading of our manuscript and for your comments and suggestions. The statement on Page 8 Line 16 was only referring to the Pyk mutant strains since these were the only ones constructed at this point. To clarify this, we have changed the sentence to read as follows:

Original text (Page 8, Line 183): "Nevertheless, pDNA yields were significantly lower in glucose than in glycerol for all strains when the initial concentration..."

Revised text (Page 8, Line 184): "Nevertheless, pDNA yields were significantly lower in glucose than in glycerol for all Pyk mutant strains when the initial concentration...".

However, we appreciate the suggestion from the reviewer to include more data in Table 3. Thus we have added additional data on GALG10 and GALG11 and we have included data on GALG20 in Table 3.

Revised Table: Table 3

2). In Table 2, the authors listed cell growth data of the parent strains in this report, which is good. However, why not include GALG10, GALG11, and GALG20 three important strains in comparison of cell growth with the parent strains? If the data is available, the authors should include in the table 2 with a modified table title or present in a separated table.

We do indeed have these data available and have included biomass, acetate, and growth rate data for GALG10, GALG11 and GALG20 in Table 2. The title of Table 2 has been modified to reflect these additions.

Revised Table: Table 2

3). The Table 3 summarized 10 different strains' plasmid DNA production yield in different or different amount of carbon sources. A couple of critical data either were not clear or missed, including: 1). There was no carbon source condition data under 20g/L or 10+10g/L carbon sources for two important mutant strains GALG10 and GALG11, while other strains were tested under those conditions. 2). The best strain in this report is the GALG20, however there was no data showed here in the comparison with all other strains. Question would be: how you pick up this strain in to the Table comparison without initial yield data?

As stated above, we appreciated the reviewer's comments related to data organization especially in Table 3 and have included additional data in this table, including data on GALG10 and GALG11 with 20g/L of glucose. However, these strains were not tested with 10+10g/L of glucose. We first identified glucose inhibition for the wild-type strain MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA in 20g/L, and conducted tests with different glucose concentrations to understand this effect in the wild-type strain versus the *pyk* double mutant. Through these experiments, we concluded that the best condition was 5+10g/L. After determining the best condition for the wild-type and double mutant strains, we tested the other strains only in the two extremes of 20g/L (inhibition for wild-type) and 5+10g/L (no-inhibition for wild-type strain).

4). Combining information in Table 4 with figure 2, it seems reasonable to conclude that GALG20 has the highest specific productivity with the number of 20mg/g DCW. However, the comparison was poor. There is no systematic comparison of the best strain with others (except MG1655 deltaendAdeltarecA) in cell growth and productivities in different and different amount of carbon sources.

We understand the confusion of the reviewer due to the amount of data presented in this work. However, after all the modifications in Table 3 suggested by the reviewer, the relevant data for all strains constructed is now included. We believe that this now makes Table 4 easier to understand. Table 4 is merely a summary of the best performers and describes the top three strains identified in this study (GALG20, GALG10 and MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA) related to the best carbon source for each of them and compares results with those obtained with DH5 α , a commonly used strain for pDNA production.

5). Figure 2, suggest to insert three corresponding small boxes (white, grey, and solid) inside of the figure, and label the boxes with 5+10g/L of glucose, 5+10g/L of glycerol, and 20g/L of glucose to indicate corresponding bars.

We have inserted the small boxes in Figure 2 as suggested by the reviewer.

Revised Figure: Figure 2

2. Minor editing issues:

1). More than two authors in a reference, et al should be added in the text where the references were cited.

We have followed the Applied Microbiology & Biotechnology journal guidelines which state that we should not use author lists with "et al." As noted:

- All author names should be provided in the references of AMB-manuscripts
- Please do not use an EndNote Style abbreviating long author lists with "et al."

2). On page 2, Line 12, insert "(E. coli)" after "Escherichia coli".

Revised text: On page 2, Line 12, E. coli was inserted after "Escherichia coli".

Reviewer #2: In this study the authors have attempted to develop a protocol for enhancing pDNA production by mutating genes in the glycolytic pathway without reducing growth, by studying the influence of carbon source (glucose vs glycerol). In addition, they have tested the effect of mutating pgi gene by shifting carbon flow from pentose phosphate pathway to promoting nucleotide synthesis. The study has been carefully and "rationally" conducted, and presented well. However, what is novel about this study is unclear. A somewhat minor observation that genetic background may play a role in the effect of mutations could be important.

First, we thank the reviewer for evaluating our manuscript. We do believe that investigating the role of genetic background in the effect of various mutations is novel, and, as the reviewer states, this could be important, especially as researchers attempt to transfer these mutations into other host strains. We also believe that the specific finding of the beneficial effect of the pgi knockout on pDNA production is novel, particularly given the exceptionally high specific yields that resulted.

Several studies have looked looked at the pgi gene and its effect on enhancing production of products (Ahn et al, 2011, FEMS Microbiol Lett, 324:10; enhanced production of shikimate). Also, study of Kabir and Shimizu(2003), J. Biotech 105:11-31, has examined the effect of mutation of 87 genes on production of metabolites particularly in pgi mutants. They have specifically shown that the phb gene has the most significant impact on the pentose phosphate pathway and the glycolytic pathway genes.

We agree with the reviewer that we were not the first to examine the effects of the pgi mutation on enhancing the production of a biochemical product. We have cited 4 papers that describe this mutation as being beneficial. However, no previous work has identified pgi (or rather, its deletion) as a significant factor in pDNA production.

In order to make this study meaningful, the effect of other carbon sources such as fructose, maltose (rather than combinations of glucose, also studied earlier by various investigators) may add significance to this study. Ahn et al, 2011, find that fructose rather than glucose has a significant effect on pDNA production in pgi mutants.

We appreciate the desire of the reviewer to understand the impact of the *pgi* mutation in the context of additional carbon sources. However, in the present study, with the objective of producing pDNA for gene therapy and DNA vaccination, we do not feel that it is necessary to test fructose as carbon source. Our objective was not to determine the effect of the mutation for all carbohydrates, but rather to consider the two most commonly used substrates in industrial fermentations, glucose and glycerol, as described in the Introduction.

Contrary to the reviewer's comment, we do not find any data on the effect of fructose on pDNA production in *pgi* mutants in Ahn et al, 2011. This reference does show that *pgi* mutant strains exhibited significantly reduced cell growth and a decrease of shikimic acid production in glucose as a sole carbon source. The addition of fructose with glucose was used as a strategy to recover cell growth.

Another interesting point that was verified by Ahn et al, 2011, was the concentration of NADPH. In glucose only, the molar yield of NADPH on sugar for the *pgi* mutant was twice that of the parental strain, while in fructose or in the mixture of fructose and glucose, the concentration of NADPH was similar for both strains (*pgi* mutant or parental strain). In our case, we don't have problems with reduction of growth rate in glucose (Table 2), and it was already proposed computationally that increasing NADPH pools would favor pDNA production. Thus, in this case, we consider that glucose alone would be more appropriate for pDNA production. As described in our manuscript: "A large excess of NADPH was detected in Pgi mutant strains (Canonaco 2001; Chin and Cirino 2011; Siedler 2011), which was shown to improve biotransformations in various processes. However, an excess of NADPH can cause a redox imbalance in the cell, imposing stress that may appear as a large reduction in growth rate (Charusanti 2010). In the specific case of pDNA synthesis, a mathematical model has demonstrated that high generation of NADPH would be effective for increasing yields (Cunningham 2009)".

We do appreciate the reviewer highlighting this interesting report on the use of a *pgi* knockout for another biochemical, and we have added this citation to the manuscript.

New text (Page 15, Line 348-356): "Another advantage of GALG20 for pDNA production was that the growth rate was similar to the parental strain in glucose (Table 2), whereas a previous study demonstrated a significant reduction of growth rate in a *pgi* mutant strain grown in the same carbon source (Ahn 2011). The differences in the behavior of these two *pgi* mutants in glucose could be associated with the strain genetic background between the two studies, *E. coli* MG1655 Δ *endA* Δ *recA* and KPM SA1 (Δ *araL* Δ *araK*), respectively. In the current work, we have demonstrated that strain background can substantially influence the effect of gene knockouts, such as the differences between the *pykF* and *pykA* mutations in MG1655 Δ *endA* Δ *recA* versus DH5 α ."

De novo creation of MG1655-derived E. coli strains specifically designed for

plasmid DNA production

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Keywords: DNA vaccine, plasmid biopharmaceuticals, *Escherichia coli*, strain engineering, metabolic engineering

Abstract

The interest in plasmid DNA (pDNA) as a biopharmaceutical has been increasing over the last several years, especially after the approval of the first DNA vaccines. New pDNA production strains have been created by rationally mutating genes selected on the basis of *E. coli* central metabolism and plasmid properties. Nevertheless, the highly mutagenized genetic background of the strains used makes it difficult to ascertain the exact impact of those mutations. To explore the effect of strain genetic background, we investigated single and double knockouts of two genes, *pykF* and *pykA*, which were known to enhance pDNA synthesis in two different E. coli strains, MG1655 (wild-type genetic background) and DH5 α (highly mutagenized genetic background). The knockouts were only effective in the wild-type strain MG1655, demonstrating the relevance of strain genetic background and the importance of designing new strains specifically for pDNA production. Based on the obtained results, we created a new pDNA production strain starting from MG1655, by knocking out the pgi gene in order to redirect carbon flux to the pentose phosphate pathway, enhance nucleotide synthesis and consequently increase pDNA production. GALG20 (MG1655*AendAArecAApgi*) produced 25-fold more pDNA (19.1 mg/g) DCW) than its parental strain, MG1655*AendAArecA* (0.8 mg/g DCW), in glucose. For the first time *pgi* was identified as an important target for constructing a high-yielding pDNA production strain.

Introduction

> Non-viral gene therapy is a promising approach for the treatment of genetic disorders and acquired diseases, and for the prevention of infectious diseases. The discovery that naked plasmid DNA (pDNA) could mediate gene transfer and expression *in vivo* (Wolff 1990) initiated the emergence of a new class of medicinal agents (Prazeres 2011). The efforts to develop such plasmid biopharmaceuticals have increased over the last several years, especially after the approval of the first veterinary DNA vaccines (Han 2009; Williams 2009). The relevance of non-viral gene therapy is underscored by the fact that plasmid DNA accounts for 25% of the vectors used in clinical trials

30 (<u>http://www.wiley.com//legacy/wileychi/genmed/clinical/</u>).

One of the aims of research on plasmid biopharmaceuticals has been the development of Escherichia coli (E. coli) host strains capable of producing the large amounts of pDNA required for clinical trials and eventually commercialization (Bower and Prather 2009; Goncalves 2011; Lara and Ramirez 2012). Roughly speaking, volumetric pDNA titers lower than 250 mg/L are typically obtained in laboratory-scale fermentations (Prazeres 2011), whereas titers of the order of 1000-2100 mg/L have been reported in high-yield, preindustrial fermentations (Carnes 2006; Listner 2006; Phue 2008; Luke 2009; Williams 2009). On a dry cell weight (DCW) basis, the plasmid content of E. coli cells may be expected to vary anywhere between 0.5 and 5.0 % w/w, depending on the plasmid type, strain, growth conditions and growth phase (Prazeres 2011). E. coli host strains of the K-12 and B type with diverse mutagenized genetic backgrounds, such as DH5, DH5a, DH10B, JM108, JM101 and BL21, have all been used for pDNA production (Bower and Prather 2009; Carnes and Williams 2007; Cunningham 2009; Prather 2003; Williams 2009). However, most of these strains were originally developed to facilitate the cloning of heterologous genes and for the production of recombinant proteins, and thus may not be the most appropriate for pDNA

46 manufacturing. A more rational approach has been pursued recently, whereby genes are 47 selected and mutated on the basis of *E. coli* central carbon metabolism and plasmid 48 properties. This has led to the generation of a plethora of new pDNA production strains, such 49 as DH5 $\alpha \Delta fruR$ (Ow 2007), BL21 $\Delta endA\Delta recA$ (Phue 2008), JM101 $\Delta pykF\Delta pykA$ 50 (Cunningham 2009), DH5 $\alpha zwf:rpiA^+$ (Williams 2009) and W3110 $\Delta PTSGalP^+\Delta pykA$ (Pablos 51 2011).

Reducing acetate and enhancing nucleotide production are some of the strategies that are used to increase pDNA yields. Knockouts of selected genes, such as pykF, pykA, ackA-pta and *poxB* have been explored to reduce acetic acid formation in pDNA production strains (Carnes 2011; Cunningham 2009; Pablos 2011). Genes in the pentose phosphate pathway such as *zwf* and *rpiA* have also been overexpressed in order to enhance nucleotide production for pDNA synthesis (Wang 2006; Williams 2009). However, most of these mutations were made in strains with highly mutagenized genetic backgrounds. Thus, it is unclear whether the specific strain background had an effect on the mutations introduced. In addition, these highly mutated strains exhibit a lower growth rate than parental (wild-type) strains, a characteristic that suggests a less healthy organism.

The trade-off between strain engineering and fermentation strategy is still a hurdle for the development of new pDNA production strains. Differences in fermentation strategies (batch or fed-batch) (O'Kennedy et al., 2003; Ow et al., 2007; Ow et al., 2009), medium composition and carbon source (glucose or glycerol) (Oh and Liao 2000) were previously shown to affect E. coli metabolism and should also be taken into consideration when producing pDNA. It is well known that glycerol has the advantage of minimizing acetate formation in fermentation processes and it is becoming an inexpensive and attractive carbon source (Carnes 2006; Carvalho 2011). On the other hand, glucose has been used for several years in high-density cultures and for pDNA production and is both accessible and

inexpensive (Luli and Strohl 1990). High acetate formation has been observed with glucose; however, accumulation profiles depend on the strain (Phue 2005). E. coli strains have been engineered to optimize glucose uptake and reduce acetate formation (De Anda 2006). For example, the strain VH33 (PTS⁻GalP⁺), a derivative of W3110 with an inactive phosphotransferase system (PTS) and a strong promoter for galP, has shown improved production of pDNA (Pablos 2011; Soto 2011). Interestingly, high yield pDNA production was shown with strain BL21 Δ end $A\Delta$ recA in both glucose and glycerol, while DH5 α produced high pDNA yields only in glycerol (Phue 2008).

In this work, we set out to enhance pDNA production by rationally mutating key genes of the glycolytic pathway. We first chose genes which had already been shown to increase pDNA yields, pykF and pykA (Cunningham 2009; Pablos 2011), and deleted them in two different strains: MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA, a nearly wild-type genetic background; and DH5 α , a commonly used, but highly mutagenized strain. Deletions of endA and recA were made in MG1655 in order to minimize recombination and non-specific digestion of DNA (Phue 2008; Summers 1998). We also analyzed the influence of carbon source (glucose versus glycerol) among the different strains developed. Finally, we explored the effect of a previously untested mutation with the introduction of a new knockout, pgi, in MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA to redirect carbon flow into the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) and promote nucleotide synthesis.

Material and Methods

Strains and plasmids

93 The bacterial strains used in this study are indicated in Table 1. MG1655 was kindly
94 donated by Professor Gregory Stephanopoulos of the Department of Chemical Engineering at
95 the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Cambridge, MA, USA). Gene deletions of *endA*,

recA, pykF, pykA and pgi in MG1655 and JM101were carried out with P1 transduction using the following strains from the Keio collection (Baba 2006) as donors: JW1666-1 [ΔpykF751::kan]; JW1843-1 [ΔpykA779::kan]; JW3985-1 [Δpgi-721::kan]; JW2912-1 $[\Delta endA720::kan]$ and JW2669-1 $[\Delta recA774::kan]$. The recA gene was always the last to be deleted, since P1 transduction requires an active RecA recombinase. The kanamycin cassette was removed using plasmid pCP20 as described by Datsenko and Wanner (2000), and successfully constructed mutant strains were verified by colony PCR using appropriate primers. The standard protocol for inactivation of chromosomal genes (Datsenko and Wanner 2000) was adapted to knock-out pykF and pykA in DH5a. Briefly, DH5a was transformed with a recA containing plasmid, pKD46recA+, and RecA recombinase expression was induced with arabinose. DH5a(pKD46recA+) was transformed with the specific PCR fragment generated using appropriate primers, and homologous recombinants were selected with kanamycin. The plasmid pKD46*recA*+ is temperature sensitive and was cured by raising the temperature. The remaining steps of the protocol were performed as described previously by Datsenko and Wanner (2000). All strains were transformed with plasmid pVAX1GFP (3697 bp), derived from Invitrogen's (Carlsbad, CA) pVAX1LacZ as described previously (Azzoni 2007).

Medium and growth conditions

Transformed strains were maintained on agar plates containing 30 µg/mL of kanamycin. A seed bank was prepared from single colonies picked from each plate and inoculated in Luria Bertani (LB) medium supplemented with 30 µg/mL of kanamycin. Cultures were grown to mid-exponential phase at 250 rpm, 37°C and frozen at -80°C in 15% (v/v) final concentration glycerol. The inoculum was prepared from frozen seed stocks in complex medium [Bacto peptone, 10 g/L; yeast extract, 10 g/L; (NH₄)₂SO₄, 3 g/L; K₂HPO₄, 3.5 g/L; KH₂PO₄, 3.5 g/L; thiamine, 199 mg/L; MgSO₄, 1.99 g/L; trace element solution, 1

mL/L (Listner 2006)] supplemented with 30 µg/mL of kanamycin, grown to mid-exponential phase and then used to inoculate batch cultures to an initial optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) of approximately 0.1. Cultures were grown at 37°C for 24 hours in 250 mL shake flasks containing 50 mL of complex medium supplemented with 30 µg/mL of kanamycin, initial pH of 7.1 and aeration by shaking at 250 rpm. Glucose and glycerol were used as the primary carbon sources as indicated in the Results. Cells were sampled at 6, 12 and 24 hours to quantify glucose, glycerol and acetate, and at 12 and 24 hours to quantify pDNA.

Biomass quantification

Samples were taken every 3 hours to determine biomass concentration. OD₆₀₀ was measured in a Beckman Coulter DU 800 spectrophotometer. Dry cell weight (DCW) was determined using a vacuum filtration system. 10 mL of each sample was filtered in previously weighed filter papers and then dried at 42°C. A linear correlation was determined between cell concentration (g/L) and OD_{600nm}.

Plasmid DNA quantification

Plasmid DNA was quantified from crude lysates prepared from $OD_{600nm} = 10$ cell pellets using the method described by Listner (2006). The method was modified slightly: cell pellets were harvested by centrifugation at 5000 x g for 15 minutes, the 37°C incubation took place with 250 rpm shaking, and 5 µL of RNase A solution (10 mg/mL) was used per mL of lysate. The resulting lysates were analyzed using a Gen-Pak FAX anion-exchange column (Waters Corporation) on an Agilent 1100 Series HPLC system. The HPLC method was run at a constant flow rate of 0.75 mL/min and consisted of a 10-minute linear NaCl gradient from 300 mM to 660 mM, followed by 5.5 minutes at 1 M NaCl, after which the column was flushed with 0.04 M phosphoric acid for 4.5 minutes. Before the next sample injection, the column was equilibrated with 300 mM NaCl for 10 min. Plasmid DNA eluted at

approximately 610 mM NaCl and was detected at 260 nm with a diode array detector (DAD). A highly linear standard curve of pVAX1GFP was prepared using pDNA purified with the Hi-Speed QIA filter Plasmid Maxi Kit (Qiagen) and quantified using absorbance at 260 nm on an Implen NanoPhotometer.

Metabolite quantification

To determine the concentration of glucose, glycerol and acetic acid, culture samples were centrifuged at 5000 x g for 15 minutes, and the aqueous supernatant was used for HPLC analysis on an Agilent 1100 Series HPLC system equipped with an Aminex HPX-87 H anion exchange column (Bio-Rad Laboratories) and refractive index detector (RID). The LC method was run at a constant flow rate of 0.6 mL/min with 5 mM H₂SO₄ as the mobile phase, at 50°C for 25 min.

Statistical analyses

The effect of the gene knockouts was measured by pDNA yield quantification. T-tests for independent samples (SSPS Statistics) were done to identify significant differences in pDNA yields between parental and mutated strains. Differences were considered statistically significant when the *P* value was < 0.05. At least three independent duplicate experiments were conducted in order to confirm the results. Standard error of mean (SEM) was calculated for all measurements of pDNA yields, biomass, acetate and growth rate.

Results

Effect of carbon source on *pykF* and *pykA* knockout strains

Cuningham (2009) demonstrated the benefits of the double pykF-pykA mutations in a JM101 strain grown on glucose (Fig. 1). We chose to investigate these same mutations in the nearly wild-type MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA and in the commonly used DH5 α strain, using either

glycerol or glucose as the primary carbon source. The first experiments were conducted with an initial concentration of glycerol and glucose of 20 g/L and with MG1655*AendAArecA*, GALG1011 (MG1655 Δ end $A\Delta$ rec $A\Delta$ pykF Δ pykA), DH5 α and DH5 $\alpha\Delta$ pykF Δ pykA, all carrying pVAX1GFP. MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA and DH5 α grew faster than their respective pykF and *pykA* double knockout mutant strains in both glucose and glycerol. However, higher biomass content was obtained in glycerol. GALG1011 produced less acetate than MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA in both carbon sources. In contrast, DH5a and DH5a Δ pykF Δ pykA produced similar amounts of acetate. In general, less acetate was obtained in glycerol for all strains (Table 2).

The double knockout of pykF and pykA had a negative impact on pDNA production in both strains when using glycerol as carbon source (Table 3). On the other hand, the double knockout increased pDNA yield 2-fold in GALG1011 vs. MG1655*AendAArecA* when glucose was the main carbon source. In glucose, the phosphotransferase system (PTS) is able to couple pyruvate formation with carbohydrate transport, partially mitigating the effect of *pyk* deletions. However, the PTS system is not utilized for glycerol uptake and hence this additional source of pyruvate is not available (Oh and Liao 2000). Nevertheless, pDNA yields were significantly lower in glucose than in glycerol for all Pyk mutant strains when the initial concentration of both carbon sources was 20 g/L (Table 3). It has been reported that 10 g/L of glucose can inhibit pDNA synthesis in E. coli B (Zhi-nan 2005) and that E. coli K-12 grows slower and accumulates more acetate than B strains at high glucose concentrations (Phue 2005). Therefore, inhibition of pDNA synthesis could also be expected in K-12 strains with high glucose. Of the strains and conditions examined, MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA was the best producer of pDNA in glycerol, although it produced the highest quantity of acetate (Tables 2 and 3). It is known that acetate secretion can shuttle carbon away from nucleotide

synthesis which could be disadvantageous for pDNA formation, but the exact effect ofacetate on pDNA production is not yet elucidated (Carnes 2011; Wang 2006).

Glucose inhibition in plasmid DNA production

To determine the effect of glucose concentration on pDNA production, MG1655 Δ end Δ /recA and GALG1011 bearing pVAX1GFP were grown in three different conditions: 5 g/L of glucose initially plus 10 g/L of glucose after 12 hours (5+10 g/L), 10 g/L of glucose initially plus 10 g/L of glucose after 12 hours (10+10 g/L), and 20 g/L with no extra addition of glucose. MG1655 Δ end Δ /recA and GALG1011 produced 5-fold and 4-fold more pDNA, respectively, in (5+10 g/L) than 20 g/L of glucose (Table 3). However, when the initial glucose concentration was 5 g/L, the difference in pDNA specific yield (mg/g DCW) between these strains was less than 2-fold (Table 3). In (5+10 g/L) glucose, GALG1011 still produced less acetate and grew slower than MG1655 Δ end Δ /recA (Table 2). Similar biomass was formed for both strains, and the final biomass achieved in (5+10 g/L) glucose was comparable to that obtained in glycerol, though the pDNA yield was still higher in glycerol. Experiments were also performed with glucose addition after 9 hours, but no difference was observed in pDNA yields (data not shown).

After determining the best glucose concentration, (5+10 g/L), for pDNA production in MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA and GALG1011, we tested DH5 α and DH5 α Δ pykF Δ pykA, in order to determine whether the negative performance of the double mutant with 20 g/L glucose (Table 3) was due to inhibition or to strain genetic background. pDNA production increased 2-fold in DH5 α when moving from 20 g/L glucose to (5+10 g/L) glucose. However, the negative effect of *pykF* and *pykA* knockouts was maintained. Therefore, it appears that the genetic background of DH5 α is suppressing the positive effects of *pykF* and *pykA* gene knockouts observed in GALG1011.

Effect of strain background on *pykF* and *pykA* double knockouts

As stated previously, the beneficial effects of the *pykF-pykA* double knockout for pDNA production were demonstrated in JM101 grown in glucose (Cunningham 2009). There are no reports about the behavior of JM101 $\Delta pykF\Delta pykA$ bearing plasmid in glycerol. To further examine the effect of strain genetic background, we decided to construct JM101 $\Delta pykF\Delta pykA$ and to test it in the same rich medium and conditions as GALG1011 and DH5 α */pykF/pykA*. The loss of Pyk is expected to reduce acetate accumulation, and glycerol is frequently used for the same purpose. Thus, the double mutations are not expected to favor pDNA production in glycerol over the unmutated strain; however, because this carbon source was not previously tested, it is unclear if the effect of the mutations would be negative or neutral. Consistent with the results presented by Cunningham (2009), JM101 $\Delta pykF\Delta pykA$ produced 2-fold more pVAX1GFP (5.3 or 2.5 mg/g DCW) than JM101 (2.6 or 1.3 mg/g DCW) when grown in 5 or 20 g/L glucose, respectively. However, as with the other engineered strains, JM101 $\Delta pykF\Delta pykA$ (2.2 mg/g DCW) produced less pDNA than JM101 in glycerol-rich medium (8.4 mg/g DCW; Table 3). In general, the double knockout of *pykF* and pykA was effective in MG1655*AendAArecA* and JM101 in glucose, but it was not beneficial in DH5 α . The highly mutagenized genetic background of DH5 α appears to affect the *pykF* and *pykA* mutation.

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Effect of single knockouts of *pykF* or *pykA* gene

The previous results showed that the pykF and pykA double knockout can be beneficial in glucose and that the mutation had a positive effect in MG1655 Δ end Δ ArecA and JM101 (Table 3). Nevertheless, the pykF and pykA mutant strain GALG1011 still produced much less plasmid in glucose (6.6 mg/g DCW) than the nearly wild-type strain,

240 MG1655*AendAArecA*, in glycerol (11.2 mg/g DCW), (Table 3).

In an effort to increase pDNA yields, we decided to investigate *pykF* or *pykA* single knockouts in MG1655*AendAArecA*. A single knockout could be more effective than the double knockout for pDNA production in glucose because more pyruvate would be formed and higher ATP yields would be obtained through glycolysis. At the same time, carbon flux would be boosted to the pentose phosphate pathway, increasing nucleotide synthesis (Siddiquee 2004). For example, Pablos (2011) showed that a single *pykA* knockout increased pDNA production 3-fold in W3110 $\Delta PTSGalP^+$ in glucose.

To determine the effect of a *pykF* or *pykA* single knockout in MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA, we generated strains GALG10 (MG1655*AendAArecAApykF*) and GALG11

(MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA Δ pykA) and tested them in glucose and glycerol under the same conditions as described previously (Table 3). In both carbon sources, one single mutation was found to be more effective for pDNA production than the double mutation. In glycerol, MG1655/JendA/JrecA, GALG10 and GALG11 produced similar amounts of pDNA (11.2, 8.6 and 10.3 mg/g DCW). In contrast, GALG10 (10.5 mg/g DCW) and GALG11 (13.1 mg/g DCW) produced more pDNA than MG1655*AendAArecA* (3.6 mg/g DCW) or GALG1011 (6.6 mg/g DCW) in glucose. GALG11 achieved high pDNA yields in glucose (13.1 mg/g DCW), even in comparison with the yields obtained with MG1655*AendAArecA* in glycerol (11.2 mg/g DCW), (Table3). Nevertheless, both GALG10 and GALG11 produced little pDNA when the initial concentration of glucose was 20 g/L ($\leq 1 \text{ mg/g DCW}$).

Single mutations in pykF or pykA genes were also constructed in DH5 α , generating the strains DH5 α /pykF and DH5 α /pykA. Surprisingly, DH5 α /pykF (5.9 mg/g DCW) produced more pDNA than DH5 α (1.8 mg/g DCW) in glucose. On the contrary, DH5 α /pykA (0.9 mg/g DCW) displayed a similar behaviour to DH5 α *ApykFApykA* (0.3 mg/g DCW) and produced much less pDNA. Although the pykF single knockout had positive effects in DH5 α ,

the final pDNA yields obtained with DH5 α and DH5 α */pykF* bearing pVAX1GFP were lower than the ones obtained with GALG10 and GALG11 (Table 3).

Effect of pgi knockout on plasmid DNA production

The main advantages of removing pyruvate kinase (Pyk) in a pDNA production strain through the deletion of both *pykF* and *pykA* genes would be the reduction of acetate and increase of carbon flux into the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP). On the other hand, the total lack of Pyk could reduce energy available for the cells by reducing the ATP content. In this work, we have shown that deletion of both pyruvate kinase isozymes increased pDNA production in the parental strain MG1655*AendAArecA* in glucose. However, higher amounts of pDNA were obtained when only pyruvate kinase I or II were absent in the parental strain in glucose, a result that suggests the importance of generating some pyruvate and completing glycolysis.

To increase the pentose phosphate pathway flux without compromising the energy obtained from the generation of pyruvate, we tried a different strategy in order to enhance nucleotide production and reduce glycolytic flux at the same time (Fig. 1). It has been reported that strains carrying high copy pDNA require extra synthesis of nucleotides and that the carbon flux into the PPP may not be sufficient to meet cellular needs (Flores 2004). The elimination of phosphoglucose isomerase (pgi) aims to redirect the carbon flux into the PPP, enhance synthesis of nucleotides, and also provide high amounts of reducing cofactors (i.e., NADPH). Pgi mutant strains were recently reported to improve the production of xylitol (Chin and Cirino 2011; Chin 2009), chiral compounds for the pharmaceutical market (Siedler 2011), and second generation biofuels (Yao 2011).

GALG20 (MG1655∆*endA*∆*recA*∆*pgi*) produced 3-fold more pVAXGFP pDNA (11.6
mg/g DCW) than MG1655∆*endA*∆*recA* in (5+10 g/L) glucose (3.6 mg/g DCW). In glycerol,

GALG20 produced similar amounts of pDNA as MG1655*AendAArecA* (Fig. 2).

Surprisingly, this strain had the best performance in 20 g/L of glucose, producing 25-fold more pDNA (19.1 mg/g DCW) than the parental strain (0.8 mg/g DCW), and 46% or 65 % more, respectively, than the previously best identified performers, GALG11 in 5+10 g/L glucose (13.1 mg/g DCW) and MG1655*AendAArecA* in 20 g/L glycerol (11.5 mg/g DCW).

Discussion

The *de novo* design of *E. coli* strains specifically for pDNA amplification is expected to enhance production yields when compared to strains with highly mutagenized genetic backgrounds. In this study, we performed a series of mutations in the wild type MG1655 strain and in the laboratory strain DH5 α in order to improve pDNA yields. The genes coding for pyruvate kinase (*pykA*, *pykF*) and phosphoglucose isomerase (*pgi*) were selected as targets due to their role in the PPP (Fig. 1).

In order to reduce acetate and increase carbon flux into the PPP, a double knockout of *pykF* and *pykA* was first created. Our results show that the strain genetic background can indeed interfere in the outcome of mutations which are otherwise rationally designed. Of the Pyk mutant strains examined, the strains derived from the nearly wild type MG1655*AendAArecA* (GALG10 and GALG11) were the best producers of pDNA, whereas DH5 α */pykF/pykA* and DH5 α */pykA* were the worst producers of pDNA in glucose (Table 3). The negative effect of the *pykF* and *pykA* double knockout on the production of pDNA in DH5 α could be ascribed to the interaction between the strain genotype and the new mutations added to the strain, though it is not clear which specific mutations result in the negative phenotype. In contrast, DH5 $\alpha \Delta pykF$ produced more plasmid than DH5 α in glucose, a result that points to an essential role of the *pykA* gene in DH5 α . Although, DH5 α *ApykF* had

increased pDNA yields when compared to DH5 α , the obtained yields were lower than those obtained with GALG10 and GALG11. Other advantages associated with the use of the nearly wild-type strain MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA as a starting point for strain engineering instead of DH5 α include a more robust growth and a lack of auxotrophies that can benefit pDNA production.

Strains with single mutations of either *pykF* or *pykA* were found to be more efficient in producing pDNA than strains containing the double mutation. The synthesis of pDNA was likely more advantageous when the pyruvate kinase activity was reduced as opposed to abolished because glycolytic flux was down-regulated while still enabling additional ATP production and up-regulation of glucose flux through the PPP. For example, Siddiquee (2004) demonstrated that a *pykF* single knockout in *E. coli* increased glucose flux through the PPP. Moreover, linear programming has predicted different carbon fluxes for *E. coli* lacking pyruvate kinase, resulting in different ATP yields (Phalakornkule 2001). Since cells, as living organisms, are difficult to phenotypically predict, different strains (MG1655 and DH5 α) with the same gene knockout (*pykA* or *pykF*) can have diverse carbon fluxes and result in different ATP yields, favoring pDNA synthesis or not.

The abolishment of the *pgi* gene should redirect glucose-6-phosphate preferentially to the PPP, but glycolysis would continue due to the generation of fructose-6-phosphate and glyceraldeyde-3-phosphate (Fig. 1). In general, high amounts of NADPH, nucleotides and ATP would be obtained. Indeed, the inactivation of the *pgi* gene in *E. coli* previously resulted in the redirection of glucose predominantly via the PPP, but a minor fraction of glucose was still catabolized in the Entner-Doudoroff Pathway (EDP) (Canonaco 2001). A large excess of NADPH was detected in Pgi mutant strains (Canonaco 2001; Chin and Cirino 2011; Siedler 2011), which was shown to improve biotransformations in various processes. However, an excess of NADPH can cause a redox imbalance in the cell, imposing stress that may appear

as a large reduction in growth rate (Charusanti 2010). In the specific case of pDNA
synthesis, a mathematical model has demonstrated that high generation of NADPH would be
effective for increasing yields (Cunningham 2009). Nevertheless, no Pgi mutant strain has
been previously reported for the purpose of producing pDNA.

Together the benefits of increasing glucose flux into the PPP, such as enhancement of nucleotides and of NADPH generation, turn a Pgi mutant strain into a high potential pDNA production strain. In fact, GALG20 produced 25-fold more pDNA than its parental strain in 20 g/L of glucose. A previous study has shown that catabolite repression can be relaxed by pgi mutants (Yao 2011). Indeed, large amounts of biomass (8.8 g/L) and pDNA (19.1 mg/g DCW) and low amounts of acetic acid (0.02 g/L) were formed by GALG20 in high concentrations of glucose. Another advantage of GALG20 for pDNA production was that the growth rate was similar to the parental strain in glucose (Table 2), whereas a previous study demonstrated a significant reduction of growth rate in a *pgi* mutant strain grown in the same carbon source (Ahn 2011). The differences in the behavior of these two pgi mutants in glucose could be associated with the strain genetic background between the two studies, E. *coli* MG1655 Δ *endA* Δ *recA* and KPM SA1 (Δ *araL* Δ *araK*), respectively. In the current work, we have demonstrated that strain background can substantially influence the effect of gene knockouts, such as the differences between the pykF and pykA mutations in MG1655ΔendAΔrecA versus DH5α.

In the *pgi* mutant strain, the level of glucose-6-phosphate is significantly higher, which can destabilize the PTS system and in turn, alter the level of cyclic AMP (cAMP) (Morita 2003). On the other hand, *pgi* mutant cells up-regulate the catabolite repressor activator (Cra), due to the decrease in fructose 6-phosphate (Yao 2011). Nevertheless, it is not clear yet how cAMP or Cra mechanisms of gene regulation would correlate with pDNA synthesis. Previous studies suggested that increasing cAMP levels could be associated with

enhancement of pDNA yields (Cunningham 2009), and the elimination of Cra was shown to increase pDNA (Ow 2009). Further work would be necessary to elucidate the role played by cAMP and Cra in plasmid DNA synthesis, and *pgi* mutant cells could be a useful target to study metabolic network behavior associated with pDNA production. The regulation of glucose-6-phosphate-1-dehydrogenase (Zwf) or other enzymes in the PPP could limit pDNA synthesis. Based on previous evidence (Wang 2006), ribose phosphate isomerase (Rpi) could also limit nucleotide production because the relative amount of ribose 5-phosphate (R5P) and xylose 5-phosphate (Xu5P) depends on cellular needs. Overexpression of Zwf and Rpi would be potential alternatives to increase pDNA yields in *pgi* mutant cells.

Among the strains generated and analyzed we selected the top three pDNA producer strains and compared their performance with the commonly used lab strain, DH5 α (Table 4). GALG20 and GALG11 performed better in glucose while MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA and DH5 α performed better in glycerol. The *pgi* mutation in the MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA wild-type strain resulted in the best volumetric (140.8 mg/L) and specific (19.1 mg/g DCW) pDNA yields. To our knowledge, this is the highest reported value for specific plasmid yield for a constant temperature batch process. This figure is only comparable to the 19.2 mg/g DCW obtained by Ow (2009) in a fed-batch system with a DH5 $\alpha\Delta$ FruR strain at 37°C. Further experiments will be carried out and different fermentation strategies will be explored in order to investigate the true potential of these high pDNA producer strains.

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Strain	Genotype	Reference
MG1655∆endA∆recA	$F \lambda^{-} ilvG rfb-50$	Prather Lab
	rph1∆endA∆recA	
GALG10	$MG1655 \Delta endA \Delta recA \Delta pykF$	This study
GALG11	MG1655∆endA∆recA∆pykA	This study
GALG1011	$MG1655 \Delta endA \Delta recA \Delta pykF$	This study
	∆pykA	
DH5α	F- ö80 <i>lac</i> ZÄM15 Ä(<i>lac</i> ZYA- argF)U169 recA1 endA1 hsdR17(r_k , m_k^+) phoA supE44 thi-1 gyrA96 relA1 ë	Invitrogen
DH5α⊿pykA	DH5α ΔpykA	This study
DH5a⊿pykF	DH5α ΔpykF	This study
DH5α <i>∆pykF∆pyk</i> A	DH5α ΔруkFΔруkA	This study
JM101	F' traD36 pro A^+B^+ lac I^q	ATCC33876
	$\Delta(lacZ)M15/\Delta(lac-proAB)$	
	glnV thi	
JM101⊿ <i>pykF∆pyk</i> A	JM101⊿pykF∆pykA	This study
GALG20	MG1655∆endA∆recA∆pgi	This study

Table 1 Bacterial strains used in this study.



)	Table 2 Biomass, acetate and growth rate in glucose versus glycerol for parental strains
)	versus Pyk and Pgi mutant strains.

Suralli	Carbon Biomass		Acetate	Growth	
	Source	(g/L)	(g/L)	rate (h ⁻¹)	
MG1655∆endA∆recA		7.7 ± 0.8	3.86 ± 0.01	0.60 ± 0.0	
GALG1011	Glycerol	8.6 ± 0.9	0.08 ± 0.01	0.49 ± 0.0	
GALG20	20 g/L	8.5 ± 0.5	$0.61\pm0.04*$	0.60 ± 0.0	
DH5a		11.3 ± 0.9	0.05 ± 0.01	0.55 ± 0.0	
DH5α <i>∆pykF∆pykA</i>		9.0 ± 0.6	0.04 ± 0.01	0.31 ± 0.0	
MG1655∆endA∆recA		3.5 ± 0.3	5.74 ± 0.04	0.65 ± 0.0	
GALG1011	Glucose	4.3 ± 0.2	4.81 ± 0.03	0.53 ± 0.0	
GALG20	20 g/L	10.9 ± 0.2	$1.55\pm0.02^*$	0.77 ± 0.02	
DH5a		3.8 ± 0.2	4.72 ± 0.04	0.49 ± 0.0	
DH5α <i>∆pykF∆pykA</i>		3.0 ± 0.4	4.21 ± 0.02	0.28 ± 0.0	
MG1655∆endA∆recA	Cl	11.8 ± 0.3	$1.98 \pm 0.05*$	0.55 ± 0.0	
GALG1011	Glucose	12.2 ± 0.2	$0.64\pm0.05*$	0.40 ± 0.1	
GALG10	5+10 g/L	9.8 ± 0.4	$0.86\pm0.05*$	0.30 ± 0.1	
GALG11		12.0 ± 0.4	$1.23\pm0.05*$	0.48 ± 0.0	
GALG20		9.6 ±0.2	$0.68\pm0.05*$	0.67 ± 0.0	
Strains were grown in sh SEM) is shown. Values corresponding t	hake flasks at 3	37°C. Average	e value ± standa	rd error of	

Strain	Carbon So	ource (g/L)	pDNA yield (mg/gDCW)	pDNA yield (mg/L)
		20	0.8 ± 0.1	1.5 ± 0.1
	Glucose	10 + 10	0.8 ± 0.1	1.9 ± 1.2
MG1655∆endA∆recA		5+10	3.6 ± 0.7	27.4 ± 1.9
	Glycerol	20	11.5 ± 0.8	79.3 ± 1.4
		5+10	11.2 ± 0.5	75.1 ± 3.9
		20	1.6 ± 0.3	3.2 ± 0.4
	Glucose	10 + 10	1.2 ± 0.5	4.3 ± 1.7
GALG1011		5+10	6.6 ± 0.4	42.1 ± 3.5
		20	7.6 ± 1.1	50.5 ± 1.3
	Glycerol	5+10	2.7 ± 0.2	20.9 ± 0.2
GALG10	Glucose	20	0.99 ± 0.1	3.45 ±0.3
		5+10	10.5 ± 1.3	81.5 ± 5.7
	Glycerol	5+10	8.6 ± 0.6	69.2 ± 3.9
GALG11	Glucose	20	0.65 ± 0.1	2.4 ± 0.3
		5+10	13.1 ± 0.2	94.1 ± 2.7
	Glycerol	5+10	10.3 ± 0.6	79.4 ± 7.0
	Glucose	20	19.1 ± 1.5	140.8 ± 0.8
GALG20		5+10	11.6 ± 1.1	88.9 ± 0.7
	Glycerol	5+10	10.1 ± 0.1	65.5 ± 1.4
	Glucose	20	0.8 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.1
DH5a		5+10	1.8 ± 0.7	9.6 ± 0.5
	Glycerol	20	4.4 ± 0.3	34.7 ± 0.6
	Glucose	20	0.4 ± 0.1	2.6 ± 0.2
DH5αΔ <i>pykFΔpykA</i>		5+10	0.3 ± 0.3	0.9 ± 0.2
	Glycerol	20	1.5 ± 0.3	5.9 ± 1.1
DH5 $\alpha \Delta py kF$	Glucose	5+10	5.9 ± 0.1	36.9 ± 0.4
DH5α <i>ΔpykA</i>	Glucose	5+10	0.9 ± 0.1	1.5 ± 0.1
1 /		20	1.3 ± 0.2	4.5 ± 0.8
JM101	Glucose	5	2.5 ± 0.4	35.5 ± 6.8
-	Glycerol	20	8.4 ± 1.4	54.3 ± 2.8
	•	20	2.6 ± 0.3	12.5 ± 2.8
JM101 <i>ApvkFApvkA</i>	Glucose	5	5.3 ± 1.7	28.5 ± 4.3
r	Glycerol	20	2.2 ± 1.3	12.5 ± 0.5
Strains were grown	in shaka flask	rs at 37°C	Average value + star	dard arror of ma

Table 3 Effect of glucose and glycerol in different concentrations on plasmid DNA

553 production for different strains.

Strains were grown in shake flasks at 37°C. Average value ± standard error of mean (SEM) is shown.

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			<i>a</i> -	pDN	pDNA yield	
		Strain	Carbon	r	~	
			source	volumetric	Specific	
				(mg/L)	(mg/g DCW)	
		GALG20	Glucose	140.8 ± 0.8	19.1 ± 1.5	
		GALG11	Glucose	94.1 ± 2.7	13.1 ± 0.2	
		MG1655∆endA∆recA	Glycerol	79.3 ± 1.4	11.5 ± 0.8	
		DH5a	Glycerol	34.7 ± 0.6	4.4 ± 0.3	
50	Stra	ins were grown in shake	flasks at 37°	C. Average val	ue ± standard e	
61	(SEI	M) is shown.		2		
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Table 4 Top three high-yield pDNA production strains identified in this study versus a

Figure legends

Fig. 1 Gene knockout strategies to improve plasmid DNA production in E. coli. The knockout of the phosphoglucose isomerase (pgi) gene redirects glycolytic flux, increasing fluxes in the pentose phosphate pathway and enhancing nucleotide synthesis and NADPH production. Glycolysis is down-regulated, but proceeds via the formation of fructose 6phosphate and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate. The knockouts of pyruvate kinase genes pykFand *pykA* reduce acetate formation and increase fluxes in the pentose phosphate pathway. This figure represents a simplified version of E. coli central metabolism. Dark arrows represent high carbon flow in the pentose phosphate pathway, light arrows represent downregulation of glycolysis, and blank arrow represent null carbon flow. Abbreviations: G6P, glucose 6-phosphate; F6P, fructose 6-phosphate; FDP, fructose 1,6-diphosphate; G3P, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate; PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate; 6GPC, 6-phosphogluconate; RU5P, ribulose 5-phosphate; XU5P, xylulose 5-phosphate; R5P, ribose 5-phosphate; S7P, sedoheptulose 7-phosphate; E4P, erythrose 4-phosphate; PTS, phosphotransferase system.

Fig. 2 Effect of *pgi* knockout on pDNA specific yield (mg/g DCW) using

582 MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA grown in glycerol and glucose. Strains were grown for 24 h in shake 583 flasks (37°C, 250 rpm) with rich medium supplemented with 5+10 g/L of glucose (white 584 bars), 5+10 g/L glycerol (gray bars) and 20 g/L of glucose (solid bars). Differences between 585 MG1655 Δ endA Δ recA and GALG20 were statistically significant (p<0.05) in different 586 concentrations of glucose, but they were not statistically significant (p>0.05) in glycerol. The 587 standard error of the mean (SEM) was calculated is represented with error bars.

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