

Phenotypic design choices for enhanced productivity in microbial chemical production processes

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Abstract

Microbial metabolism can be harnessed to produce a broad range of industrially important chemicals. Often, three key process variables: **Titer**, **Rate** and **Yield (TRY)** are the target of metabolic engineering efforts to improve microbial hosts toward industrial production. Previous research into improving the TRY metrics have examined the efficacy of having distinct growth and production stages to achieve enhanced productivity. However, these studies assumed a switch from a maximum growth to a maximum production phenotype. Hence, the choice of operating points for the growth and production stages of two-stage processes is yet to be explored. The impact of reduced growth rates on substrate uptake adds to the need for intelligent choice of operating points while designing two-stage processes. In this work, we present a computational framework that scans the phenotypic space of microbial metabolism to identify ideal growth and production phenotypic targets, to achieve optimal TRY values. Using this framework, with *Escherichia coli* as a model organism, we compare two-stage processes that use dynamic pathway regulation, with one-stage processes that use static intervention strategies. Our results indicate that two-stage processes with intermediate growth during the production stage always result in the highest productivity. By analyzing the flux distributions for the production enhancing strategies, we identify key reactions and reaction subsystems that need to be downregulated for a wide range of metabolites in *E. coli*. We also elucidate the importance of flux perturbations that increase phosphoenolpyruvate and NADPH availability among strategies to design production platforms. Furthermore, reactions in the pentose phosphate pathway emerge as key control nodes that function together to increase the availability of precursors to most products in *E. coli*. Due to the presence of these common patterns in the flux perturbations, we propose the possibility of a universal production strain that enhances the production of a large number of metabolites.

Keywords: dynamic pathway engineering, two-stage processes, industrial bioprocesses, phenotypic choices, production platforms, substrate uptake effects

26 1 Introduction

27 The use of microbes for the production of chemicals through metabolic engineering has garnered significant
28 interest in the past few decades. The naturally modular arrangement of metabolic networks makes micro-
29 bial strains amenable to be used as chemical production platforms¹. Metabolic networks have a bow-tie
30 architecture which allows a large number of metabolites to be produced from a few universal precursors².
31 This has allowed us to successfully engineer microbes to be biocatalysts for the production of a wide range of
32 commodity chemicals^{3,4}, pharmaceuticals^{5,6}, biofuels^{7,8} and other natural and non-natural compounds⁹.
33 While few such processes have been successful at an industrial scale^{10,11}, large strain development costs
34 and scale-up issues could deem many processes economically infeasible^{12,13}. Given the cost of a target
35 feedstock and product, the feasibility of industrial fermentation processes is typically determined by three
36 process metrics - **Titer**: concentration of product at the end of a fermentation batch (given in *mmol/L* of
37 product), **Rate/productivity**: the rate of product secretion (given in *mmol/L.h* of product), and **Yield**:
38 the amount of product produced per unit amount of substrate (given in *mmol product/mmol substrate*)
39 - collectively termed the **TRY** metrics¹⁴. Titer and yield affect the operating expenditure of the process
40 by impacting product separation and substrate costs respectively, while productivity affects the capital
41 expenditure by determining the scale of the reactor required. Microbial production processes undergo
42 several rounds of strain, pathway and process optimization to reach acceptable TRY targets^{15,16}.

43 Wild-type microbial strains have evolved to grow at maximal rates, directing little carbon flux towards
44 production of target compounds¹⁷. Metabolic engineering attempts to change the operating point (or
45 phenotype) of a strain to enhance target chemical production by throttling growth associated fluxes and/or
46 tuning native metabolism to balance pathway energy and cofactor requirements. Given a stoichiometric
47 model and substrate/nutrient uptake rates, the feasible range of chemical production in a microbial strain
48 can be visualized using its production envelope which maps the maximum product flux at all possible growth
49 rates of the microbe (Figure 1). Strain engineering strategies to improve TRY metrics can be broadly
50 classified into static and dynamic pathway engineering strategies. Static pathway engineering involves
51 making gene deletions that either couple the production of a target compound with the microorganism's
52 growth¹⁸ or, simply redirect more carbon flux through production pathways. These strategies are typically
53 implemented as one-stage (OS) production processes where the strain remains at a single operating point
54 throughout the course of the process (Figure 1a). Such processes result in a higher yield by ensuring high
55 relative pathway flux. Recently, there has been an increased interest in dynamic pathway engineering, which
56 involves temporally controlling carbon flux through growth and production pathways. This can be achieved
57 through the use of biological logic or sensor and actuator systems composed of cellular components¹⁹⁻²¹.
58 Such strategies are implemented as two-stage (TS) production processes which start with cells in their
59 growth stage and at some point during the fermentation, production pathway genes are expressed to switch
60 to the production stage (Figure 1b). Such a decoupling of growth and production stages is thought to reduce
61 batch times by reaching maximal biomass concentrations faster and thereby increase productivity^{22,23}.

62 While stoichiometric models are effective for determining relative production metrics such as yield,
63 absolute metrics such as end-titer and productivity are also governed by variations in substrate uptake
64 rates. However, metabolic models with constant substrate uptake rates are routinely used for simulations
65 to monitor metabolite production rates at different phases of metabolism. The impact of reduced substrate
66 uptake rate during stationary phase metabolism²⁴ is often overlooked while designing microbial production

67 processes. Studies have shown that the rate of glucose uptake varies by significant amounts depending on
68 the genotype of the strain and phase of metabolism^{24–30} (Supplementary Figure S1a). A drop in substrate
69 uptake rate during the production stage of a TS process would result in reduced product flux and therefore,
70 a lower productivity, defeating the purpose of such a process (dotted lines in Figure 1b). This effect was
71 recently shown in a theoretical study that compared the performance of TS and OS processes for D-
72 lactic acid production in *E. coli*³¹. This study showed that reduced substrate uptake rates can limit the
73 use advantages of a TS process and there is a very narrow range of conditions where a TS process can
74 outperform an OS process. They call for the use of methods that increase stationary phase substrate
75 uptake, such as engineering ATP futile cycles to expand the range of conditions in which TS processes
76 offer enhanced productivity. This study and many others consider only TS processes that switch from
77 wild-type growth to a non-growing production phenotype during the stationary phase of metabolism have
78 been studied. However, given the interplay between substrate uptake and growth rates, phenotypes with
79 intermediate growth could hold significant value. Intermediate phenotypes have been examined in the past
80 to identify operating points that result in balanced TRY values in OS processes³².

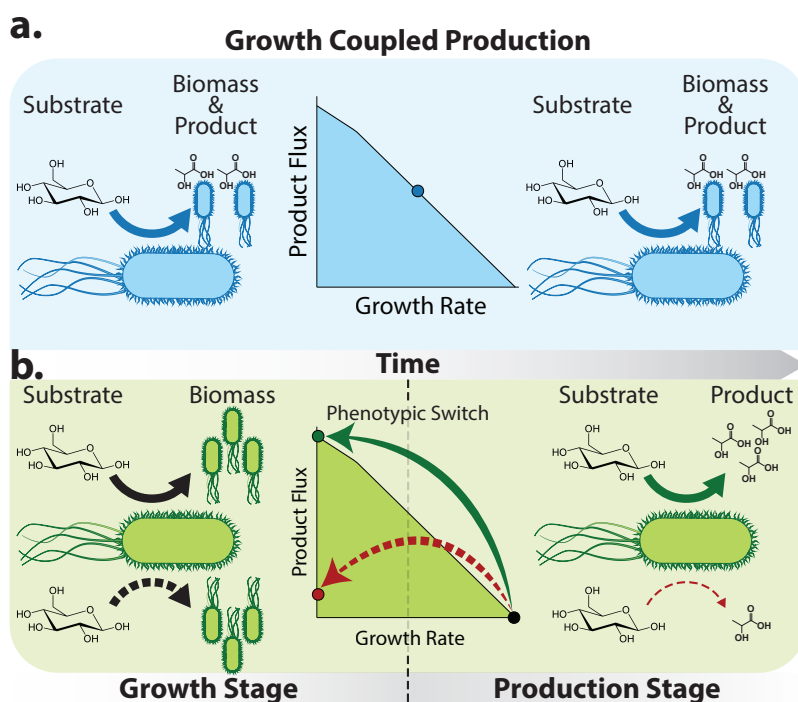


Figure 1: Static vs dynamic pathway engineering: Strain engineering strategies can be classified into **a.** Static engineering strategies where genetic perturbations that allow cells to grow and produce the target compound simultaneously (growth coupled production) are implemented. This enables the cells to produce the compound in a one-stage process. **b.** Dynamic engineering strategies where growth and production pathways are decoupled temporally. In such strategies, the process starts with a growth stage, accumulating biomass and switches over to a production stage to produce the target compound. Reduced substrate uptake during the production stage can result in lower product flux (dotted lines) than that expected assuming constant substrate uptake rates (solid lines). Hypothetical operating points for each production strategy are shown in the respective production envelopes.

81 In this work, we compare TS and OS production processes that make use of the entire range of feasible
82 production operating points rather than those with maximum growth or maximum product yield. To this

83 end, we develop Two Step Dynamic Strain Scanning and Optimization (TS-DySScO), a modular compu-
 84 tational framework to compare microbial production processes. TS-DySScO uses TS dynamic flux balance
 85 analysis to determine the process metrics obtainable using hypothetical operating points calculated within
 86 the solution space of a microbe’s metabolic model. With this information, the framework can determine the
 87 best process type and phenotypic choices that result in the maximum value of a predetermined objective.
 88 We use TS-DySScO to discover enhanced TS processes that result in high productivity while considering
 89 the substrate uptake effects of reduced growth. We also identify flux perturbations that occur consistently
 90 in production strategies for all natural products, giving rise to the possibility of a universal chassis for
 91 metabolic engineering.

92 2 Materials & Methods

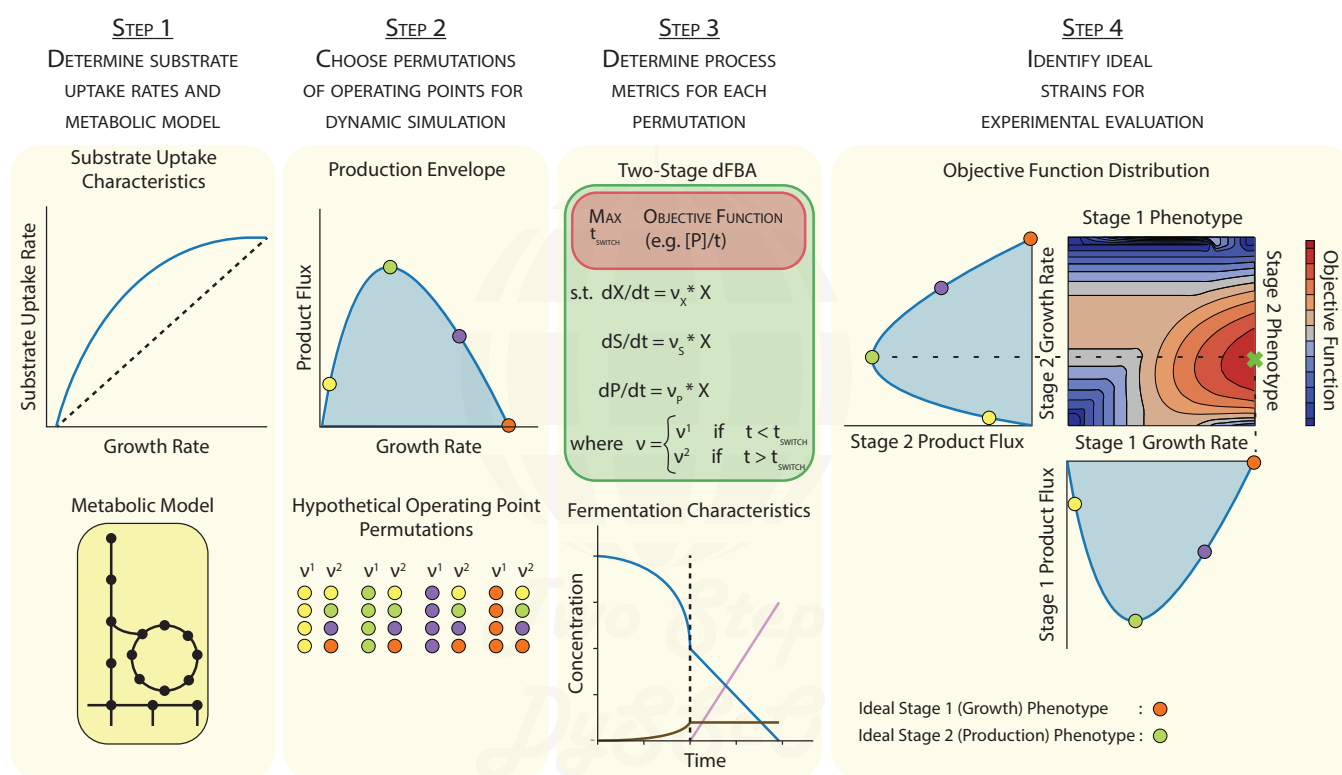


Figure 2: TS-DySScO workflow: **Step 1** - A metabolic reconstruction of the microorganism and an approximation of the substrate uptake characteristics at different growth rates are given as inputs to the formulation. Currently, TS-DySScO accepts all COBRA compatible metabolic models and any mathematical function to model substrate uptake variations. **Step 2** - A realistic production envelope is generated for the product of interest. This entails maximizing the product flux at all possible growth rates of the organism. A user defined number of operating points are chosen on the production envelope and all possible permutations of these operating points are determined for two-stage analysis. **Step 3** - A two-stage dynamic flux balance analysis that maximizes a user-defined objective function is conducted to determine the process metrics and fermentation characteristics for each permutation of operating points. **Step 4** - A distribution of process metrics for all two-stage processes is plotted and the optimal production strain is identified. The optimal phenotype for each stage has been projected onto the respective production envelope.

93 2.1 TS-DySScO formulation

94 The TS-DySScO workflow formulated in this study is briefly summarized in Figure 2 and described below.

95 2.1.1 Establishing substrate uptake characteristics

96 The first step towards thoroughly analyzing the performance of the production strategies using a metabolic
97 model is establishing a relationship between the growth rate and the rate of substrate uptake in the organism
98 being studied. There are several studies that have attempted to elucidate the relationship between substrate
99 uptake and growth rates in *E. coli*. Many of these have examined this relationship using a chemostat under
100 glucose limiting conditions^{33–36}. Under these conditions, the rate of glucose uptake is limited by the dilution
101 rate prevailing in the reactor and not by the effects of genetic perturbations in the cells. Therefore, for our
102 analysis we only consider studies with batch fermentations under glucose excess conditions^{24–30}.

$$q_s = q_{s,min} + (q_{s,max} - q_{s,min}) * \left(-1 + \frac{2}{(1 + e^{-K_{uptake} * \mu})} \right)$$

where

$q_{s,min}$: substrate uptake rate at zero-growth rate

$q_{s,max}$: substrate uptake rate at maximum growth rate

K_{uptake} : substrate uptake parameter

(Eq. 1)

103 We chose to use a logistic curve that spans between the minimum recorded glucose uptake rate dur-
104 ing stationary phase and the maximum glucose uptake rate used in the metabolic model, to estimate
105 the substrate uptake rates at various growth rates (Eq. 1). We have presented a more detailed analy-
106 sis of the relationship between substrate uptake rate and growth rate in the supplementary information
107 (Supplementary text 1.1, Figure S1b).

108 2.1.2 Defining hypothetical operating points

109 The next step is to determine all hypothetical operating points of interest using a metabolic model. In this
110 study, we refer to a metabolic mode of an organism, represented by a unique combination of the possible
111 growth and product secretion rates within the solution space of its metabolic model, as an operating point
112 or ‘phenotype’. For a user-defined number of points between the minimum and maximum growth rates of
113 the organism as determined from the metabolic model, we derive the corresponding substrate uptake rates
114 using the relationship established in the previous step. At each of these points, by constraining the growth
115 and substrate uptake reactions to the required values and maximizing the secretion rate of the metabolite
116 of interest, we obtain the hypothetical operating points of interest for examination.

117 2.1.3 Two-stage dynamic flux balance analysis

118 Dynamic flux balance analysis (dFBA)³⁷ can be used to obtain process metrics for a fermentation process
119 by keeping track of substrate, biomass and product concentrations over the course of a fermentation batch,
120 provided that initial concentrations of these species are known. This is done by using ordinary differential
121 equations to simulate changes in the concentration of relevant species using their fluxes obtained from a
122 metabolic model. Here, we modify the dFBA formulation to allow for phenotype switching between the

123 two stages of a TS fermentation process (Eq. 2b-d). We do this by using distinct of biomass, substrate and
124 product fluxes in the dFBA equations during the growth and production stages. By repeating this process
125 with all possible permutations of the hypothetical operating points as growth and production phenotypes,
126 we obtain process metrics for all possible TS processes.

$$\max_{t_{switch}} f(\mathbf{TRY}) \quad (\text{Eq. 2a})$$

such that

$$\frac{d[X]}{dt} = \nu_{n,X} * [X] \quad (\text{Eq. 2b})$$

$$\frac{d[S]}{dt} = \nu_{n,S} * [X] \quad (\text{Eq. 2c})$$

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = \nu_{n,P} * [X] \quad (\text{Eq. 2d})$$

where

$$n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t \leq t_{switch} \\ 2 & \text{if } t > t_{switch} \end{cases}$$

127 2.1.4 Optimizing metabolite production strategy

128 The time of switching between the two stages is an additional variable that affects the concentration of
129 the species in the dFBA formulation and therefore, the process metrics that determine the performance
130 of each TS process. In order to obtain the best fermentation metric for each combination of operating
131 points, we formulate an optimization problem that varies the switching time (t_{switch}) to maximize a desired
132 objective function (Eq. 2a). This can be the titer, rate, yield or a function of these metrics. We can
133 then plot a distribution of the process metrics for each permutation to identify the optimal combination of
134 operating points. Following this, the desirable operating point combinations can be chosen for experimental
135 validation. For this study, we used the productivity of a fermentation process as the objective function.

136 2.1.5 Packaging and availability

137 The TS-DySScO framework is written as a python package that accepts COBRApy³⁸ compatible metabolic
138 models. The modular nature of this package allows users to select the metabolic model, fermentation start
139 parameters and, substrate uptake characteristics with ease. In order to reduce run times, we allowed for
140 the optimization and dFBA calculations shown in Eq. 2 to be run parallelly on multi-core and multi-
141 processor systems. The switch time optimization problem was implemented using the COBYLA method
142 in the optimization package of scipy. The TS-DySScO framework can be installed and run on any system
143 with a working Python 3 distribution. The framework, along with installation instructions are available on
144 GitHub (<https://github.com/lmse/tsdyssco>). The code used to perform the various analyses described
145 in this article are available at https://github.com/lmse/phenotypic_design.

146 2.2 Implementation

147 All analyses were conducted using the COBRApy³⁸ and Cameo³⁹ packages on a Python 3.7 distribution.
 148 *E. coli*'s genome scale metabolic reconstruction - iJO1366⁴⁰ was used to perform all simulations to compare
 149 the two fermentation strategies. Unless otherwise specified, fermentation batches were started with 500
 150 mM (≈ 90 g/L) of D-glucose as the substrate and 0.05 g/L of biomass. These values are in the range of
 151 required substrate and biomass concentrations to achieve acceptable TRY targets¹⁵. Flux distributions for
 152 best performing phenotypes in each fermentation strategy were obtained by constraining growth, substrate
 153 uptake and product secreting reactions to required values and performing a parsimonious flux balance anal-
 154 ysis (pFBA)⁴¹ on the metabolic model using the IBM ILOG CPLEX (v12.9) solver. Data visualization
 155 was performed using the plotly package.

156

157 3 Results & Discussion

158 3.1 Case Study: Production of D-Lactic Acid in *E. coli*

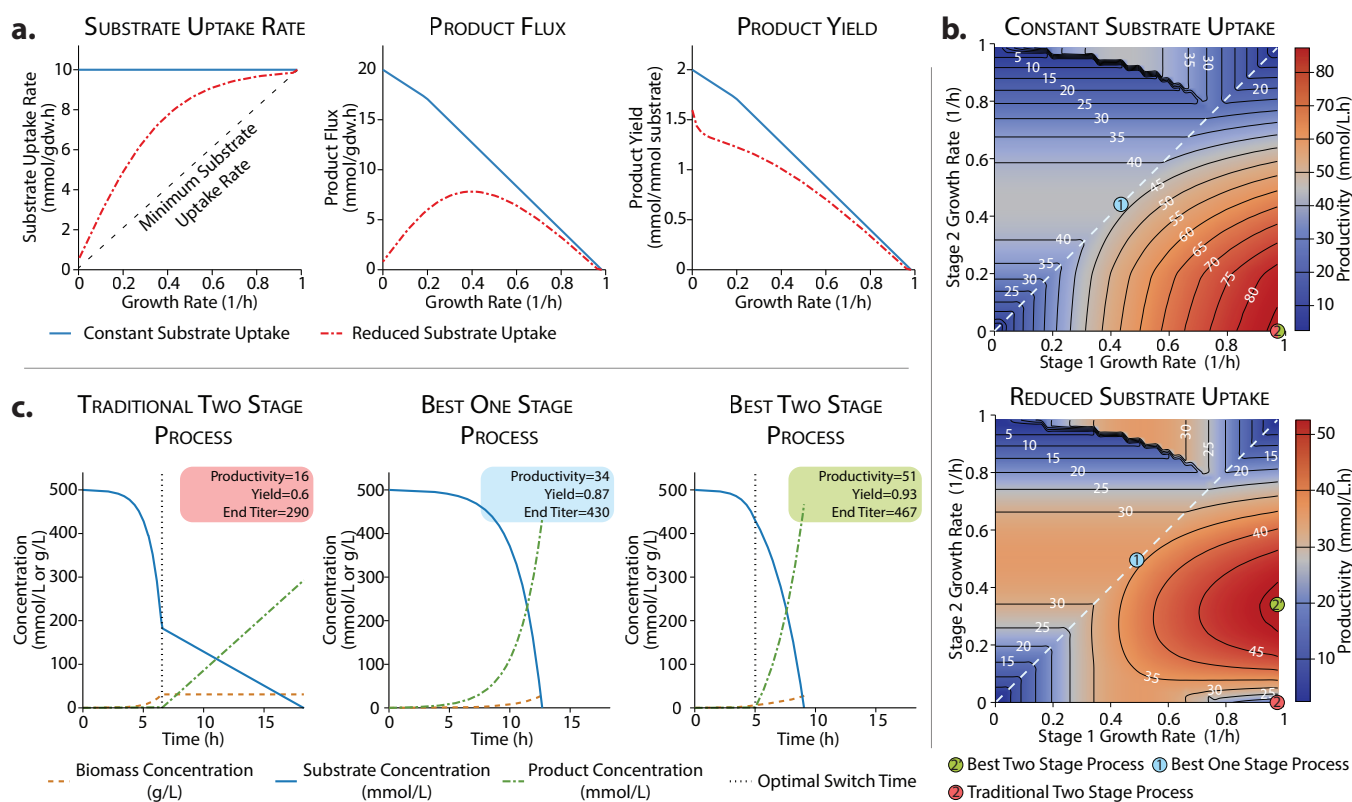


Figure 3: TS-Dyssco implemented for D-lactic acid production in *E. coli*: **a.** substrate uptake rates, product flux and product yields obtained using the iJO1366 reconstruction of *E. coli* assuming constant and reduced substrate uptake rates. **b.** Productivity distribution for TS and OS processes in *E. coli* assuming constant and reduced substrate uptake rates. Isoclines on the distributions show phenotypes with the same productivity levels. **c.** Fermentation profile for various production strategies assuming reduced substrate uptake rates.

159 We applied the newly formulated TS-DySScO framework to predict strategies that maximize the pro-

ductivity of D-lactic acid production in *Escherichia coli*, starting with 500 mM of glucose as substrate and 0.05 g/L biomass. First, we examined the process under constant substrate uptake conditions i.e. assuming that the substrate uptake is unaffected by growth and other metabolic perturbations (Figure 3a). In these conditions, since the product flux and yield are highest when there is no growth, the best TS process for productivity is the traditional TS process, where the strain is allowed to switch from a maximum growth (wild-type) to a zero-growth phenotype (Figure 3b). Industrial fed-batch processes, where production pathway genes are induced upon reaching stationary phase and substrate is added slowly, fall under this category. As expected, the traditional TS process has a much higher productivity than the best OS process.

However, an impediment in growth rate either due to reaching stationary phase or rewiring of metabolism has been shown to alter substrate uptake rates²⁴⁻³⁰. If these effects are considered, the product flux in a non-growing strain is heavily impacted (shown as red dashed lines in Figure 3a). This makes a non-growing phenotype during the second stage of a TS process ineffective. We can observe this in Figures 3b,c where the traditional TS process has very low productivity - among the lowest of any possible process. As observed in a previous study³¹, many OS processes (shown as dashed lines in Figure 3b) have a higher productivity than the traditional TS process. However, a fair evaluation of two-stage strategies should include the entire available phenotypic space. Even under reduced substrate uptake conditions, there are several TS processes that have a higher productivity than the best performing OS process. These processes can be achieved by allowing the strain to grow at a reduced rate during the production stage, rather than completely eliminating growth. The switch time optimization formulation results in earlier switching between the phenotypes when the strain is allowed to grow during the production stage (Figure 3c and Supplementary Figure S2). The TRY metrics attained in the best TS process assuming reduced substrate uptake is higher than that of the OS process with the highest productivity (Figure 3b and Supplementary Figure S3). The best TS process predicted requires the strain to be able to dynamically switch from wild-type growth to a phenotype with intermediate growth and production (growth coupled production). However a process with the highest productivity may not be the most economically optimal choice due to variations in substrate and product prices. The process metric distributions can be collectively used to choose phenotypes for TS processes depending on substrate and product prices prevailing at a particular time.

3.2 TS processes have highest productivity for all natural metabolites in *E. coli*

Having established that TS processes result in a higher D-lactate productivity, we wished to examine if this trend held true for other native metabolites in *E. coli*. We anticipated that the different production flux profiles for each product would result in variations in the process metrics. Hence, we used TS-DySScO with the fermentation start parameters previously described, to predict process optimality for 70 native exchange metabolites in the iJO1366 reconstruction of *E. coli*'s metabolism. The best TS process has the highest productivity for all products analyzed, with the OS process and traditional TS process trailing behind (Figure 4). Surprisingly, the best TS process outperforms OS processes even if substrate uptake rates are assumed to be constant for the OS process.

In general, products with more carbon atoms have a lower molar productivity. However, two products, namely 5-methylthioribose and spermidine have unusually low productivities, which will be examined in

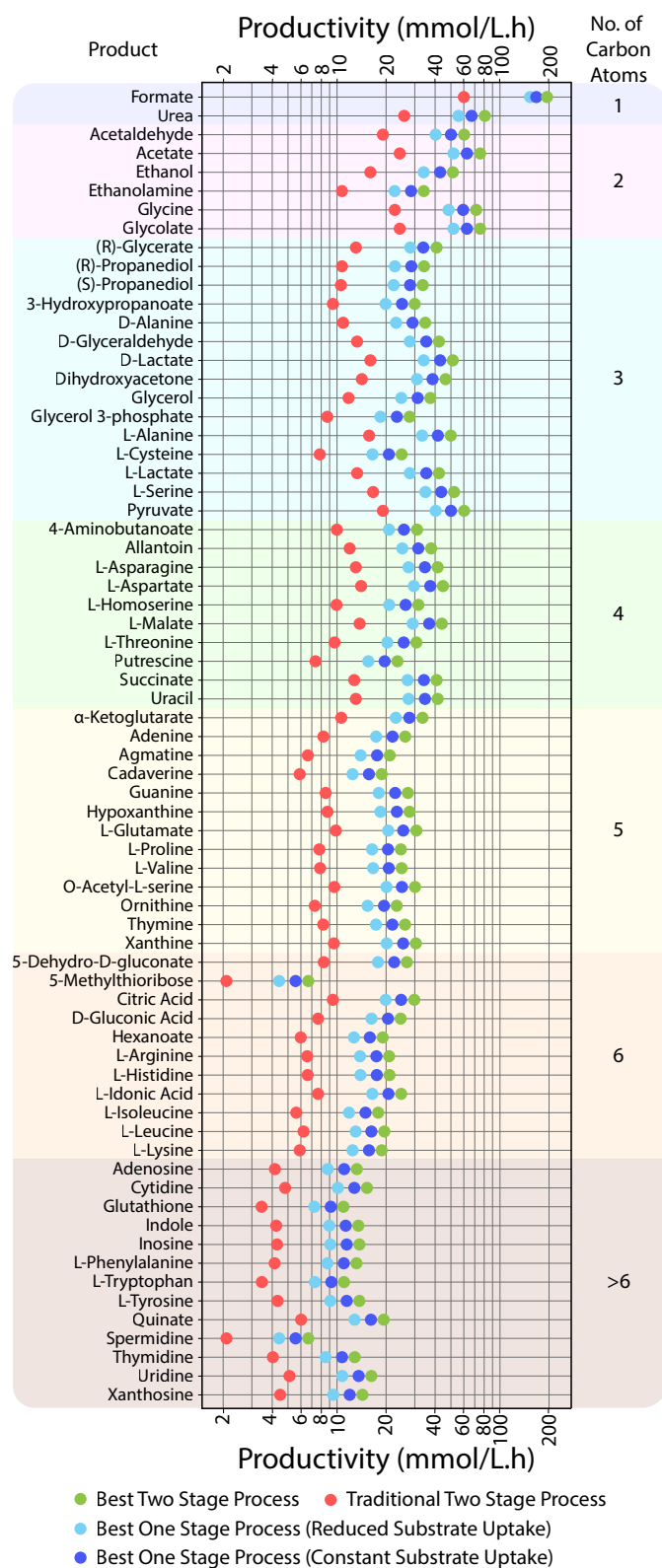


Figure 4: Productivity for exchange metabolite production in *E. coli*: TS-DySScO was used to simulate the production of all exchange metabolites in the iJO1366 reconstruction of *E. coli*, ordered by the number of carbon atoms in the product. The optimized two stage process always results in the highest productivity.

200 later sections. The best TS processes also have a higher yield and end-titer than their OS counterparts
201 (Supplementary Figure S6). Only if the substrate uptake effects of growth rate are neglected, OS processes
202 have a higher yield and end-titer than the best TS processes. The traditional TS processes have very
203 stunted productivities, yields and end-titers for all the exchange metabolites when substrate uptake rates
204 is reduced, consistent with the previous study for D-lactic acid³¹.

205 Upon examining the best TS processes predicted by TS-DySScO, we found that all of them had the
206 same phenotype during the growth stage - wild-type growth. These processes varied in phenotype only
207 during the production stage, where an intermediate growth phenotype resulted in the highest productivity.
208 Similarly, OS processes with the highest productivity are those with an intermediate growth rate and
209 have one growth-coupled production stage. Hence, it is possible to compare the two process types at
210 every operating point in the production envelope during the production stage for all possible substrate
211 uptake rates. This allows us to determine the threshold substrate uptake rate that a strain would need
212 to achieve in order to make the TS process better than the OS process. Since the logistic curve used to
213 model substrate uptake variation is merely an approximation, this analysis would help in determining the
214 best process type under various substrate uptake rate assumptions. If a TS process is compared to an
215 OS process with the same production stage operating point, the TS process has a higher productivity at
216 all substrate uptake rates (Supplementary Figure S7a). Even if we compare the TS processes to the best
217 performing OS process assuming constant substrate uptake, there is a large range of substrate uptake rates
218 where a better performing TS process can be found (Supplementary Figure S7b). The threshold substrate
219 uptake rate that needs to be crossed to make a TS process is given by the contour line that equals zero
220 in Figure S7b. This analysis can be used as a general guideline to decide the process type for production
221 when substrate uptake rates are exactly known for a given production strain.

222 **3.3 Commonalities in flux perturbations hint towards a universal production pheno-** 223 **type**

224 While it is clear that TS processes have optimal productivity, it would be useful to determine how such
225 processes can be physically realized. Hence, we wished to examine the flux perturbations required to
226 achieve the various production strategies for each of the exchange metabolites analyzed in the previous
227 section. This was done by using pFBA to obtain the flux distributions required to achieve the various
228 phenotypes for each of the process types. As mentioned earlier, both the best and traditional TS processes
229 use wild-type growth as the phenotype in the first stage. Therefore, using the wild-type flux distribution
230 as a reference, we examined how many reactions would need to be perturbed in each of the strategies, and
231 classified each perturbed reaction/flux based on whether it was switched on, switched off, upregulated,
232 downregulated or reversed (Supplementary Figures S8,S9, and S10).

233 A very large number of fluxes (>200) need to be modified to achieve any of the target phenotypes
234 predicted by TS-DySScO. It appears that for all process types, products with fewer carbon atoms require
235 more reactions to be turned on/off compared to larger products. Among these, α -ketoglutarate is an outlier,
236 being a 5-carbon compound requiring an unusually large number of on-off type perturbations (>25) for the
237 OS and best TS processes. Interestingly, the compounds that were determined to have an unusually low
238 yield in the previous section - 5-methylthioribose and spermidine have the largest number of upregulations
239 among all the products. The yield of these products is likely low due to the upregulation of pathways

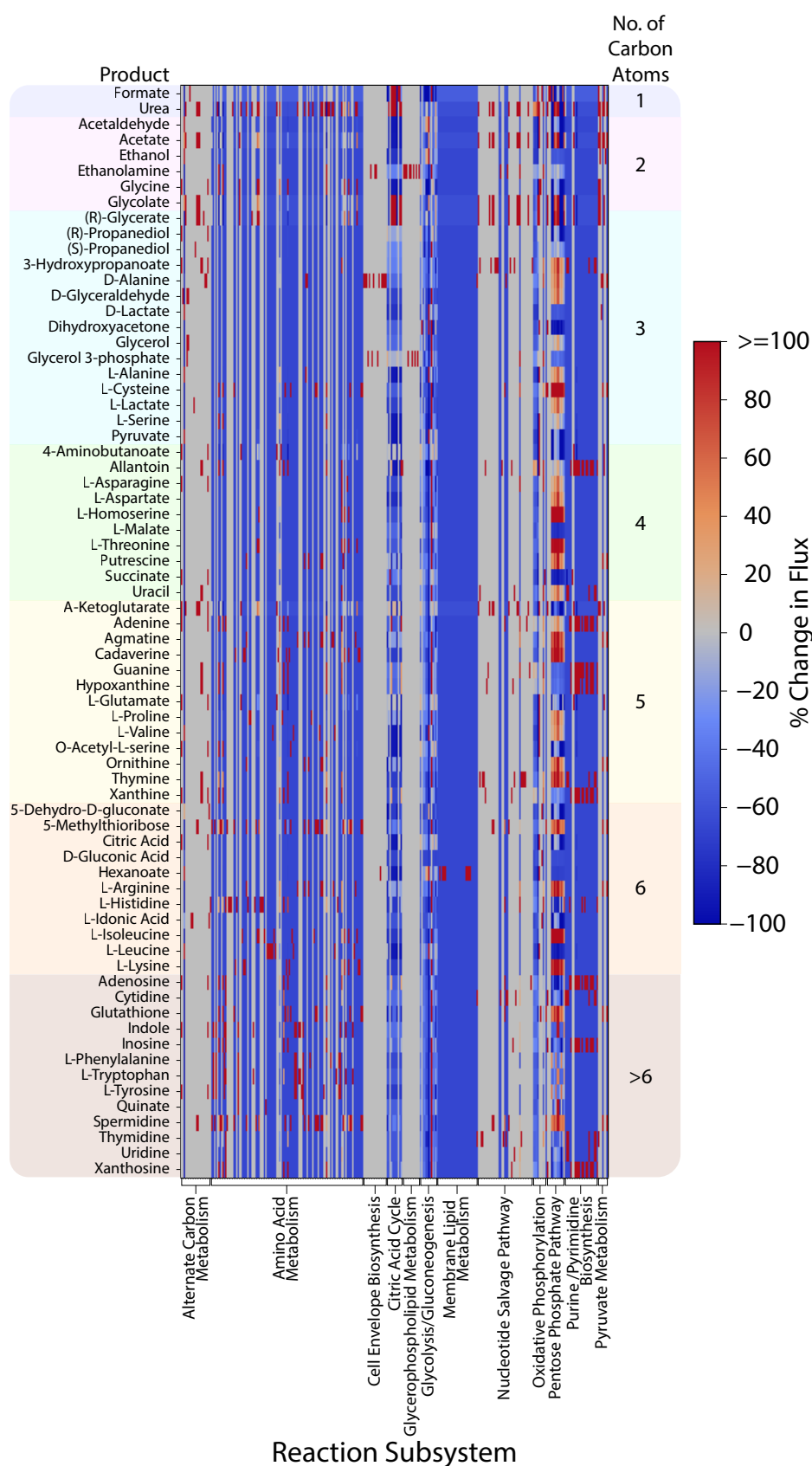


Figure 5: Flux perturbations required for best TS processes: Percent change in flux through all reactions compared to wild-type flux distribution required to achieve the best two-stage processes for native exchange metabolites in *E. coli*. Due to the large number of reactions involved, only the reaction subsystems are shown.

240 that result in yield losses during production and the absence of alternative pathways that conserve yield.
241 All process types involve a large number of downregulations. However, the number of downregulations for
242 the OS and best TS processes are very high while the number of reactions turned off is very high for the
243 traditional TS processes.

244 To further understand the production phenotypes for each of the process types, we examined the
245 magnitude of flux changes from the wild-type flux distribution for every product and arranged the reactions
246 based on the subsystem in which they occur (Figure 5, Supplementary Figure S11). As noted previously,
247 most perturbations for the best TS process are downregulations. It appears that the reactions which require
248 downregulation are concentrated in specific subsystems. Notably, all reactions involved in membrane lipid
249 metabolism are downregulated for all but one of the products. Similarly, many reactions involved in
250 glycolysis, the citric acid cycle, amino acid metabolism and nucleotide biosynthesis are downregulated for
251 most products. Not surprisingly, reactions involved in the production of biomass are downregulated for all
252 products. The magnitude of flux changes is also very similar across the entire product range. Reactions in
253 amino acid metabolism and nucleotide biosynthesis are upregulated/switched on only for the production
254 of these products. Interestingly, reactions in the pentose phosphate pathway are equally divided between
255 being upregulated or downregulated together for different products. Hence, this subsystem appears to
256 act as a key node that controls precursor availability to manufacture metabolites within the cell. Also, it
257 appears that the same fluxes need to be perturbed for the OS process as well, with the only difference being
258 the magnitude of the flux change required (Supplementary Figure S11). These results suggest that it is
259 possible to engineer an *E. coli* strain with a universal production phenotype that maximizes productivity,
260 where flux perturbations that appear for all the products can be dynamically controlled and flux through
261 them throttled to reduce the growth rate to a certain value. Then, depending on the class of product
262 required - amino acid, nucleotide, central carbon metabolite, etc, those reactions that require upregulation
263 can be dynamically expressed. Therefore, it could be possible to create productivity maximizing platform
264 strains for each class of product.

265 **3.4 Perturbations increasing phosphoenolpyruvate and NADPH availability are en-** 266 **riched**

267 In order to identify key control reactions, we analyzed which reactions are enriched in production strategies
268 for the exchange metabolites previously analyzed. We did this by looking at the number of products for
269 which each reaction appeared as a perturbation and classified them based on the type of perturbation - on,
270 off, upregulation, downregulation or reversal (Figure 6). Only non-transport reactions involved directly
271 in metabolism were retained for the final analysis. The full names of reactions have been provided in
272 supplementary table S1.

273 Among the reactions that are switched on for TS strategies (Figure 6), HEX1 (ATP dependent hex-
274 okinase) occurs in more than half of the products. This reaction serves as an alternative to the phos-
275 photransferase system that is used by wild-type *E. coli* to transport and phosphorylate glucose. Other
276 modes of glucose phosphorylation such as the XYLI - HEX7 (Xylose isomerase - Hexokinase) system that
277 converts glucose to fructose and then phosphorylates it, also appears in many products. These reactions
278 differ from the conventional phosphotransferase system, in that they use ATP for phosphorylation as op-
279 posed to phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP). PEP is a key precursor to many products and therefore, alternative

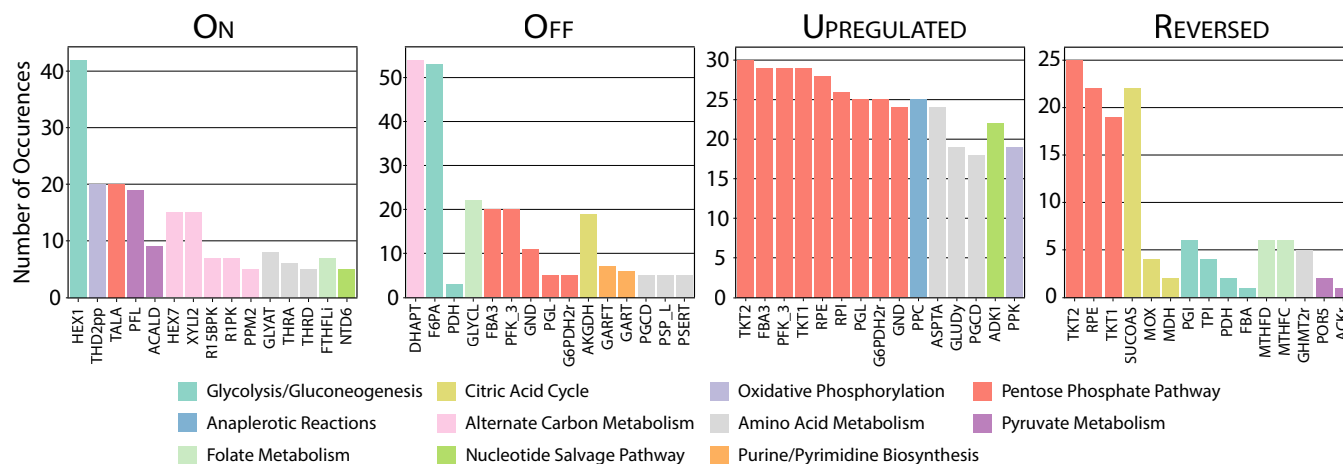


Figure 6: Key reactions in perturbations for best TS processes: Reactions most frequently occurring in the best two-stage production strategies for native exchange metabolites in *E. coli* were obtained and classified based on the type of perturbation.

280 means of glucose usage that use less PEP are enriched in the ‘on’ type perturbations. Consequently, the
 281 HEX1 glucose transport system has previously been studied for its importance in creating platform strains
 282 for microbial chemical production⁴². Furthermore, extra usage of ATP has been explored as a means to
 283 increase substrate uptake rates, potentially increasing product flux under low growth conditions⁴³, sug-
 284 gesting the importance of studying alternatives to the native phosphotransferase system. The reaction
 285 THD2pp (NADP transhydrogenase) is also required to be switched on for many products. This likely
 286 serves to increase NADPH availability to cater to production pathways. Many reactions that need to be
 287 switched on are concentrated in the alternate carbon metabolism subsystem.

288 Among other types of perturbations, DHAPT (Dihydroxyacetone phosphotransferase) and F6PA (Fruc-
 289 tose 6-phosphate aldolase) are reactions that need to be turned off for most products. These also likely
 290 serve to collectively increase PEP availability for production reactions since DHAPT utilizes PEP. Many
 291 upregulated reactions are from the pentose phosphate pathway subsystem, serving to increase the avail-
 292 ability of NADPH and pentose sugars for products. The transketolases and RPE (Ribulose 5-phosphate
 293 epimerase) need to be reversed in direction for many of the products to cater to varying precursor require-
 294 ments for different product classes. In summary, reactions from the pentose phosphate pathway occur
 295 very frequently in the best TS strategies. Also, over 70% of the reactions involved in membrane lipid
 296 metabolism, cofactor biosynthesis, lipopolysaccharide biosynthesis and glycerophospholipid metabolism,
 297 which are used for biomass production need to be downregulated (Supplementary Figure S13).

298 The best OS and TS strategies have a lot of commonly required perturbations (Figure 6 and Supple-
 299 mentary Figure S12). Notably, the PEP conserving strategies and the pentose phosphate pathway reactions
 300 are enriched for either process type. This bolsters the importance of PEP as a key bow-tie metabolite in
 301 making metabolism modular.

302 4 Conclusions

303 We have seen that the choice of process type influences the process metrics and therefore the profitability
 304 of a microbial chemical production process to a great extent. Furthermore, strain design choices are also

305 influenced by process choice. One-stage processes require static genetic intervention strategies that couple
306 growth and production whereas, TS processes require dynamic intervention strategies where gene expression
307 is temporally controlled. Recent advances in CRISPR⁴⁴, transcriptional switches⁴⁵, riboswitches⁴⁶, and
308 other gene regulatory elements present an exciting outlook for the experimental implementation of such
309 intervention strategies. There has also been interest in computational algorithms that predict dynamic
310 control strategies which begin with high growth and switch over to growth-coupled production as required
311 by the best TS production strategies predicted in this study⁴⁷.

312 The flux perturbations necessary to achieve the target production phenotypes predicted for these strate-
313 gies is daunting due to the sheer number of perturbations required. However, it is important to note that
314 this analysis does not take into account the fact that many pathways are linear and sequential. Therefore,
315 it would not be necessary to actively perturb all fluxes predicted in this study. A reduction of the metabolic
316 network would help to identify key control reactions that actually need to be perturbed. Furthermore, al-
317 gorithmic approaches can be used to predict the genetic perturbations required to achieve target phenotypes
318 given the constraints predicted by TS-DySScO. Most reactions that need to be downregulated are those
319 that direct flux towards biomass production. It is interesting to note that the production of most products
320 involves enhancing PEP conserving and NADPH overproducing strategies. The emergence of PEP as a
321 key precursor indicates its importance as a bow-tie metabolite, funneling flux into different pathways^{2,48}.
322 Furthermore, reactions in the pentose phosphate pathway seem to work in unison to increase precursor
323 availability for number of products by being upregulated or downregulated, alluding to their importance in
324 making metabolic networks malleable and robust to perturbations. These common features in strains with
325 enhanced production of a wide range of metabolites give rise to the idea of a universal production strain
326 that could be used to maximize productivity in a TS process by redirecting flux from growth to production
327 related processes for various classes of products. Such a platform strain that maximizes productivity could
328 be realized by placing a minimal number of control reactions under dynamically repressible/inducible pro-
329 moters to throttle biomass production flux. This is similar to the concept of a modular cellular chassis for
330 the production of many different compounds, that has gained interest recently^{49,50}.

331 From our results, TS processes do seem to outperform OS processes in terms of productivity for native
332 exchange metabolites in *E. coli*, and since the production characteristics can be expected to be similar for
333 other organisms and non-native products too, this conclusion can be extended to products in other hosts
334 as well. We found that this conclusion holds true over a wide range of industrially relevant fermentation
335 start parameters. The overall yield and end-titer of such a TS process is also higher than an OS process
336 selected for high productivity. However, the model for substrate uptake rate variation used in this study
337 is only an approximation. In future, better substrate uptake rate measurements for combinatorial deletion
338 mutants will help in making more accurate predictions of process performance. While it is true that the
339 process metrics depend on the substrate uptake rate of the mutant strain, we have shown that a TS process
340 can outperform an OS process at every production phenotype, regardless of substrate uptake rate. Further
341 improvements in substrate uptake rates through various strategies⁵¹ will improve productivity even further.
342 The software framework presented here - TS-DySScO, has the ability to determine the effectiveness of each
343 process type and predict optimal hypothetical phenotypes for experimental evaluation. It also provides
344 information about the fermentation conditions under which each process type would perform better. We
345 anticipate that TS-DySScO and the findings obtained in this study will be very valuable to make process

346 and strain design decisions for industrial scale production of chemicals using microorganisms. Furthermore,
347 the concept of a universal production strain that has the same growth phenotype and several common flux
348 perturbations required to switch on the production of many chemicals in a flexible manner may provide a
349 paradigm shift in the way chemical production processes are designed in the future.

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