1

Predictive regulatory and metabolic network models for systems analysis of *Clostridioides difficile*

2 3

Mario L. Arrieta-Ortiz¹, Selva Rupa Christinal Immanuel¹, Serdar Turkarslan¹, Wei Ju
Wu¹, Brintha P. Girinathan², Jay N. Worley², Nicholas DiBenedetto², Olga Soutourina³,

- 6 Johann Peltier³, Bruno Dupuy⁴, Lynn Bry² and Nitin S. Baliga^{1,+}
- 7
- 8 1. Institute for Systems Biology, Seattle, WA, USA
- 9 2. Massachusetts Host-Microbiome Center, Dept. Pathology, Brigham & Women's10 Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA
- 11 3. Université Paris-Saclay, CEA, CNRS, Institute for Integrative Biology of the Cell (I2BC),
- 12 91198, Gif-sur-Yvette, France
- 13 4. Laboratory of the Pathogenesis of Bacterial Anaerobes, Institut Pasteur, Université de
- 14 Paris, UMR-CNRS2001, France
- 15 +corresponding author: <u>nitin.baliga@isbscience.org</u>
- 16
- 17
- 18

19 **ABSTRACT**

20 Though Clostridioides difficile is among the most studied anaerobes, we know little about the 21 systems level interplay of metabolism and regulation that underlies its ability to negotiate complex 22 immune and commensal interactions while colonizing the human gut. We have compiled publicly 23 available resources, generated through decades of work by the research community, into two 24 models and a portal to support comprehensive systems analysis of C. difficile. First, by compiling 25 a compendium of 148 transcriptomes from 11 studies we have generated an Environment and 26 Gene Regulatory Influence Network (EGRIN) model that organizes 90% of all genes in the C. 27 difficile genome into 297 high quality modules based on evidence for their conditional co-28 regulation by at least 120 transcription factors. EGRIN predictions, validated with independently-29 generated datasets, have recapitulated previously characterized C. difficile regulons of key 30 transcriptional regulators, refined and extended membership of genes within regulons, and 31 implicated new genes for sporulation, carbohydrate transport and metabolism. Findings further 32 predict pathogen behaviors in *in vivo* colonization, and interactions with beneficial and detrimental 33 commensals. Second, by advancing a constraints-based metabolic model, we have discovered 34 that 15 amino acids, diverse carbohydrates, and 24 genes across glyoxylate, Wood-Ljungdahl, 35 nucleotide, amino acid, and carbohydrate metabolism are essential to support growth of C. difficile 36 within an intestinal environment. Models and supporting resources are accessible through an 37 interactive web portal (http://networks.systemsbiology.net/cdiff-portal/) to support collaborative 38 systems analyses of C. difficile.

39

40 INTRODUCTION

41 Clostridioides difficile, the etiology of pseudomembranous colitis, causes more than 500,000 42 infections, 30,000 deaths, and \$5 billion per year in US healthcare costs (1). Infections arise 43 through a variety of conditions that modulate the pathogen's ability to colonize and expand in the 44 gut. Antibiotic ablation of the commensal microbiota creates altered nutrient states in intestinal 45 environments due to lack of competition for nutrients from host, dietary or microbial origin. The 46 pathogen modifies its endogenous metabolism to respond to these altered states, which 47 stimulates subsequent cellular programs that can promote enhanced colonization and growth. 48 Stress and starvation responses within C. difficile populations trigger responses that lead to 49 sporulation, biofilm formation and release of mucosal damaging toxins (2-4).

50 Symptomatic infection requires the production of toxins from the C. difficile pathogenicity locus 51 (PaLoc), which includes the genes tcdA, tcdB and tcdE that respectively encode the A and B 52 toxins and holin involved in toxin export. The PaLoc also contains tcdR, a sigma factor specific 53 for the toxin gene promoters, and tcdC, a TcdR anti-sigma factor (5, 6). Epidemic ribotype 027 54 strains carry a second toxin locus, cdt, which includes the binary toxin genes ctdA and ctdB, and 55 cdtR regulator, which has also been hypothesized to modulate PaLoc expression (7, 8). C. difficile 56 elaborates toxin under starvation conditions to extract nutrients from the host and promote spore 57 shedding (9-11). Regulation of PaLoc expression occurs via a complex network of TFs and small 58 molecule inputs, of which direct primary regulators have been well described, but more complex 59 and combinatorial effects remain unclear (11). Toxin production further triggers rapid and 60 profound host immune responses, including release of reactive oxygen species (ROS) which 61 substantially alters the redox state of the gut environment, and other innate immune responses 62 that can induce C. difficile stress responses to cell wall, oxidative, and other damaging stimuli 63 (12–15). As per all microbes, C. difficile adapts to complex, dynamic environments through

changes in metabolism coordinated by a gene regulatory network (16, 17). However, the
mechanisms by which the gene regulatory network and metabolic pathways integrate to modulate *C. difficile* pathogenesis remain ill-defined (18, 19).

67 The C. difficile 630 (CD630) genome encodes 4,018 genes, with ~309 putative transcription 68 factors (TFs; including sigma factors), 1,030 metabolic genes, and 1,330 genes (>30%) with 69 unknown function (20, 21). The ATCC43255 strain of C. difficile, which is used to generate 70 symptomatic infections in mice, encodes 4,117 genes and ~327 TFs, of which ~97% are 71 significantly orthologous to genes encoded in the CD630 strain (22). To address questions 72 regarding the broader systems-level interplay among genes in colonization and infection, we used 73 computational modeling and network inference algorithms to construct an Environment and Gene 74 Regulatory Influence Network (EGRIN) model for C. difficile. This model leverages a compendium 75 of 148 published transcriptomes that surveyed responses of CD630 in diverse contexts. The 76 EGRIN model consists of modules of putatively co-regulated genes identified based on their co-77 expression over subsets of conditions, enrichment of functional associations, chromosomal 78 proximity, co-occurrence across phylogenetically related organisms, and presence of conserved 79 DNA motif(s) within their promoter regions indicating regulation by the same TFs. Further, using 80 regression analysis, EGRIN also captures the combinatorial regulation of genes within each 81 module as a function of the weighted influences of TFs. The model supports a systems-level 82 understanding of the infective capacity of this obligate anaerobe under different in vitro and in vivo 83 conditions.

In addition to EGRIN, we have advanced a metabolic network model of *C. difficile* to understand how conditional regulation manifests physiologically, by adding reactions and associated genes supporting the exchange of nutrients required for growth in intestinal environments. We apply the EGRIN and metabolic models to predict conditional contributions of metabolic genes to the pathogen's fitness under different environmental conditions. Analyses support rational prediction

89 of context-specific vulnerabilities of the pathogen and uncover TFs driving essential adaptive 90 responses under in vitro versus in vivo conditions. This analytic framework provides a new 91 systems-level view of the transcriptional and metabolic networks that coordinate C. difficile's 92 colonization, growth, expression of toxin, and adaptions to changing environments with host 93 infection. Our models identified multiple TFs that coordinate critical aspects within each of these 94 components, including contributions from PrdR, which regulates the Stickland proline and glycine 95 reductase systems and other energy-generating pathways, and Rex a regulator modulating 96 energy balance in C. difficile (23, 24). These findings refine the context and roles of these and 97 other regulators in C. difficile virulence, and provide specific targets of vulnerability for model-98 informed interventions against this pathogen. The compiled datasets, algorithms, and models can 99 be explored interactively through community-wide а web resource at 100 http://networks.systemsbiology.net/cdiff-portal/.

101

102

104 **RESULTS**

105 **Reconstruction of the environment and gene regulatory influence network (EGRIN) model**

106 for *C. difficile* **630**

107 To investigate C. difficile's transcriptionally-driven adaptive strategies we compiled 148 publicly 108 available transcriptomic datasets from 11 independent studies using CD630 (Table 1). This 109 compendium captures diverse transcriptional responses of C. difficile to commensals, in vitro or 110 in vivo responses to different nutrient conditions, and consequences of targeted TF gene 111 deletions. The transcriptome compendium together with functional associations from STRING 112 (25), and all promoter sequences, was analyzed with a suite of network inference tools to infer an 113 EGRIN model for C. difficile (Fig. 1A). The cMonkey2 biclustering algorithm (26) iteratively 114 grouped functionally-associated genes into modules based on their co-expression across 115 subsets of environments, and presence of similar cis-acting gene regulatory elements (GREs), 116 providing mechanistic evidence for co-regulation. Subsequently, we used the Inferelator (27) to 117 discover potential TFs of each module through a regression-based approach. The resulting 118 EGRIN model organized 3,895 of 4,018 CD630 genes into 406 gene modules, and inferred 119 module regulation by 148 of 309 genomically identified TFs that putatively act through GREs 120 discovered within gene and operon promoters. Among the Inferelator implicated regulatory 121 networks, 221 modules were controlled by more than one TF, and 75 were regulated by more 122 than two TFs (Fig. S1). The TF module assignments support subsequent hypothesis-driven 123 experimental analyses, including the design of ChIP-seq and TF-deletion experiments to validate 124 the regulatory network architecture under physiologically relevant environmental contexts.

125

126 The quality of modules within the EGRIN model was evaluated using residual scores, which reflect 127 the coherence of gene co-expression patterns. The lower the residual score, the higher the quality 128 of the module. We determined using an empirical approach that a residual cutoff of 0.55 identified

129 a functionally meaningful set of 297 high quality modules (73% of the total 406 modules) based on the relative enrichment of related functions within modules that passed filtering (Fig. 1B). 130 131 Incidentally, this empirically determined threshold was similar to the threshold used to identify 132 high quality EGRIN gene modules for Mycobacterium tuberculosis (28). Altogether, the 297 high 133 guality modules captured transcriptional regulation of 3,617 genes (90%) in CD630, with average 134 membership of 20 genes per module (Fig. 1C-D). These metrics were consistent with models 135 developed for other organisms (28, 29), a remarkable finding given that the transcriptional dataset 136 used to construct the C. difficile model was less than 10% the size of ones used to construct 137 models for other species.

138

Validation of the modular architecture and regulatory mechanisms uncovered by the *C. difficile* EGRIN model

We tested the accuracy of the EGRIN model to reconstruct previously characterized regulons and recapitulate key aspects of *C. difficile* biology. To do so, we performed gene enrichment analysis within modules using an updated annotation of *C. difficile* genome (22). This analysis identified 93 of 297 modules (31%) with significant enrichment of genes with related functions in 40

pathways (hypergeometric test adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05). Among these pathways, 13 were over-

146 represented in three or more modules (Fig. 2A), demonstrating the capacity of the model to 147 discover conditional partition of cellular processes. We also investigated whether the EGRIN 148 model had identified known regulatory interactions between TFs and their target genes. We 149 compiled from literature the regulons (i.e. target genes) of 13 previously characterized TFs in C. 150 *difficile*, representing a network of 1,353 TF-gene interactions (**Table S1**). Notably, a total of 65 151 modules (22% of all high-quality modules) were significantly enriched with nine of these TF 152 regulons (Fig. 2B). The EGRIN model recapitulated 541 of the 1,212 (45%) previously 153 characterized interactions. This value is consistent with the recall rate of the EGRIN model for M.

154 tuberculosis (41%-49%) (28). The poor recall of the remaining four regulons (141 regulatory 155 interactions) could be due to underrepresentation of gene expression data from relevant 156 conditions in which these regulons are conditionally active. This analysis also uncovered 157 combinatorial regulation of genes across 19 modules (i.e. enriched with more than one TF 158 regulon). Consistent with the known hierarchical scheme for regulation of sporulation (30), 159 expression of 161 genes across at least eight modules were putatively influenced by Spo0A in 160 combination with one or more alternative sigma factors implicated in sporulation (e.g., SigE). 161 EGRIN also predicted CcpA contributions in seven additional modules in combination with CodY. 162 PrdR and SigL, illustrating the complexity of modular transcriptional regulation in C. difficile.

163

164 The biclustering of genes by cMonkey2 is constrained by the *de novo* discovery of a conserved 165 GRE(s) within their promoters in order to cluster genes that are co-regulated, and not just co-166 expressed. The GREs represent putative binding sites for TFs that are often independently 167 implicated by the Inferelator and protein-DNA interaction maps as regulators of genes within the 168 same module(28, 29, 31). Notably, we determined that the GREs within promoters of genes in 169 modules #182 and #309 were similar to known binding sites for CodY and SigL, which are 170 predicted regulators of those modules, and are among the very few TFs for which binding sites 171 have been characterized (Fig. 2C-D).

172

The EGRIN modules also detected co-regulation of genes within and across functionally related operons. For example, module #152, which is enriched with the SigD regulon, contains 16 genes that were part of four operons including the flagellar operon *flgG1G-fliMN*-CD630_02720-*htpG*, in addition to *pyrBKDE*, CD630_30270-CD630_30280-*malY*-CD630_30300, and CD630_32430*prdA*. *De novo* search for TF motifs traditionally use dozens of sequences to identify putative GREs. With the amount of transcriptomic information available, further robust prediction of putative GREs was limited by available numbers of putative binding sites after genes were

organized into predicted operon structures. In addition, multiple modules with statistically significant GREs could not be matched to characterized TFs due to the limited number of TFs with known motifs in *C. difficile*. These limitations can be overcome with additional transcriptomic datasets, as leveraged for EGRIN model development for other species.

184

185 C. difficile EGRIN model uncovers regulatory networks for the Pathogenicity Locus

186 We evaluated capacity for the EGRIN model to recall known mechanisms of PaLoc regulation, 187 and to provide new information regarding complex regulatory and small molecule effects. The 188 EGRIN model captured certain previously described effects of CodY on toxin gene expression 189 (Fig. 2E), as shown in module #182, which is enriched with members of the CodY regulon 190 including tcdA. In agreement with EGRIN-predicted CodY regulation of PaLoc genes in module 191 #182, genes encoding the toxin *tcdA* and its regulator *tcdR* were significantly overexpressed upon 192 deletion of *codY* (**Fig. 2G**). Interestingly, *tcdB* which was co-regulated with sporulation genes in 193 module #397 was also significantly upregulated in the codY deletion strain, suggesting that this 194 effect might be an indirect consequence of disrupted CodY regulation of tcdR (Fig. 2G). It is 195 assumed that CodY acts on PaLoc gene expression primarily through its repression of tcdR. 196 Putative lower affinity binding sites have been suggested in the toxin gene promoter regions (32). 197 The presence of the CodY motif (Fig. 2C) in most members of module #182, including tcdA 198 (purple font in Fig. 2E) suggests direct influence of CodY on tcdA gene expression. The EGRIN 199 model also identified previously reported connections between sporulation and toxin production 200 (33). tcdB was assigned to module #397, which was significantly enriched with genes controlled 201 by Spo0A, the master regulator of sporulation (Fig. 2F). Additional members of the PaLoc were 202 assigned to other modules, supporting the presence of multiple condition-dependent promoters 203 within the PaLoc (Table S2).

204

205 Assignment of putative functions to genes in EGRIN modules

Approximately 33% of gene features in the CD630 genome have unknown functions. Thus, the *C. difficile* EGRIN model emerges as a resource to assign putative functions to uncharacterized genes based on functional associations among co-regulated genes (i.e. guilt-by-association)(34). We predicted putative functions for 48 uncharacterized genes by mining underlying functional enrichment of modules under different experimental conditions (see methods). These 48 previously uncharacterized genes were associated with 13 functional categories, including "Sporulation" and "Other sugar-family transporters" (**Fig. 3A**).

213

214 Ten genes were putatively assigned sporulation-related functions based on their co-regulation in 215 the sporulation associated modules #206 and #251 (Fig. 3B). Module #251 includes the 216 sporulation-associated alternative sigma factors SigG and SigE (located in the same operon). 217 Module #206 includes seven stage III sporulation genes (spollIAA, spollIAB, spollIAC, spollIAD, 218 spollAF, spollAG and spollAH), and two stage IV sporulation genes (spolV, spolVA), Reduced 219 expression of the 10 putative sporulation genes upon deletion of sporulation-associated sigma 220 factors suggested putative roles within the mother cell or the forespore. Seven genes are likely 221 associated with mother cell-specific roles based on their decreased expression in sigE (six genes) 222 and sigK (one gene) deletion strains (**Table S1**). Two additional genes were down-regulated in a 223 sigG deletion strain, suggesting putative functions in the forespore. Notably, Tn-seg studies for 224 gene essentiality in C. difficile identified seven of these 10 genes as required for sporulation (35).

225

Module #43 contains six genes, organized in a single operon (CD630_15840-15890), associated with the category "Other Sugar-family transporters". Studies by Antunes et al. (3) identified members of the CD630_15840-15890 operon to be regulated by glucose and indirectly by CcpA. Thus, the 12 uncharacterized genes included in module #43 may also be associated with the same functional category (**Fig. 3C**). Two of these uncharacterized genes (CD630_13011 and CD630_29661) were also identified as CcpA targets in the presence of glucose (3). These

EGRIN-predicted functional assignments are consistent with the known role of CcpA in regulatingsugar transport and metabolism (3).

234

235 Module #48 contains two adjacent operons (4hbd-cat2-CD630 23400-abf2 and sucD-cat1) 236 associated with aminobutanoate degradation. Both operons are regulated by CodY and PrdR. 237 Hence, we predicted that the four uncharacterized genes in this module may be also involved in 238 amino acid metabolism (Fig. 3C). In support of this hypothesis, CD630 08760 and CD630 08780 239 are both differentially expressed upon *codY* deletion. Recent studies also suggest that CD630 240 08760 may function as a tyrosine transporter per its homology to the CodY-regulated neighbor 241 gene, CD630 08730 (36). Furthermore, Steglich et al. (37) observed decreases in tyrosine uptake 242 and Stickland fermentation in clinical isolates lacking CD630 08760 and CD630 08780.

243

244 EGRIN uncovers differentially active regulatory networks during *in vivo* infection

245 We investigated the differential expression of EGRIN modules across multiple published in vivo 246 experiments to discover underlying regulatory mechanisms that drive C. difficile's colonization 247 and adaption to in vivo environments. This analysis discovered the in vivo activation of module 248 #158, particularly during acute infection, and the down regulation of module #48; notably the latter 249 was upregulated during early infection (Fig. 4A-B). Module #48 is enriched with members of the 250 CodY and PrdR regulons, as described above. Module #158 is enriched for putative PrdR and 251 EutV co-regulated ethanolamine utilization genes, including eut operons for a 2-component 252 histidine kinase sensing system and carboxysome structural proteins that house the ethanolamine 253 fermentative enzymes (38). Ethanolamine is prevalent within gut secretions and is also released 254 from damaged host tissues, providing a readily available carbon and nitrogen source for C. 255 difficile. The predicted co-regulation of this gene module by PrdR suggests additional in vivo 256 functions of this regulator to optimize C. difficile's metabolism in gut environments.

257

258 With capacity to identify intestinal contributions to C. difficile responses we leveraged the EGRIN 259 model to analyze commensal modulation of the pathogen's virulence, using transcriptomic 260 datasets from gnotobiotic mice that were mono-colonized with the mouse-infective strain C. 261 difficile ATCC43255 or co-colonized with C. difficile and the protective gut commensal species 262 Paraclostridium bifermentans (PBI), or infection-worsening species Clostridium sardiniense 263 (CSAR). These datasets were not used in model construction. By mapping sets of differentially 264 expressed genes into the EGRIN model we uncovered modules across 20 cellular processes and 265 their associated TFs that were differentially regulated in the presence of PBI or CSAR (Fig. 4C-266 **F**).

267

268 Two sporulation-enriched modules (modules #206 and #261) were up-regulated by 24h of 269 infection in monocolonized mice (Fig. 4C). The same two modules were up-regulated by 24h of 270 infection in CSAR co-colonized mice, in addition to four other modules also enriched with 271 sporulation genes (modules #82, #223, #242, #251 in Fig. 4D). These six modules were enriched 272 with the Spo0A regulon. On the other hand, no sporulation-enriched modules were detected by 273 24h of infection in PBI co-colonized mice (Fig. 4E). Comparison of CSAR co-colonized mice and 274 PBI co-colonized mice discovered four sporulation-enriched modules (including modules #206 275 and #261) with increased expression in the virulent context (i.e. presence of CSAR) (Fig. 4F). 276 These findings were confirmed with the high levels of spore release in expanded populations of 277 vegetative C. difficile when co-colonized with CSAR (22). Overall, this analysis suggested that 278 the sporulation pathway is an indicator of C. difficile disease, reinforcing the Spo0A-mediated link 279 between sporulation and toxin production recapitulated by the model (Fig. 2F).

280

Module #319 contains multiple genes associated with electron transport via Rnf ferredoxin systems, and steps in glycolytic, butanoate and succinate metabolic pathways. This module was upregulated at later stages of infection in monocolonized mice at 24h (**Fig. 4C**), and was also up-

regulated in CSAR co-colonized mice when compared to PBI co-colonized mice (**Fig. 4F**). Module #319 was consistently down-regulated in mice co-colonized with the protective commensal PBI (**Fig. 4E**). These findings show associated activation of multiple co-regulated energy generating pathways in hypervirulent states of *C. difficile*. Because the EGRIN model identified the NAD+/NADH sensing regulator Rex as a potential activator of module #319, the observed downregulation of module #319 in PBI co-colonized mice indicates decreased Rex activity. This may explain why a *rex* deletion strain supported increased survival in hamsters (24).

291

292 Five modules enriched with the SigD-regulated genes encoding subunits of flagella (modules 293 #184, #187, #295, #296 and #358) were downregulated in monocolonized mice at 24h (Fig. 4C). 294 Similarly, two modules enriched with SigD-regulated motility genes (modules #152 and #295) 295 were downregulated in CSAR co-colonized mice (Fig. 4D). From these modules, only module 296 #152 was downregulated in PBI co-colonized mice (Fig. 4E), indicating that motility may be 297 repressed to redirect resources toward pathogenesis. This finding is supported by increased 298 virulence of C. difficile strains lacking a functional flagella (39). Surprisingly, module #273 299 enriched with the SigD regulon but not with flagellar genes was downregulated in PBI co-300 colonized mice (Fig. 4E) but upregulated in CSAR co-colonized mice (Fig. 4F). One of the genes 301 in this module *luxS* encodes a protein involved in the synthesis of the guorum sensing signal, and 302 its over-expression increases toxin expression (40). While it is unclear whether SigD plays a role 303 in the expression of this module, these observations suggest that downregulation of module # 304 273 and *luxS* (through a still uncharacterized mechanism) may contribute to the PBI-mediated 305 reduction of C. difficile virulence. In summary, the described EGRIN modules illustrate the 306 potential of the model to uncover additional co-regulated genes and cellular functions that enable 307 states of enhanced virulence within C. difficile, and support multiple additional hypotheses for 308 experimental validation.

309

310 Metabolic network analyses elucidate *in vivo* metabolic adaptations of *C. difficile*

311 To investigate how specific genes within C. difficile contribute to in vivo phenotypes needed to 312 develop symptomatic infection we leveraged reconstructed metabolic models that mapped 313 functionally annotated genes to curated biochemical reactions. We extended a previously 314 developed icdf834 metabolic model for C. difficile strain 630 (41, 42). The icdf834 model 315 incorporates 1227 metabolic reactions and 807 metabolites. The metabolic reactions were 316 mapped through gene-protein-reaction (GPR) associations to 834 genes, which represent 80% 317 of 1,030 identified metabolic genes in the CD630 genome (Fig. 5A). We increased the number of 318 genes in the icdf834 model from 834 to 838 (Fig. 5B), and added six new exchange reactions to 319 account for C. difficile's capacity to utilize mannitol, fructose, sorbitol, raffinose, succinate and 320 butanoate (43, 44) (Fig. 5B). We also added four genes (CD630 08700, CD630 08680, 321 CD630 17090 and CD630 10810) that encode three reactions for molybdenum utilization and 322 cofactor synthesis. Lastly, we updated pathway annotations to reflect those found in obligate 323 anaerobes. For example, the tricarboxylic citric acid cycle (TCA) is not found in most anaerobes, 324 though some reactions, in reverse, support aspects of pyruvate, succinate and oxaloacete 325 metabolism. In the icdf834 model, we changed subsystem pathway annotation of two reactions -326 i) acetyl-CoA:oxaloacetate C-acetyltransferase and ii) succinyl-CoA synthase from TCA cycle to 327 pyruvate metabolism and butanoate fermentation respectively (Supplementary File S1). Similar 328 updates were performed for reactions originally assigned to gluconeogenesis and the pentose 329 phosphate pathway. We refer to this updated model as icdf838. Lastly, the model derived from 330 CD630 was compared with the gene feature content from C. difficile ATCC43255, used commonly 331 in mouse infection models. The two strains shared 92% of metabolic genes and predicted 332 pathways (768 out of 838 genes in the icdf838 model have homology with the ATCC43255 strain; 333 Supplementary File S1).

334

335 We validated the completeness and accuracy of this model by confirming its ability to predict 336 biomass production in three different in vitro media compositions: 1) minimal medium, 2) basal 337 defined medium and 3) complex, nutrient-rich medium (see Larocque et al. 2014 (42) for media 338 compositions). The model accurately predicted C. difficile's requirements for six amino acids: 339 cysteine, leucine, Isoleucine, proline, tryptophan and valine (45). We also tested the performance 340 of this "in silico broth" model for accuracy in predicting gene essentiality by comparing our model 341 predictions to results from Tn-seq fitness screen performed in vitro under nutrient-rich conditions 342 (35). With a threshold cutoff of 95% predicted growth inhibition, receiver-operator curve (ROC) 343 analyses demonstrated high sensitivity and specificity of the model predictions (Fig. 5C; area 344 under curve = 0.7626; p-value=0.015), indicating capacity for the model to distinguish essential 345 versus non-essential gene calls with a true positive rate (sensitivity) of 0.9791 and a false positive 346 rate (specificity) of 0.5431(Fig. 5C).

347

348 We next extended and applied the model to predict C. difficile behaviors and gene essentiality in 349 vivo. C. difficile transcriptomes from specifically-colonized gnotobiotic mice (22) were used as 350 input into the GIMME algorithm (46). Analyses of expressed transcripts in vivo identified 665 351 active reactions (Fig. 5B) within the icdf838 model during colonization, growth, and over the 352 course of symptomatic infection. Leveraging information from the *in vitro* studies, the model made 353 two notable predictions in vivo regarding the pathogen's metabolism. First, the icdf838 model 354 predicted 15 amino acids to be required for C. difficile growth in contrast to the 6 required in vitro 355 (Supplementary File S1). These amino acids included the dominant Stickland-fermented amino 356 acids that were also required in vitro, including proline and branched chain amino acids, and 357 additional amino acids including arginine, glutamate, lysine and methionine, which also have 358 multiple cellular functions in cell wall synthesis, nitrogen cycling, and responses to oxidative stress. Secondly, the model predicted C. difficile's switch from preferential use of glucose as a 359 360 carbon source in vitro in complex media, to simultaneous utilization in vivo of diverse carbohydrate

sources including fructose, galactose, maltose, and sugar alcohols such as mannitol and sorbitol,
 to promote colonization and growth (Supplementary File S1). Seven of these carbohydrate
 sources were described in other *in vivo* mouse infection studies illustrating support for these
 findings across *C. difficile* strains, and in germfree and conventional mouse models
 (Supplementary File S1) (43, 44, 47).

366

We next used the metabolic model to identify essential metabolic genes and networks that promote *C. difficile's* growth *in vivo*. Gene deletions predicted to reduce the pathogen's *in vivo* growth by \geq 95% identified 24 genes, involved in 1 carbon-cycling reactions in glyoxylate and

370 Wood-Ljungdahl metabolism, nucleotide biosynthesis, nucleotide interconversion and salvage 371 pathways, amino acid biosynthetic and metabolic reactions, and aspects of central carbohydrate 372 metabolism (Fig. 5D-E). These metabolic pathways represent new potential targets that drive 373 aspects of C. difficile's colonization and subsequent growth which are required to develop 374 symptomatic infections. Model predictions also illustrated C. difficile's predicted shift from 375 carbohydrate utilization towards amino acid utilizing pathways in vivo, as shown by the enhanced 376 set of 15 amino acids, including the preferred Stickland donor and acceptor amino acids (leucine 377 and proline) known to support metabolism and growth (43, 44, 47). Notably, many of these amino 378 acids show high abundance within the gut lumen in gnotobiotic and conventional colonization 379 states that enhance C. difficile's capacity to colonize and expand (22).

380

381 The Cdiff Web Portal, a resource for the *C. difficile* community

We have released a new *C. difficile* Web Portal (<u>http://networks.systemsbiology.net/cdiff-portal/</u>) to provide a discovery and collaboration gateway for the *C. difficile* scientific community. The portal aims to accelerate the advancement of the science and understanding of *C. difficile* biology, gene regulation, and metabolism on its virulence. Within the portal users can access publicly

available datasets (e.g. transcriptional compendia), models, software and supporting resources.
The Portal includes information on more than 4,000 *C. difficile* genes, 1,227 metabolic reactions,
and 406 co-regulated gene modules. Genes can be explored in the context of genome
annotations, expression profiles, regulatory and metabolic membership, and other functional
genomic information across different databases including COG, Uniprot, and PATRIC (48–50).
The portal provides access to detailed information on (1) Genes, (2) predicted Gene Modules,
and (3) Metabolic Reactions (Fig. S2).

393

394 Each gene module page includes summary statistics for the module, expression profiles of the 395 module genes across conditions incorporated in developing the model, regulatory motifs, 396 regulatory influences from transcription factors, functional enrichment information, and 397 information about regulon member genes (Fig. 6). The module pages are structured to facilitate 398 the assessment of the quality and statistical significance of the modules and highlight functional 399 connections. The portal includes a table of metabolic reactions with details of each reaction, 400 associated genes, metabolites, and sub-systems. Metabolites and sub-systems are defined as 401 taxonomic vocabularies that collect and group associated reactions to identify related metabolic 402 processes. In addition, the portal provides access to algorithms, software, and data, and will 403 include information about animal models, strains, and other C. difficile relevant community 404 resources. As additional datasets are communicated, model predictions and tools will be 405 successively enhanced to support systems-level analyses and assist in hypothesis generation in 406 *C. difficile* biology and to enable tangible clinical interventions.

407

408 **DISCUSSION**

409 The obligate anaerobe C. difficile is unique among out anaerobes in possessing a diverse carbon 410 source metabolism to enable colonization and growth in gut environments. These systems further 411 exist within a complex network of gene regulatory modules that modulate growth, energy balance, 412 and stress responses in vivo. Capacity to understand these systems-level integration points has 413 remained challenging in the absence of robust systems biology models to infer C. difficile's in vivo 414 behaviors. We acknowledge the detailed studies from multiple groups over prior decades that 415 provided a critical mass of information on C. difficile's nutrient and gene-level responses to 416 support development of an EGRIN model, the first for a gut anaerobe and toxigenic species. We 417 emphasize that this information, the most for any obligate anaerobe, still represents a small 418 fraction of that normally used to develop thorough EGRIN models. Recent improvements in the 419 genetic manipulation of C. difficile, including the mouse infective strain ATCC43255, open new 420 capacity to probe the GREs modulating critical aspects of its metabolism, growth and virulence, 421 from a systems-level perspective.

422

423 The C. difficile EGRIN model enables a number of predictions relevant to in vivo disease. For 424 example, the PrdR regulator of the pathogen's Stickland proline reductase (prd) and other genes, 425 has long been hypothesized to have a role in PaLoc gene expression through as-yet unknown 426 mechanisms. EGRIN predictions included gene regulatory module #182 which identified 427 combined PrdR and CodY effects on *tcdA* gene expression, providing a regulatory integration 428 point and broader set of co-regulated genes to support further experimental analyses of co-429 regulation between these two transcription factors, including effects on PaLoc expression. 430 Biclustering also identified interactions between Spo0A, another regulator hypothesized to 431 modulate PaLoc expression, and *tcdB* expression in module #397. The identified modules, 432 associated genes and regulators provide new information to support further experimental

investigation of combinatorial effects of these and other regulators identified in PaLoc geneassociated biclusters. The EGRIN model also predicted PrdR as a critical regulator *in vivo* through
its systems-level effects on the pathogen's colonization, metabolism and growth, involving
multiple direct and indirect effects upon other modules and aspects of the pathogen's metabolism
and gene regulation.

438

439 The present model did not identify all experimentally known regulators of PaLoc expression, 440 including SigD regulation of TcdR, and effects of other more recently identified PaLoc regulators 441 such as RstA and LexA, for which limited datasets exist from targeted deletion mutants or under 442 multiple nutrient and other environmental perturbations. Nonetheless, as shown with our in vivo 443 analyses, application of the EGRIN and metabolic models to new datasets offers key insights into 444 causal mechanistic drivers of adaptive strategies of the pathogen. Given that less than 10% of 445 transcriptomic information and less than 1% of ChIP-seq regulator datasets were available for C. 446 difficile 630, as compared to EGRIN models developed for other species, the model provides a 447 formative tool to design future transcriptomic and ChIP-seg studies to improve predictions for 448 these regulons.

449

450 Leveraging additional Tn-seg and in vivo transcriptomic datasets, the expanded icdf838 model 451 identified a broader set of amino acids, in addition to genes and anaerobe-specific pathways, 452 needed to support colonization and growth expansion in vivo. Notably, predictions of in vivo gene 453 essentially identified multiple genes in glyoxylate metabolism, a pathway essential in many 454 acetogenic anaerobes (51, 52) that leverage this system with folate 1-carbon cycling pathways 455 including those connected with Wood-Ljundahl fixation of carbon dioxide to acetate. Predictions 456 of gene essentiality also identified multiple nucleotide synthesis and salvage pathway genes that 457 were essential in vivo but not in vitro, including ones associated with xanthine transport and 458 metabolism, an abundant nucleotide in gut secretions that originates from host sources (22).

Lastly, predictions identified genes in amino acid biosynthetic pathways for branched-chain amino acids, aromatic amino acids, and others that were predicted to be required *in vivo*. Each of these provides new targets of vulnerability for which to consider therapeutic interventions leveraging small molecules, bacteriotherapeutic, or other patient interventions.

463

464 We illustrate additional predictions from the C. difficile EGRIN model to enable gene- through 465 systems-level analyses of the pathogen. Though among the best described obligate anaerobes, 466 the C. difficile genome still contains a high number of genes of unknown function. Model 467 predictions provided new information to assign putative functions to 48 gene features, including 468 ones associated with sporulation, carbohydrate transport, and other aspects of cellular 469 metabolism. The C. difficile Web Portal, makes these tools and resources available to the broader 470 C. difficile, microbiology, and systems biology communities, providing a platform for collaboration 471 and to support systems-level investigations of the pathogen and its interactions with the host and 472 commensal microbiota.

473

474

475

477 **METHODS**

478 *C. difficile* genome annotation

A new ATCC43255 reference genome was generated and annotated to support *in vivo* transcriptome studies of *C. difficile* per discrepancies noted in the RefSeq genome, particularly among bacteriophage loci and other mobile elements (22). The updated reference genome was annotated using the NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Automatic Annotation Pipeline (53), PATRIC (50), and PROKKA (54) to extract gene features for support of transcriptome pathway enrichment analyses. Bacteriophage loci and genes were identified using PHASTER (55).

485

486 *C. difficile* transcriptional compendium

487 To generate a transcriptional compendium for C. difficile, required for constructing an EGRIN 488 model, a total of 148 publicly available transcriptomes of C. difficile 630 were downloaded from 489 the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) repository (56) in March 2020. Downloaded 490 transcriptomes were generated by 11 independent studies (**Table 1**). To integrate this data into a 491 single dataset, we computed the log2 fold-change of each transcriptome with respect to a control 492 condition, as performed in the generation of other transcriptional compendia (57). This step was 493 not necessary for transcriptional data collected with dual channel arrays that included a 494 normalizing control channel. The resulting transcriptional compendium contained a total of 4,091 495 gene features and 127 conditions. The 127 conditions in the transcriptional compendium were 496 organized in 10 distinct conditional blocks (e.g. sporulation, fur deletion), as shown in Table 1.

497

498 Construction of the EGRIN model

The EGRIN model for *C. difficile* was constructed in two stages. First, we used cMonkey2 (26), a biclustering algorithm, on the compiled compendium of 127 *C. difficile* transcriptomes to simultaneously detect co-regulated gene modules and the conditions where co-regulation occurs.

502 cMonkey2 integrates functional annotation from the STRING database (25), gene promoter 503 sequences from the RSAT database (58), and operon predictions from MicrobesOnline (59) when 504 detecting the gene modules. cMonkey2 was run using default parameters. Briefly, we used 2,000 505 iterations to optimize the co-regulated gene modules, each one with 3-70 genes. In each iteration, 506 cMonkey2 refined the gene modules by evaluating and modifying (if necessary) condition and 507 gene memberships. cMonkey2 biclustering approach allowed genes and conditions to be 508 assigned to a maximum of two and 204 different modules, respectively. De novo motif search was 509 performed using MEME v. 4.12.0 (60). Second, we used the Inferelator (27), a network inference 510 algorithm, to identify potential transcriptional regulators for the 406 gene modules generated by 511 cMonkey2. The Inferelator uses a Bayesian best subset regression to estimate the magnitude 512 and sign (activation or repression) of potential interactions between TFs and gene modules. We 513 bootstrapped the expression data (20 times) to avoid regression overfitting (27). The Inferelator 514 generates two scores for each TF-module interaction, the corresponding regression coefficient 515 and a confidence score. The second score indicates the likelihood of the interaction. The final set 516 of TF-module interactions was defined as the 704 interactions with the top 10% of highest non-517 zero confidence scores.

518

519 Experimentally supported literature derived TF regulons

We mined available literature to compile a list of experimentally supported targets for the 13 partially characterized transcriptional regulators (involved in sporulation, motility, carbon metabolism, among other processes) shown on **Table S1**. The manually compiled regulons represented a total of 1,353 regulatory interactions and involved 1,050 genes. Target genes included in the compiled TF regulons were supported by transcriptional data, protein-dna binding data and *in silico* analysis of promoter regions (e.g. presence of known regulators DNA binding motif).

527 Module enrichment evaluation

We used a hypergeometric test to identify modules of co-regulated genes in the EGRIN model that were statistically enriched with manually compiled TF regulons (**Table S1**) or functional pathways derived from curated annotation of *C. difficile* genome (22). Only gene modules with adjusted hypergeometric test p-value ≤ 0.05 and containing four or more genes from the relevant TF regulon or functional pathway were considered enriched.

533

534 Analysis of in vivo data

In vivo transcriptomic data from gnotobiotic mice monocolonized with *C. difficile* ATCC43255 or co-colonized with *P. bifermentans* or *C. sardiniense* were analyzed as described (22) using the updated reference genome of ATCC43255 to extract gene features for subsequent analysis with DESEQ2.

539

540 Metabolic model refinement and gene essentiality prediction

541 A published genome-scale metabolic model of C. difficile 630 strain, icdf834 (41), was used in 542 this study and expanded by adding reactions required for *in vivo* survival of the pathogen. We 543 also curated pathway annotations that were incorrectly designated using default KEGG 544 annotations (61). For example, the TCA, gluconeogenesis and pentose phosphate pathways are 545 incomplete in C. difficile. Thus, we updated the annotation of these pathways as part of pyruvate 546 metabolism, butanoate fermentation and Galactose & Tagatose metabolism (Supplementary 547 File S1). Initially, we evaluated the homology of metabolic genes between C. difficile 630 and 548 ATCC43255 strain of C. difficile in order to use the icdf834 model for representing the in vivo 549 infection state of ATCC43255 strain. The details of 764 genes that are predicted in this homology 550 analysis is provided in Supplementary File S1. Then, the transcriptome of C. difficile profiled 551 from in vivo infections of specifically-colonized gnotobiotic mice (22) was mapped onto the icdf834 552 model using the GIMME algorithm (46). This resulted in a model with 665 active reactions, with 553 no changes in the number of genes. We then expanded the model by including four new genes

554 and 8 new reactions (Supplementary File S1) that are required for the growth of the pathogen in the in vivo micro-environment, based on KEGG annotations. We named this expanded version of 555 556 the model as "icdf838". This model represents the *in vivo* state of *C. difficile*. We then applied the 557 constraint-based method for simulating the metabolic steady-state of C. difficile using flux-balance 558 analysis (FBA) (46, 62). The initial validation steps involved checking the capacity of the icdf834 559 model to produce biomass in defined media conditions including 1) minimal medium, 2) basal 560 defined medium and 3) complex, nutrient-rich medium (compositions used according to Larocque 561 et al 2014 (42)). Then, we tested the performance of the icdf834 model using gene essentiality 562 predictions by FBA. A gene was considered "essential" if its deletion reduced the biomass by 563 >95%. By this analysis, the model classified each gene as "essential" or "non-essential". We 564 compared the gene essentiality predictions from nutrient-rich media constraints with the available 565 experimental Tn-seq data (35) and deduced the confusion matrix to derive true positive rates 566 (TPR) and false positive rates (FPR). This led to the elucidation of sensitivity and specificity of the 567 model using ROC curve analysis. We then applied the same strategy and predicted the essential 568 genes in vivo using FBA with the expanded context-specific network, icdf838. All model 569 simulations related to FBA were performed on MATLAB R2019a platform using the recent 570 version of COBRA (The COnstraint-Based Reconstruction and Analysis) toolbox (63). In silico 571 gene essentiality predictions were performed using the COBRA toolbox 'single-gene-deletion' 572 function in MATLAB. The illustration of essential gene regulatory network in vivo was deduced 573 using BioTapsetry tool (http://www.biotapestry.org/).

574

575 *C. difficile* Web Portal

576 This portal utilizes the powerful build, search, collaboration, and visualization features of the 577 Drupal content management system. With the two key features of modularity and extensibility, 578 Drupal provides a slim, powerful core that can be readily extended through custom modules and 579 easy-to-use collaborative tools to support information sharing. Based on these key features, we

developed this content management system into a data management, analysis, and visualization
framework to support *C. difficile* research.

582

583 Due to the complexity of the information provided by the genome and models, it is critical to 584 provide a user-friendly and flexible search and filtering capabilities. By taking advantage of 585 Drupal's built-in search interface and implementing Apache Solr search, we created very powerful 586 search capabilities that will query every information included in the portal database. Moreover, 587 the search interface uses "facets" to allow users to explore a collection of information by applying 588 multiple filters. This combination together with sorting enables users to start with broad searches 589 and then quickly pinpoint specific information.

590

591 In order to provide a comprehensive functional genomics resource for the Cdiff community, 592 aenome annotations from several different sources were merged and imported into the Cdiff 593 Portal. Curated genome annotations for *Clostridium difficile* strain 630 published by Monot et al. 594 (21), were downloaded from MicroScope platform (64). Additional functional annotations were 595 downloaded from PATRIC (50) and Uniprot (49) and merged with curated genome annotations. 596 Overall, 4,018 genes were included in the Cdiff Portal. The C. difficile genome included 1,030 597 metabolic genes, 309 TFs, 270 sRNAs, 87 tRNAs, 32 rRNAs and 17 miscRNAs. The genome 598 included 1,330 genes with unknown function. Furthermore, gene essentiality data from Dembek 599 et al. (35) was integrated with gene annotations.

600

601

602 **REFERENCES**

- Monegro AF, Regunath H. 2018. Hospital acquired infectionsStatPearls. StatPearls
 Publishing.
- Aktories K. 2011. Bacterial protein toxins that modify host regulatory GTPases. Nat Rev
 Microbiol 9:487–498.
- Antunes A, Camiade E, Monot M, Courtois E, Barbut F, Sernova N V, Rodionov DA,
 Martin-Verstraete I, Dupuy B. 2012. Global transcriptional control by glucose and carbon
 regulator CcpA in Clostridium difficile. Nucleic Acids Res 40:10701–10718.
- 611 4. Saujet L, Monot M, Dupuy B, Soutourina O, Martin-Verstraete I. 2011. The key sigma
 612 factor of transition phase, SigH, controls sporulation, metabolism, and virulence factor
 613 expression in Clostridium difficile. J Bacteriol 193:3186–3196.
- 5. Matamouros S, England P, Dupuy B. 2007. Clostridium difficile toxin expression is inhibited by the novel regulator TcdC. Mol Microbiol 64:1274–1288.
- 616 6. Mani N, Dupuy B. 2001. Regulation of toxin synthesis in Clostridium difficile by an 617 alternative RNA polymerase sigma factor. Proc Natl Acad Sci 98:5844–5849.
- 618 7. Smits WK, Lyras D, Lacy DB, Wilcox MH, Kuijper EJ. 2016. Clostridium difficile infection.
 619 Nat Rev Dis Prim 2:1–20.
- 8. Lyon SA, Hutton ML, Rood JI, Cheung JK, Lyras D. 2016. CdtR regulates TcdA and TcdB
 production in Clostridium difficile. PLoS Pathog 12:e1005758.
- 6229.Walter BM, Rupnik M, Hodnik V, Anderluh G, Dupuy B, Paulič N, Žgur-Bertok D, Butala623M. 2014. The LexA regulated genes of the Clostridium difficile. BMC Microbiol 14:88.
- 62410.Edwards AN, Tamayo R, McBride SM. 2016. A novel regulator controls C lostridium625difficile sporulation, motility and toxin production. Mol Microbiol 100:954–971.
- Martin-Verstraete I, Peltier J, Dupuy B. 2016. The regulatory networks that control
 Clostridium difficile toxin synthesis. Toxins (Basel) 8:153.
- Bradshaw WJ, Kirby JM, Roberts AK, Shone CC, Acharya KR. 2017. The molecular
 structure of the glycoside hydrolase domain of Cwp19 from Clostridium difficile. FEBS J
 284:4343–4357.
- Woods EC, Nawrocki KL, Suárez JM, McBride SM. 2016. The Clostridium difficile Dlt
 pathway is controlled by the extracytoplasmic function sigma factor \$σ\$V in response to
 lysozyme. Infect Immun 84:1902–1916.
- Neumann-Schaal M, Metzendorf NG, Troitzsch D, Nuss AM, Hofmann JD, Beckstette M,
 Dersch P, Otto A, Sievers S. 2018. Tracking gene expression and oxidative damage of
 O2-stressed Clostridioides difficile by a multi-omics approach. Anaerobe 53:94–107.
- Kint N, Janoir C, Monot M, Hoys S, Soutourina O, Dupuy B, Martin-Verstraete I. 2017.
 The alternative sigma factor \$σ\$B plays a crucial role in adaptive strategies of
 Clostridium difficile during gut infection. Environ Microbiol 19:1933–1958.
- 640 16. Elena SF, Lenski RE. 2003. Evolution experiments with microorganisms: the dynamics 641 and genetic bases of adaptation. Nat Rev Genet 4:457–469.
- 642 17. Brooks AN, Turkarslan S, Beer KD, Yin Lo F, Baliga NS. 2011. Adaptation of cells to new 643 environments. Wiley Interdiscip Rev Syst Biol Med 3:544–561.
- McDonald JAK, Mullish BH, Pechlivanis A, Liu Z, Brignardello J, Kao D, Holmes E, Li J V,
 Clarke TB, Thursz MR, others. 2018. Inhibiting growth of Clostridioides difficile by
 restoring valerate, produced by the intestinal microbiota. Gastroenterology 155:1495–
 1507.
- Vemuri RC, Gundamaraju R, Shinde T, Eri R. 2017. Therapeutic interventions for gut
 dysbiosis and related disorders in the elderly: antibiotics, probiotics or faecal microbiota
 transplantation? Benef Microbes 8:179–192.
- 20. Riedel T, Bunk B, Thürmer A, Spröer C, Brzuszkiewicz E, Abt B, Gronow S, Liesegang H,

652 653		Daniel R, Overmann J. 2015. Genome resequencing of the virulent and multidrug- resistant reference strain Clostridium difficile 630. Genome Announc 3:e0027615.
654 655	21.	Monot M, Boursaux-Eude C, Thibonnier M, Vallenet D, Moszer I, Medigue C, Martin- Verstraete I, Dupuy B. 2011. Reannotation of the genome sequence of Clostridium
656		difficile strain 630.
657 658 659	22.	Girinathan BP, DiBenedetto N, Worley JN, Peltier J, Lavin Ri, Delaney ML, Cummins C, Onderdonk AB, Gerber GK, Dupuy B, others. 2020. The mechanisms of in vivo
660	23	Bouillaut L. Solf WT. Sononshoin AL. 2013. Proline dependent regulation of Clostridium
661	23.	difficile Stickland metabolism I Restorial 105:844, 854
662	24	Bouillaut L. Dubois T. Francis MB. Daou N. Monot M. Sorg, M. Sononshoin AL. Dubuy B.
662	24.	2010. Polo of the global regulator Pox in control of NAD+ regonaration in Clostridioides
664		(Clostridium) difficile. Mol Microbiol 111:1671, 1688
004 665	25	(Clostialum) america III. Cook II. Kuba M. Muder S. Simenovia M. Sentes A. Denehova
000	23.	SZKIAICZYK D, MOITIS JH, COOK H, KUITI M, WYGEI S, SITTOTOVIC M, SATIOS A, DOTICHEVA
000		NT, ROIN A, BORK P, Others. 2016. The STRING database in 2017: quality-controlled
667		proteinprotein association networks, made broadly accessible. Nucleic Acids Res
000	26	gkwy37. Deies D.L. Dieleier Cl. Wu W. L. Delies NG 2015, Mankav2: Automated evotometic
670	20.	Reiss DJ, Plaisier CL, WU W-J, Ballga NS. 2015. CWonkey2: Automated, Systematic,
070		Integrated detection of co-regulated gene modules for any organism. Nucleic Acids Res
671	07	43:667.
672	27.	Arrieta-Ortiz ML, Hatemeister C, Bate AR, Chu I, Greentield A, Shuster B, Barry SN,
073		Gainito M, Liu B, Kacinarczyk T, Santoneno F, Chen J, Roongues CD, Sato T, Rudner
074		DZ, DRKS A, Bonneau R, Eichenberger P. 2015. An experimentally supported model of
6/5	00	the Bacilius subtilis global transcriptional regulatory network. Mol Syst Biol 11.
6/6	28.	Peterson EJR, Reiss DJ, Turkarsian S, Minch KJ, Rustad T, Plaisier CL, Longabaugh
677		WJR, Sherman DR, Baliga NS. 2014. A high-resolution network model for global gene
678	00	regulation in Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Nucleic Acids Res 42:11291–11303.
679	29.	Brooks AN, Reiss DJ, Allard A, Wu W-J, Salvanna DW, Plaisler CL, Chandrasekaran S,
080		Pan M, Kaur A, Baliga NS. 2014. A system-level model for the microbial regulatory
681	20	genome. Mol Syst Biol 10:740–740.
682	30.	Saujet L, Pereira FC, Serrano M, Soutourina O, Monot M, Sneiyakin PV, Geitand MS,
683		Dupuy B, Henriques AO, Martin-Verstraete I. 2013. Genome-wide analysis of cell type-
004		
000	24	9:01003/30. Dennes: D. Fessietti MT. Deise D.L. Cehmid AK. Den M. Keur A. Theresen V. Chennen D.
000	31.	Bonneau R, Facciolli MT, Reiss DJ, Schmid AK, Pan M, Kaur A, Thorsson V, Shannon P,
001		Johnson Min, Bare JC, Longabaugh W, Vulhoon M, Whitehead K, Madar A, Suzuki L,
000		mon I, Chang D-E, Diruggiero J, Johnson CH, Hood L, Baliga NS. 2007. A predictive
600	22	Dingen SS Villenekkem AC Nerdmen JT Senenehein AL 2007 Depression of
601	32.	Cleateridium difficile tavin gang overgagion by CadV. Mal Microbiol 66:206, 210
091	22	Clostriatum attrictie toxin gene expression by CoaY. Mol Microbiol 66:206–219.
692	33.	Underwood S, Guan S, Vijayasubnash V, Baines SD, Granam L, Lewis RJ, Wilcox MH,
693		Stephenson K. 2009. Characterization of the sporulation initiation pathway of Clostridium
694 COF	24	difficile and its role in toxin production. J Bacteriol 191:7296–7305.
695	34.	wolfe CJ, Konane IS, Butte AJ. 2005. Systematic survey reveals general applicability of
696	05	guilt-by-association" within gene coexpression networks. BMC Bioinformatics 6:227.
697	35.	Dembek M, Barquist L, Boinett CJ, Cain AK, Mayno M, Lawley TD, Fairweather NF,
698 000		Fagan KP. 2015. High-throughput analysis of gene essentiality and sporulation in
099	20	Ciostriaium aimicile. MBIO 6:eU238314.
700	30.	Brausnaw vvj, Bruxelle J-F, Kovacs-Simon A, Harmer NJ, Janoir C, Pecnine S, Acharya
701		κκ, ivicine ii SL. 2019. Iviolecular reatures of ilpoprotein CDU8/3: A potential vaccine
102		against the numan pathogen Clostridioides difficile. J Biol Chem 294:15850–15861.

37. Steglich M, Hofmann JD, Helmecke J, Sikorski J, Spröer C, Riedel T, Bunk B, Overmann
 J, Neumann-Schaal M, Nübel U. 2018. Convergent loss of ABC transporter genes from
 Clostridioides difficile genomes is associated with impaired tyrosine uptake and p-cresol
 production. Front Microbiol 9:901.

- 707 38. Nawrocki KL, Wetzel D, Jones JB, Woods EC, McBride SM. 2018. Ethanolamine is a
 708 valuable nutrient source that impacts Clostridium difficile pathogenesis. Environ Microbiol
 709 20:1419–1435.
- 39. Dingle TC, Mulvey GL, Armstrong GD. 2011. Mutagenic analysis of the Clostridium
 difficile flagellar proteins, FliC and FliD, and their contribution to virulence in hamsters.
 Infect Immun 79:4061–4067.
- 40. Lee ASY, Song KP. 2005. LuxS/autoinducer-2 quorum sensing molecule regulates
 transcriptional virulence gene expression in Clostridium difficile. Biochem Biophys Res
 Commun 335:659–666.
- Kashaf SS, Angione C, Lió P. 2017. Making life difficult for Clostridium difficile:
 augmenting the pathogen's metabolic model with transcriptomic and codon usage data
 for better therapeutic target characterization. BMC Syst Biol 11:25.
- 42. Larocque M, Chénard T, Najmanovich R. 2014. A curated C. difficile strain 630 metabolic
 network: prediction of essential targets and inhibitors. BMC Syst Biol 8:117.
- Theriot CM, Koenigsknecht MJ, Carlson Jr PE, Hatton GE, Nelson AM, Li B, Huffnagle
 GB, Li JZ, Young VB. 2014. Antibiotic-induced shifts in the mouse gut microbiome and
 metabolome increase susceptibility to Clostridium difficile infection. Nat Commun 5:3114.
- Janoir C, Denève C, Bouttier S, Barbut F, Hoys S, Caleechum L, Chapetón-Montes D,
 Pereira FC, Henriques AO, Collignon A, others. 2013. Adaptive strategies and
 pathogenesis of Clostridium difficile from in vivo transcriptomics. Infect Immun 81:3757–
 3769.
- 45. Karasawa T, Ikoma S, Yamakawa K, Nakamura S. 1995. A defined growth medium for Clostridium difficile. Microbiology 141:371–375.
- 73046.Becker SA, Palsson BO. 2008. Context-specific metabolic networks are consistent with
experiments. PLoS Comput Biol 4:e1000082.
- 47. Jenior ML, Leslie JL, Young VB, Schloss PD. 2017. Clostridium difficile colonizes
 alternative nutrient niches during infection across distinct murine gut microbiomes.
 Msystems 2.
- 48. Galperin MY, Makarova KS, Wolf YI, Koonin E V. 2015. Expanded microbial genome
 coverage and improved protein family annotation in the COG database. Nucleic Acids
 Res 43:D261--D269.
- 49. Consortium TU. 2017. UniProt: the universal protein knowledgebase. Nucleic Acids Res
 45:D158--D169.
- 50. Wattam AR, Abraham D, Dalay O, Disz TL, Driscoll T, Gabbard JL, Gillespie JJ, Gough
 R, Hix D, Kenyon R, others. 2014. PATRIC, the bacterial bioinformatics database and
 analysis resource. Nucleic Acids Res 42:D581--D591.
- 51. Gößner AS, Picardal F, Tanner RS, Drake HL. 2008. Carbon metabolism of the
 moderately acid-tolerant acetogen Clostridium drakei isolated from peat. FEMS Microbiol
 Lett 287:236–242.
- 52. Sakai S, Inokuma K, Nakashimada Y, Nishio N. 2008. Degradation of glyoxylate and
 glycolate with ATP synthesis by a thermophilic anaerobic bacterium, Moorella sp. strain
 HUC22-1. Appl Environ Microbiol 74:1447–1452.
- Tatusova T, DiCuccio M, Badretdin A, Chetvernin V, Nawrocki EP, Zaslavsky L,
 Lomsadze A, Pruitt KD, Borodovsky M, Ostell J. 2016. NCBI prokaryotic genome
 annotation pipeline. Nucleic Acids Res 44:6614–6624.
- 54. Seemann T. 2014. Prokka: rapid prokaryotic genome annotation. Bioinformatics 30:2068–2069.

- 75455.Arndt D, Grant JR, Marcu A, Sajed T, Pon A, Liang Y, Wishart DS. 2016. PHASTER: a755better, faster version of the PHAST phage search tool. Nucleic Acids Res 44:W16--W21.
- 56. Barrett T, Wilhite SE, Ledoux P, Evangelista C, Kim IF, Tomashevsky M, Marshall KA,
 Phillippy KH, Sherman PM, Holko M, others. 2012. NCBI GEO: archive for functional
 genomics data sets—update. Nucleic Acids Res 41:D991--D995.
- 57. Moretto M, Sonego P, Dierckxsens N, Brilli M, Bianco L, Ledezma-Tejeida D, GamaCastro S, Galardini M, Romualdi C, Laukens K, Collado-Vides J, Meysman P, Engelen K.
 2016. COLOMBOS v3.0: leveraging gene expression compendia for cross-species
 analyses. Nucleic Acids Res 44:D620-3.
- 763 58. Nguyen NTT, Contreras-Moreira B, Castro-Mondragon JA, Santana-Garcia W, Ossio R,
 764 Robles-Espinoza CD, Bahin M, Collombet S, Vincens P, Thieffry D, others. 2018. RSAT
 765 2018: regulatory sequence analysis tools 20th anniversary. Nucleic Acids Res 46:W209-766 W214.
- 59. Dehal PS, Joachimiak MP, Price MN, Bates JT, Baumohl JK, Chivian D, Friedland GD,
 Huang KH, Keller K, Novichkov PS, Dubchak IL, Alm EJ, Arkin AP. 2010.
 MicrobesOnline: an integrated portal for comparative and functional genomics. Nucleic
 Acids Res 38:D396-400.
- Bailey TL, Johnson J, Grant CE, Noble WS. 2015. The MEME suite. Nucleic Acids Res
 43:W39--W49.
- Kanehisa M, Furumichi M, Tanabe M, Sato Y, Morishima K. 2017. KEGG: new
 perspectives on genomes, pathways, diseases and drugs. Nucleic Acids Res 45:D353-D361.
- 77662.Orth JD, Thiele I, Palsson BØ. 2010. What is flux balance analysis? Nat Biotechnol77728:245–248.
- Heirendt L, Arreckx S, Pfau T, Mendoza SN, Richelle A, Heinken A, Haraldsdóttir HS,
 Wachowiak J, Keating SM, Vlasov V, others. 2019. Creation and analysis of biochemical
 constraint-based models using the COBRA Toolbox v. 3.0. Nat Protoc 14:639–702.
- Vallenet D, Calteau A, Cruveiller S, Gachet M, Lajus A, Josso A, Mercier J, Renaux A,
 Rollin J, Rouy Z, others. 2017. MicroScope in 2017: an expanding and evolving
 integrated resource for community expertise of microbial genomes. Nucleic Acids Res
 45:D517--D528.
- 785 65. Dineen SS, McBride SM, Sonenshein AL. 2010. Integration of metabolism and virulence
 786 by Clostridium difficile CodY. J Bacteriol 192:5350–5362.
- Soutourina O, Dubois T, Monot M, Shelyakin P V, Saujet L, Boudry P, Gelfand MS,
 Dupuy B, Martin-Verstraete I. 2020. Genome-Wide Transcription Start Site Mapping and
 Promoter Assignments to a Sigma Factor in the Human Enteropathogen Clostridioides
 difficile. Front Microbiol 11:1939.
- Antunes A, Martin-Verstraete I, Dupuy B. 2011. CcpA-mediated repression of Clostridium
 difficile toxin gene expression. Mol Microbiol 79:882–899.
- Bubois T, Dancer-Thibonnier M, Monot M, Hamiot A, Bouillaut L, Soutourina O, MartinVerstraete I, Dupuy B. 2016. Control of Clostridium difficile physiopathology in response
 to cysteine availability. Infect Immun 84:2389–2405.
- Berges M, Michel A-M, Lassek C, Nuss AM, Beckstette M, Dersch P, Riedel K, Sievers S,
 Becher D, Otto A, others. 2018. Iron regulation in Clostridioides difficile. Front Microbiol
 9:3183.
- 799 70. El Meouche I, Peltier J, Monot M, Soutourina O, Pestel-Caron M, Dupuy B, Pons J-L.
 800 2013. Characterization of the SigD regulon of C. difficile and its positive control of toxin production through the regulation of tcdR. PLoS One 8.
- Fimlaid KA, Bond JP, Schutz KC, Putnam EE, Leung JM, Lawley TD, Shen A. 2013.
 Global analysis of the sporulation pathway of Clostridium difficile. PLoS Genet 9.
 - 29

805 **FIGURES**



Figure 1. Inference pipeline and general properties of the resulting Environment Gene Regulatory Influence Network (EGRIN) model of *C. difficile*. (A) Framework used to build the EGRIN model. (B) Distribution of residual values for the 406 detected co-regulated gene modules. 297 gene modules had residual values equal or lower than 0.55 (shown in purple) and were labelled as high quality. (C) Distribution of gene count for the high quality gene modules. (D) Coverage of all genes (4,018), the subset of metabolic genes (1,030) and TFs (309) by EGRIN modules for different residual thresholds. The red dashed line indicates the 0.55 residual cutoff.

814



817 Figure 2. The Environment Gene Regulatory Influence Network model of C. difficile recapitulates known biology of the pathogen. (A) Co-regulated gene modules are enriched 818 819 with functional terms derived from expert curated annotation of the C. difficile genome (22). The 820 pie chart shows terms over-represented in three or more modules. Number of modules associated 821 with each functional term is shown in parenthesis. (B) Enriched gene modules among nine (out 822 of 13) manually-defined and experimentally supported TF regulons (compiled from publicly 823 available data in Table S1). (C) EGRIN identified the known DNA binding motif of CodY (65). (D) 824 EGRIN also identified the known DNA binding motif of SigL (66). Motif comparisons were 825 performed using Tomtom (60). (E) The EGRIN model recapitulated the previously reported 826 influence of CodY on tcdA expression. The module #182 contains tcdA, it is enriched with 827 members of the CodY regulon and contains a motif (shown in panel C) similar to the 828 experimentally determined CodY motif. (F) The EGRIN model also captured the interaction 829 between toxin expression and sporulation via module #397 that contains *tcdB* and is enriched 830 with genes regulated by sporulation-related transcriptional regulators. (G) Expression profiles of 831 tcdAB and tcdR (positive regulator of the pathogenicity loci). Highest expression of the toxin genes 832 and their activator was observed in the *codY* single deletion condition (light green box).



Predicted role	Enriched modules	Enriched TF regulons	Uncharacterized genes		
Other Sugar-family Transporters	43	NA	CD630_04371, CD630_09341, CD630_12100 CD630_13011, CD630_13781, CD630_13782 CD630_15970, CD630_17720, CD630_20101 CD630_20751, CD630_29661, CD630_31110		
Sporulation	206, 251	Spo0A, SigE, SigG	CD630_01310, CD630_02140, CD630_10650 CD630_10660, CD630_19280, CD630_23740 CD630_23750, CD630_24430, CD630_26340 CD630_32590		
Diffocin Locus Proteins	136	NA	CD630_12420, CD630_12430, CD630_12440 CD630_13760, CD630_14150, CD630_14160		
Aminobutanoate degradation	48	CodY, PrdR	CD630_05100, CD630_05101, CD630_08760 CD630_08780		
Multi-drug transport systems	29	NA	CD630_03790, CD630_03800, CD630_10991 CD630_33681		

834

835

836 **Figure 3. The EGRIN model offers insights on potential functions of uncharacterized genes**

837 of C. difficile. Hypotheses regarding the functions of 48 uncharacterized genes were generated

based on their membership in high quality co-regulated gene modules significantly enriched with

specific functional terms. (A) Barplot with the number of unknown genes associated with each functional term (from the *C. difficile* genome annotation in Girinathan et al. (22)). (B) The involvement of 10 uncharacterized genes in sporulation was supported by the observed strongest and significant down-regulation in single deletion strains of transcriptional regulators of sporulation (*spo0A*, *sigEFGK*, *spoIIID*). (C) Locus tag of uncharacterized genes associated with selected functional terms.



847 Figure 4. The EGRIN model identifies TFs driving the *in vivo* response of *C. difficile* when 848 interacting with gut commensals P. bifermentans (PBI) and C. sardiniense (CSAR). (A) 849 Expression profile of module #158. (B) Expression profile of module #48. (C) EGRIN modules 850 enriched with genes differentially expressed (absolute log2 fold-change > 1 and adjusted p-value 851 < 0.05) in C. difficile mono-colonized mice at 24 vs 20 hours of infection. X-axis shows module 852 IDs. Modules were annotated according to their functional enrichment and overlap with manually 853 curated TF regulons (Table S1). (D) Enriched EGRIN modules in C. sardiniense+C. difficile co-854 colonized mice vs C. difficile mono-colonized mice at 24 hours of infection. Due to space 855 constraint, only abbreviations of functional terms not shown in other panels are displayed. (E) 856 Enriched EGRIN modules in P. bifermentans+C. difficile co-colonized mice vs C. difficile mono-857 colonized mice at 24 hours of infection. (F) Enriched EGRIN modules in P. bifermentans+C. 858 *difficile* co-colonized mice vs *C. sardiniense+C. difficile* co-colonized mice at 24 hours of infection. 859 For all comparisons, only modules with absolute median fold-changes > 0.5, and enriched with 860 TF regulons or functional categories are displayed.

861

862



Figure 5. Metabolic model predictions. (A) Details of the *in vitro* metabolic model of *C. difficile*630 (41). (B) Details of icdf838 metabolic model of *C. difficile* 630. Initial *in vivo* model was derived

867 using the GIMME algorithm (46) where only the active reactions are included from in vivo 868 transcriptome. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of genes, reactions and 869 metabolites in the icdf838 model after adding the required *in vivo* exchanges and transports. (C) 870 ROC curve showing the accuracy of icdf834-predicted gene essentiality in nutrient rich medium 871 evaluated against a Tn-seq functional screen (35). Red circle indicates the 95% growth inhibition 872 as threshold. (D) Venn diagram showing the number of model-predicted essential genes for 873 growth of C. difficile 630 in vitro vs in vivo. (E) BioTapestry visualization of in vivo gene regulatory 874 network for C. difficile 630: All 24 in vivo-specific essential genes that are regulated by 875 transcription factors (TFs) are shown. Transcriptional regulators are derived from EGRIN. The 876 network includes all TFs that regulate more than four in vivo essential genes. The genes and TFs 877 shown as five digit numbers represent the nomenclature preceded by 'CD630' (e.g. 27220 878 indicates CD630 27220).

879



882 Figure 6. An example module page of the *C. difficile* Portal. Module #182, associated with 883 CodY and shown in Fig 2D is used as an example. (A) Each module page includes general 884 statistics of the module (residual score, gene count), displays the module expression profile in the 885 compiled transcriptional compendium and the detected motifs. (B) A module page also offers 886 information about the potential transcriptional regulators of the module. Putative regulators are 887 defined based on over-representation of manually compiled TF regulons (assessed using 888 hypergeometric test) and based on the Inferelator predictions. (C) Each module page includes a 889 list of its gene members with a brief description of each gene. This information includes gene 890 name, product, alternative names, function and essentiality. In the example, only the first four 891 genes (out of 24) are shown. The user can click in any gene to visit the corresponding gene page. 892

894 **TABLES**

Table 1. Datasets used for generating *C. difficile* transcriptional compendium

Condition	GEO Series Accession	# Transcriptomes ^a	# Controls⁵
Early infections (0h, 30 mins, 60 mins, 120 mins)	GSE18407	12	NA°
<i>In vivo</i> vs <i>in vitro</i> (8h, 14h, 38h)	GSE43305	32	NA ^c
Iron limitation	GSE109453 GSE120189	15	15 ^{<i>d</i>}
<i>fur</i> deletion	GSE69218 GSE120189	12	12 ^{<i>d</i>}
Response to oxygen	GSE109175	3	3
Response to commensals and diet	GSE60751	8	8 ^e
Rich diet vs Poor diet	GSE60751	8	8 ^e
Transition from exponential to stationary phase	GSE115054	16	NA°
codY KO	GSE23192	3	NA°
Sporulation (<i>spo0A</i> KO, <i>sigEFGK</i> KOs, <i>spoIIID</i> KO)	GSE45977 GSE63777	18	6

896

^aRefers to the number of arrays used as numerator when estimating log2 ratios

^bControl arrays were averaged and used as denominator when estimating log2 ratios

898 ^cNot Applicable. Dual channel array and therefore the control was included in each array

^dSix samples used as controls were also considered as main transcriptome in other comparisons

^eSamples used as controls were also considered as main transcriptome in other comparisons

901 SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES





904 Figure S1. Number of Inferelator-predicted transcriptional regulators of modules in the

905 EGRIN model.

906

903

907



- 910 **Figure S2. The Cdiff Web Portal.** (A) Home page of the Cdiff Portal. Users can explore the
- 911 gene regulatory network model and the metabolic model for *C. difficile*. In addition, all files are
- 912 accessible in the resource tab. The search bar facilitates website exploration. (B) An example
- 913 gene page of the *C. difficile* Portal.
- 914
- 915

916 SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

917

918 Table S1. Compiled TF regulons

Regulator	Regulon Size	Supporting Data	Reference
СсрА	194 ^a	Protein-DNA binding, transcriptomics, in silico ^b	(3, 67)
CodY	160 ^c	Protein-DNA binding, transcriptomics	(65)
Fur	19	Transcriptomics, <i>in silico^b</i>	(68, 69)
PrdR	181	Transcriptomics	(24)
SigB	57	Transcriptomics	(15)
SigD	159	Transcriptomics	(70)
SigE	96		
SigF	25	Transcriptomics	(30)
SigG	46		
SigH	40	Transcriptomics, <i>in silico^b</i>	(4)
SigK	54	Transcriptomics	(30)
SigL	46 ^d	Transcriptomics, <i>in silico^b</i>	(66)
Spo0A	276 ^e	Transcriptomics	(71)

^aOnly genes classified as CcpA-dependent (in the presence or absence of glucose) by Antunes

920 et al. 2012 (3) were included

^bIn silico search of the binding motif of the corresponding regulator within the genes and their
 promoter sequences

- 923 ^cOnly genes negatively influenced by CodY were included
- ^dOnly genes with SigL motif and down-regulated in *sigL* deletion were included
- ^eOnly genes positively influenced by Spo0A were included
- 926

	Gene	Locus tag	Module ^a	Residual	Functional enrichment ^b	Enriched TF regulons ^b	Inferelator predicted regulators ^b
			31	0.46	NF	NF	SigG, SpoVT
	tcdR	CD_06590	336	0.54	NF	NF	FapR, CD_16930
	tedD		284	0.63	NF	NF	CD_06930, CD_17820
	tcdB	CD_00000	397	0.49	NF	Spo0A, SigE	SpoVT, CD_06290
	tcdE	CD_06610	31	0.46	NF	NF	SigG, SpoVT
			138	0.61	NF	NF	CD_06290, CD_12390, SpoVT
	tod	A CD_06630	182	0.56	ATP synthesis	CodY, PrdR	FapR, CD_20480, SigG
	tcdA		264	0.71	NF	NF	SigV
	tcdC	CD_06640	146	0.52	NF	NF	CD_27320, PhoU
			395	0.51	NF	NF	CD_18100, CD_35440

928 Tal	ole S2. General	properties	of modules	associated w	with the	pathogenicit	y loci
---------	-----------------	------------	------------	--------------	----------	--------------	--------

929 ^aModules that contain the corresponding member of the pathogenicity loci

930 ^bRefers to the information shown for the corresponding module on the Cdiff Web Portal

932 Table S3. Model predicted essential genes in vivo

Locus tag	Gene name	Gene product/function	Pathway	In silico predictions		Expt
				Essentiality in vivo	Essentiality nutrient-rich in vitro	Essentiality Nutrient-rich in vitro (Tn-seq)
CD630_09940	G12WB- 1109	serine-pyruvate aminotransferase	Alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_05800	gapN	glyceraldehyde-3- phosphate dehydrogenase	Valine, leucine and isoleucine metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_15340	ggt	gamma- glutamyltranspeptida se	Alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_23430	cat1	succinyl- CoA:coenzyme A transferase	Butanoate fermentation; Methionine Biosynthesis	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_34400	G12WB- 3619	glycoside hydrolase- type carbohydrate- binding protein	Glycolysis	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_30840	garK	glycerate kinase	Glycine, serine and threonine metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_28130	garR	tartronate semialdehyde reductase	Glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_33170	fdhF	formate dehydrogenase-H	Glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_21790	G12WB- 2336	anaerobic dehydrogenase	Glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_07690	G12WB- 880	oxidoreductase subunit	Glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential

CD630_12240	pupG	purine nucleoside phosphorylase	Purine metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_07190	fchA	methenyltetrahydrofol ate cyclohydrolase	One carbon pool by folate; Wood- Ljungdahl pathway	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_15660	ilvB	acetolactate synthase large subunit	Valine, leucine and isoleucine metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_12230	drm	phosphopentomutase	Nucleotide interconversion	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_20140	ilvD	dihydroxy-acid dehydratase	Valine, leucine and isoleucine metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_15020	deoC	deoxyribose- phosphate aldolase	Nucleotide interconversion	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_18390	tyrC	prephenate dehydrogenase	Phenylalanine, tyrosine and tryptophan biosynthesis	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_18360	pheA	bifunctional chorismate mutase/prephenate dehydratase	Phenylalanine, tyrosine and tryptophan biosynthesis	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_12200	nudF	NUDIX family hydrolase	Purine metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_23300	xpt	xanthine phosphoribosyltransf erase	Purine metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_05570	G12WB- 669	uridine kinase	Pyrimidine metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_04870	G12WB- 599	carbon-nitrogen hydrolase	Pyrimidine metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential
CD630_18160	cmk	cytidylate kinase	Pyrimidine metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential

CD630_1	5650	ilvC	ketol-acid reductoisomerase	Valine, leucine and isoleucine metabolism	Essential	Non- Essential	Non-Essential