Functional reconstitution of a bacterial CO₂ concentrating mechanism in *E. coli*

- 3 **Authors:** Avi I. Flamholz¹, Eli Dugan¹, Cecilia Blikstad¹, Shmuel Gleizer², Roee Ben-Nissan²,
- 4 Shira Amram², Niv Antonovsky^{2,†}, Sumedha Ravishankar^{1,‡}, Elad Noor^{2,§}, Arren Bar-Even³, Ron
- 5 Milo^{2,*} & David F. Savage^{1,*}
- 6

7 Affiliations:

- ¹ Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of California, Berkeley, California 94720,
 United States
- 10 ² Department of Plant and Environmental Sciences, Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot
- 11 76100, Israel
- ³ Max Planck Institute of Molecular Plant Physiology, Am Mühlenberg 1, 14476 Potsdam,
- 13 Germany
- 14 [†] Present address: Laboratory of Genetically Encoded Small Molecules, The Rockefeller
- 15 University, 1230 York Avenue, New York, NY, 10065, USA
- 16 [‡] Present address: Division of Biological Sciences, Section of Molecular Biology, University of
- 17 California, San Diego, La Jolla, California, 92093, United States.
- 18 § Present address: Institute of Molecular Systems Biology, Eidgenössische Technische
- 19 Hochschule Zürich, Zürich CH-8093, Switzerland
- 20
- 21 *Correspondence to: <u>ron.milo@weizmann.ac.il</u> (R.M.) and <u>savage@berkeley.edu</u> (D.F.S.)

22 Abstract

- 23 Many photosynthetic organisms employ a CO₂ concentrating mechanism (CCM) to increase the
- rate of CO_2 fixation via the Calvin cycle. CCMs catalyze $\approx 50\%$ of global photosynthesis, yet it remains unclear which genes and proteins are required to produce this complex adaptation. We
- 26 describe the construction of a functional CCM in a non-native host, achieved by expressing genes
- 27 from an autotrophic bacterium in an engineered *E. coli* strain. Expression of 20 CCM genes
- enabled *E. coli* to grow by fixing CO_2 from ambient air into biomass, with growth depending on
- 29 CCM components. Bacterial CCMs are therefore genetically compact and readily transplanted.
- 30 rationalizing their presence in diverse bacteria. Reconstitution enabled genetic experiments
- 31 refining our understanding of the CCM, thereby laying the groundwork for deeper study and
- 32 engineering of the cell biology supporting CO₂ assimilation in diverse organisms.

33 One Sentence Summary

34 A bacterial CO₂ concentrating mechanism enables *E. coli* to fix CO₂ from ambient air.

35 Introduction

36 Nearly all carbon in the biosphere enters by CO₂ fixation in the Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle 37 (Raven et al., 2017). Ribulose Bisphosphate Carboxylase/Oxygenase - commonly known as 38 rubisco - is the CO₂ fixing enzyme in this cycle (Wildman, 2002) and likely the most abundant 39 enzyme on Earth (Bar-On and Milo, 2019). As rubisco is abundant and central to biology, one 40 might expect it to be an exceptional catalyst, but it is not. Photosynthetic rubiscos are modest 41 enzymes, with carboxylation turnover numbers (k_{cat}) ranging from 1-10 s⁻¹ (Flamholz et al., 2019; 42 Iñiguez et al., 2020). Moreover, all known rubiscos catalyze a competing oxygenation of the five-43 carbon organic substrate, ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate (Bowes and Ogren, 1972; Cleland et al., 44 1998; Flamholz et al., 2019).

45

46 Rubisco arose > 2.5 billion years ago, when Earth's atmosphere contained little O_2 and abundant 47 CO_2 (Fischer et al., 2016; Shih et al., 2016). In this environment, rubisco's eponymous oxygenase 48 activity could not have hindered carbon fixation or the growth of CO_2 -fixing organisms. Present-49 day atmosphere, however, poses a problem for plants and other autotrophs: their primary carbon 50 source, CO_2 , is relatively scarce ($\approx 0.04\%$) while a potent competing substrate, O_2 , is abundant 51 ($\approx 21\%$).

52

53 CO₂ concentrating mechanisms (CCMs) arose multiple times over the last 2 billion years 54 (Flamholz and Shih, 2020; Raven et al., 2017) and overcome this problem by concentrating CO_2 55 near rubisco (Figure 1A). In elevated CO₂ environments most active sites are occupied with CO₂ 56 and not O₂. As such, high CO₂ increases the rate of carboxylation and competitively inhibits 57 oxygenation (Bowes and Ogren, 1972) thereby improving overall carbon assimilation (Figure 1B). Today, at least four varieties of CCMs are found in plants, algae and bacteria (Flamholz and Shih, 58 59 2020; Raven et al., 2017), organisms with CCMs are collectively responsible for ≈50% of global 60 net photosynthesis (Raven et al., 2017), and some of the most productive human crops (e.g. 61 maize and sugarcane) rely on CCMs.

62

63 CCMs are particularly common among autotrophic bacteria: all Cyanobacteria and many 64 Proteobacteria have CCM genes (Kerfeld and Melnicki, 2016; Rae et al., 2013). Bacterial CCMs 65 rely on two crucial features: (i) energy-coupled inorganic carbon uptake at the cell membrane and 66 (ii) a 200+ MDa protein organelle called the carboxysome that encapsulates rubisco with a 67 carbonic anhydrase enzyme (Mangan et al., 2016; McGrath and Long, 2014). In the prevailing 68 model of the carboxysome CCM, inorganic carbon uptake produces a high, above-equilibrium 69 cytosolic HCO₃⁻ concentration (≈30 mM) that diffuses into the carboxysome, where carbonic 70 anhydrase activity produces a high carboxysomal CO₂ concentration that promotes efficient 71 carboxylation by rubisco (Figure 1A-B).

72

As CCMs accelerate CO₂ fixation, there is great interest in transplanting them into crops (Ermakova et al., 2020; McGrath and Long, 2014). Carboxysome-based CCMs are especially attractive because they natively function in single cells and appear to rely on a tractable number of genes (Lin et al., 2014; Long et al., 2018; Occhialini et al., 2016; Orr et al., 2020). Modeling suggests that introducing bacterial CCM components could improve plant photosynthesis

78 (McGrath and Long, 2014), especially if aspects of plant physiology can be modulated via genetic 79 engineering (Wu et al., 2019). However, expressing bacterial rubiscos and carboxysome 80 components has, so far, uniformly resulted in transgenic plants displaying impaired growth (Lin et al., 2014; Long et al., 2018; Occhialini et al., 2016; Orr et al., 2020). More generally, as our 81 82 understanding of the genes and proteins participating in the carboxysome CCM rests mostly on 83 loss-of-function genetic experiments in native hosts (Cai et al., 2009; Desmarais et al., 2019; 84 Marcus et al., 1986; Price and Badger, 1989a), it is possible that some genetic, biochemical and 85 physiological aspects of CCM function remain unappreciated. We therefore sought to test whether 86 current understanding is sufficient to reconstitute the bacterial CCM in a non-native bacterial host. 87 namely E. coli.

88

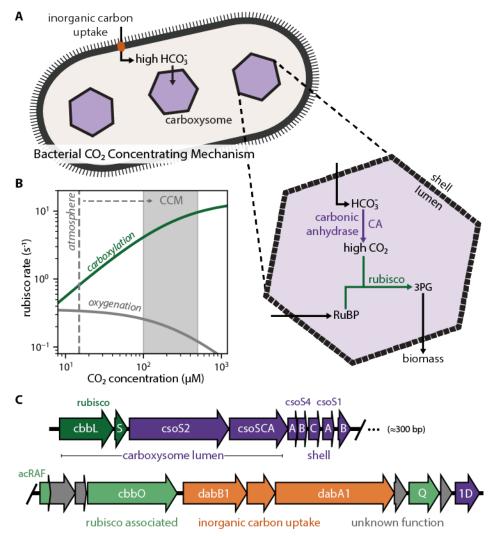


Figure 1. Twenty genes form the basis of a bacterial CCM. (A) The bacterial CCM consists of at least two essential components - energy-coupled carbon uptake and carboxysome structures that encapsulate rubisco with a carbonic anhydrase (CA) enzyme (Mangan et al., 2016; McGrath and Long, 2014). Transport generates a large cytosolic HCO₃⁻ pool, which is rapidly converted to high carboxysomal CO₂ concentration by the carboxysomal CA. (B) Elevated CO₂ increases the rubisco carboxylation rate (green) and suppresses oxygenation by competitive inhibition (grey). [O₂] was set to 270 µM for rate calculations. (C) H. neapolitanus CCM genes are mostly contained in a 20 gene cluster

96 (Desmarais et al., 2019) expressing rubisco and its associated chaperones (green), carboxysome structural proteins
 97 (purple), and an inorganic carbon transporter (orange).

98

99 Using a genome-wide screen in the CO_2 -fixing proteobacterium H. neapolitanus, we recently 100 demonstrated that a 20-gene cluster encodes all activities required for the CCM, at least in 101 principle (Desmarais et al., 2019). These genes include rubisco large and small subunits, the 102 carboxysomal carbonic anhydrase, seven structural proteins of the g-carboxysome (Bonacci et 103 al., 2012), an energy-coupled inorganic carbon transporter (Desmarais et al., 2019; Scott et al., 104 2019), three rubisco chaperones (Aigner et al., 2017; Mueller-Cajar, 2017; Wheatley et al., 2014), 105 and four genes of unknown function (Figure 1C). We aimed to test whether these genes are 106 sufficient to establish a functioning CCM in E. coli. 107

Α

108 Figure 2. CCMB1 depends on rubisco 109 carboxylation for growth on glycerol. (A) Ribose-110 5-phosphate (Ri5P) is required for nucleotide 111 biosynthesis. Deletion of ribose-phosphate 112 isomerase (Arpi) in CCMB1 blocks ribulose-5-113 phosphate (Ru5P) metabolism in the pentose 114 phosphate (PP) pathway. Expression of rubisco (H. 115 neapolitanus cbbLS) and phosphoribulokinase (S. 116 elongatus PCC7942 prk) on the p1A plasmid (B) 117 permits Ru5P metabolism, thus enabling growth on 118 M9 glycerol media in 10% CO_2 (C). Mutating the 119 rubisco active site (p1A cbbL⁻) abrogates growth, as 120 does mutating ATP-binding residues of prk (p1A 121 prk). (D) CCMB1:p1A grows well under 10% CO₂, 122 but fails to grow in ambient air. Cells grown on M9 123 glycerol media throughout. The algorithmic design 124 of CCMB1 is described in figure supplement 1 and 125 the mechanism of rubisco-dependence is 126 diagrammed in figure supplement 2. Figure 127 supplement 3 shows CCMB1:p1A growth 128 phenotypes on various media and figure 129 supplement 4 demonstrates that rubisco 130 is not required for growth oxygenation by 131 demonstrating growth in the absence of O₂. 132 Acronyms: ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP), 3-133 phosphoglycerate (3PG).

RNA PP pathway glycerol ► GA +prk gluconeogenesis Ru5P-→RuBP gylcolysis CO 3PG В rubisco large & small subunits phosphoribulokinase cbbL cbbS prk p1A wild type С D CCMB1:p1A ambient WT:vec CCMB1: p1A cbbL CCMB1:vec 10% CO₂ CCMB1: p1A prk

10⁻¹ 10⁻²

Carboxylation-dependent E. coli

DNA &

10⁻³ 10⁻⁴ 10⁻⁵

CCMB1 Strain

134 Results

135 As E. coli is a heterotroph, consuming organic carbon molecules to produce energy and biomass, 136 it does not natively rely on rubisco. Therefore, in order to evaluate the effect of heterologous CCM 137 expression, we first designed an *E. coli* strain that depends on rubisco carboxylation for growth. 138 To grow on glycerol as the sole carbon source, *E. coli* must synthesize ribose 5-phosphate (Ri5P) 139 for nucleic acids. Synthesis of Ri5P via the pentose phosphate pathway forces co-production of 140 ribulose 5-phosphate (Ru5P). Deletion of ribose 5-phosphate isomerase (rpiAB genes, denoted 141 Δrpi), however, makes Ru5P a metabolic "dead-end" (Figure 2A). Expression of 142 phosphoribulokinase (prk) and rubisco creates a "detour" pathway converting Ru5P and CO₂ into

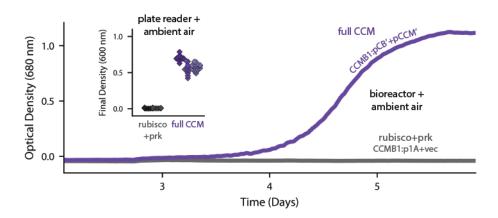
2Seu

two units of the central metabolite 3-phosphoglycerate (3PG), enabling Ru5P metabolism and growth (Figure 2A). Additionally, cytosolic carbonic anhydrase activity is incompatible with the bacterial CCM (Price and Badger, 1989b). We therefore constructed a strain, named CCMB1 for "CCM Background 1", lacking *rpiAB* and all endogenous carbonic anhydrases (Methods).

147

As predicted, CCMB1 required rubisco and prk for growth on glycerol minimal media in 10% CO₂ (Figures 2B-C). When expressing rubisco and *prk* on the p1A plasmid (Figure 2B), CCMB1 also grew reproducibly in an anoxic mix of 10:90 CO₂:N₂ (Figure 2 - figure supplement 4) implying that rubisco carboxylation is sufficient for growth on glycerol media and rubisco-catalyzed oxygenation of RuBP is not required. CCMB1:p1A failed to grow on glycerol media in ambient air, however, presumably due to insufficient carboxylation at low CO₂ (Figure 2D). That is, CCMB1:p1A displays the "high-CO₂ requiring" phenotype that is the hallmark of CCM mutants (Marcus et al., 1986;

- 155 Price and Badger, 1989a).
- 156



157

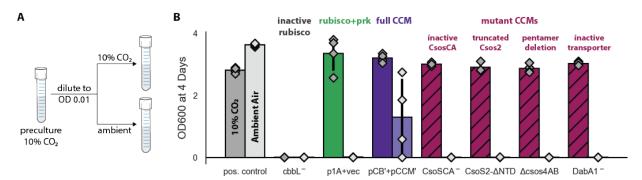
158 Figure 3. Expression of 20 CCM genes permits growth of CCMB1 in ambient air. Time course data give 159 representative growth curves from a bioreactor bubbling ambient air. CCMB1:pCB' + pCCM' grows well (purple, "full 160 CCM"), while rubisco and prk alone are insufficient for growth in ambient air (grey, CCMB1:p1A+vec). Inset: a plate 161 reader experiment in biological triplicate (different shades) gave the same result. Expressing the full complement of 162 CCM genes led to an increase in culture density (optical density at 600 nm) of ≈0.6 units after 80 hours of cultivation. 163 Bootstrapping was used to calculate a 99.9% confidence interval of 0.56-0.64 OD units for the effect of expressing the 164 full CCM during growth in ambient air. Figure supplement 1 shows triplicate growth curves and evaluates statistical 165 significance.

166

167 We expected that expressing a functional CO₂-concentrating mechanism would cure CCMB1 of 168 its high-CO₂ requirement and permit growth in ambient air. We therefore generated two plasmids, 169 pCB and pCCM, that together express all 20 genes from the H. neapolitanus CCM cluster (Figure 170 1C). pCB encodes ten carboxysome genes (Bonacci et al., 2012), including rubisco large and 171 small subunits, along with prk. The remaining H. neapolitanus genes, including putative rubisco 172 chaperones (Aigner et al., 2017; Mueller-Cajar, 2017; Wheatley et al., 2014) and an inorganic 173 carbon transporter (Desmarais et al., 2019; Scott et al., 2019), were cloned into the second 174 plasmid, pCCM. 175

176 CCMB1 co-transformed with pCB and pCCM initially failed to grow on glycerol media in ambient 177 air. We therefore conducted selection experiments, described fully in Figure S5, that resulted in

178 the isolation of mutant plasmids conferring growth in ambient air. Briefly, CCMB1:pCB + pCCM 179 cultures were grown to saturation in 10% CO₂. These cultures were washed and plated on glycerol 180 minimal media (Methods). Colonies became visible after 20 days of incubation in ambient air 181 (Figure S5). Deep-sequencing of plasmid DNA revealed mutations in regulatory sequences (e.g. 182 a promoter and transcriptional repressor) but none in sequences coding for CCM components 183 (Table S4). Individual post-selection plasmids pCB' and pCCM' were reconstructed by PCR. 184 resequenced, and transformed into naive CCMB1 (Methods). As shown in Figure 3, pCB' and 185 pCCM' together enabled reproducible growth of CCMB1 in ambient air, suggesting that the 20 186 genes expressed are sufficient to produce a heterologous CCM without any genomic mutations. 187





189 Figure 4. Growth in ambient air depends on the known components of the bacterial CCM. We generated plasmid 190 variants carrying inactivating mutations to known components of the CCM. (A) Pre-cultures were grown in 10% CO₂ 191 and diluted into two tubes, one of which was cultured in 10% CO2 and the other in ambient air (Methods). Strains were 192 tested in biological quadruplicate and culture density was measured after four days. (B) Targeted mutations to CCM 193 components ablated growth in ambient air while permitting growth in 10% CO₂, as expected. The left bar (darker color) 194 gives the mean endpoint density in 10% CO₂ for each strain. The right bar (lighter color) gives the mean in ambient air. 195 Error bars give the standard deviation. From left to right: a positive control (grey) grew in 10% CO₂ and ambient air, 196 while a negative control CCMB1 strain carrying catalytically inactive rubisco (CCMB1:pCB' cbbL⁻⁺pCCM') failed to grow 197 in either condition; CCMB1 expressing rubisco and prk but no CCM genes (green, CCMB1:p1A+vec) grew only in 10% 198 CO₂: CCMB1:pCB'+pCCM' grew in 10% CO₂ and ambient air, recapitulating results presented in Figure 3. The following 199 four pairs of maroon bars give growth data for strains carrying targeted mutations to CCM genes: an inactivating 200 mutation to carboxysomal carbonic anhydrase (CCMB1:pCB' CsoSCA+pCCM'), deletion of the CsoS2 N-terminus 201 responsible for recruiting rubisco to the carboxysome (CCMB1:pCB' CsoS2 ΔNTD +pCCM'), deletion of pentameric 202 vertex proteins (CCMB1:pCB' AcsoS4AB + pCCM'), and inactivating mutations to the DAB carbon uptake system 203 (CCMB1:pCB' DabA1⁻ + pCCM'). All four CCM mutations abrogated growth in air while permitting growth in 10% CO₂. 204 The positive control is the CAfree strain expressing human carbonic anhydrase II (Methods). Figure supplement 1 205 describes additional controls, statistical analyses, and a longer timescale replicate experiment (12 days) that 206 additionally tests the contribution of rubisco chaperones to the CCM. Detailed description of all plasmid and mutation 207 abbreviations is given in Table S2.

208

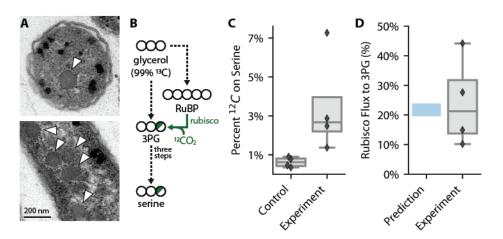
209 To verify that growth in ambient air depends on the CCM, we generated plasmids carrying 210 targeted mutations to known CCM components (Figure 4). An inactivating mutation to the 211 carboxysomal rubisco (CbbL K194M) prohibited growth entirely. Mutations targeting the CCM, 212 rather than rubisco itself, should ablate growth in ambient air while permitting growth in high CO₂ 213 (Desmarais et al., 2019; Mangan et al., 2016; Marcus et al., 1986; Price and Badger, 1989a; Rae 214 et al., 2013). Consistent with this understanding, an inactive mutant of the carboxysomal carbonic 215 anhydrase (CsoSCA C173S) required high-CO₂ for growth. Similarly, disruption of carboxysome 216 formation by removal of the pentameric shell proteins or the N-terminal domain of CsoS2 also

217 eliminated growth in ambient air. Removing the pentameric proteins CsoS4AB disrupts the 218 permeability barrier at the carboxysome shell (Cai et al., 2009), while truncating CsoS2 prohibits 219 carboxysome formation entirely (Oltrogge et al., 2020). Finally, an inactivating mutation to the 220 inorganic carbon transporter also eliminated growth in ambient air (Desmarais et al., 2019).

221

222 These experiments demonstrate that pCB' and pCCM' enable CCMB1 to grow in ambient air in a 223 manner that depends on the known components of the bacterial CCM. To confirm that these cells 224 produce carboxysome structures, we performed thin section electron microscopy. Regular 225 polyhedral inclusions of ≈ 100 nm diameter were visible in micrographs (Figure 5A), implying 226 production of morphologically-normal carboxysomes.

227



228 229

Figure 5. CCMB1:pCB'+pCCM' produces morphologically normal carboxysomes and fixes CO₂ from ambient 230 air into biomass. (A) Polyhedral bodies resembling carboxysomes are evident in electron micrographs of 231 CCMB1:pCB'+pCCM' cells grown in air. Figure supplement 1 shows images of control strains. (B) Biological replicate 232 cultures were grown in ambient air with 99% ¹³C glycerol as the sole organic carbon source so that ¹²CO₂ in air is the 233 sole source of ¹²C. As serine is a direct metabolic product of 3PG, we expect ¹²C enrichment on serine when rubisco 234 is active. 3PG also derives from glycolytic metabolism of glycerol, so complete ¹²C labeling of serine was not expected. 235 (C) The ¹²C composition of serine from CCMB1:pCB' + pCCM' ("Experiment") is roughly threefold above the control. 236 Figure supplement 2 gives ¹²C composition of all measured amino acids. (D) The fraction of 3PG production flux due 237 to rubisco was predicted via Flux Balance Analysis and estimated from isotopic labeling data (Methods). Estimates of 238 the rubisco flux fraction exceed 10% for all four biological replicates and the mean estimate accords well with a ≈20% 239 prediction. Figure supplement 3 details the flux calculation procedure. 240

241 We next conducted isotopic labeling experiments to determine whether CCMB1:pCB' + pCCM' 242 fixes CO₂ from ambient air into biomass. Cells were grown in minimal media with ¹³C-labeled 243 glycerol as the sole organic carbon source, such that CO₂ from ambient air was the dominant 244 source of ¹²C. The isotopic composition of amino acids in total biomass hydrolysate was analyzed 245 via mass spectrometry (Methods). Serine is a useful sentinel of rubisco activity because E. coli 246 produces serine from the rubisco product 3PG (Stauffer, 2004; Szyperski, 1995). 3PG is also an 247 intermediate of lower glycolysis (Bar-Even et al., 2012), and so the degree of ¹²C labeling on serine reports on the balance of fluxes through rubisco and lower glycolysis (Figure 5B). We 248 therefore expected excess ¹²C labeling of serine when rubisco is active. Consistent with this 249 250 expectation, serine from CCMB1:pCB'+pCCM' cells contained roughly threefold more ¹²C than 251 the rubisco-independent control (Figure 5C). We estimated the contribution of rubisco to 3PG

synthesis *in vivo* by comparing labeling patterns between the rubisco-dependent experimental
 cultures and controls (Methods). Based on these estimates, rubisco carboxylation was
 responsible for at least 10% of 3PG synthesis in all four biological replicates (Figure 5D, Methods),
 confirming fixation of CO₂ from ambient air. As such, this work represents the first functional
 reconstitution of any CCM.

257

258 Reconstitution in E. coli enabled us to investigate which H. neapolitanus genes are necessary for 259 CCM function in the absence of any regulation or genetic redundancy (i.e. genes with overlapping 260 function) present in the native host. We focused on genes involved in rubisco proteostasis and 261 generated plasmids lacking acRAF, a putative rubisco chaperone, or carrying targeted mutations 262 to CbbQ, an ATPase involved in activating rubisco catalysis (Aigner et al., 2017; Mueller-Cajar, 263 2017; Wheatley et al., 2014). Although acRAF deletion had a large negative effect in H. 264 neapolitanus (Desmarais et al., 2019), neither acRAF nor CbbQ were strictly required for CCMB1 265 to grow in ambient air. Consistent with our screen in the native host (Desmarais et al., 2019), 266 however, acRAF deletion produced a substantial growth defect (Figure 4 - figure supplement 1, 267 panel C), suggesting that the rate of rubisco complex assembly is an important determinant of 268 carboxysome biogenesis.

269 Discussion

Today, CCMs catalyze about half of global photosynthesis (Raven et al., 2017), but this was not
always so. Land plant CCMs, for example, arose only in the last 100 million years (Flamholz and
Shih, 2020; Raven et al., 2017; Sage et al., 2012). Though all contemporary Cyanobacteria have
CCM genes, these CCMs are found in two convergently-evolved varieties (Flamholz and Shih,
2020; Kerfeld and Melnicki, 2016; Rae et al., 2013), suggesting that the ancestor of present-day
Cyanobacteria and chloroplasts did not have a CCM (Rae et al., 2013). So how did carboxysome
CCMs come to dominate the cyanobacterial phylum?

277

278 Here we demonstrated that the a-carboxysome CCM from H. neapolitanus is readily transferred 279 between species and confers a large growth benefit, which can explain how these CCMs became 280 so widespread among bacteria (Kerfeld and Melnicki, 2016; Rae et al., 2013). We constructed a 281 CCM by expressing 20 genes in an engineered E. coli strain, CCMB1. In accordance with its role 282 in native autotrophic hosts (Desmarais et al., 2019; Long et al., 2018; Marcus et al., 1986; Price 283 and Badger, 1989a), the transplanted CCM required a-carboxysomes and inorganic carbon 284 uptake to enable CCMB1 to grow by fixing CO₂ from ambient air (Figures 3-5, S6-8). These results 285 conclusively demonstrate that at most 20 gene products are required to produce a bacterial CCM. 286 The a-carboxysome CCM is apparently genetically compact and "portable" between organisms. 287 It is possible, therefore, that expressing bacterial CCMs in non-native autotrophic hosts will 288 improve CO₂ assimilation and growth. This is a promising approach to improving plant growth 289 characteristics (Ermakova et al., 2020; Long et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2019) and also engineering 290 enhanced microbial production of fuel, food products and commodity chemicals from CO₂ 291 (Claassens et al., 2016; Gleizer et al., 2019). 292

293 Reconstitution also enabled us to test, via simple genetic experiments, whether particular genes 294 play a role in the CCM (Figure 4 - figure supplement 1). These experiments demonstrated that 295 the rubisco chaperones are strictly dispensable for producing a functional bacterial CCM, though 296 removing the acRAF gene produced a substantial growth defect that warrants further 297 investigation. Further such can use our reconstituted CCM to delineate a minimal reconstitution 298 of the bacterial CCM suitable for plant expression (Du et al., 2014; Long et al., 2018, 2016; 299 Occhialini et al., 2016: Orr et al., 2020), test hypotheses about carboxysome biogenesis (Bonacci 300 et al., 2012; Oltrogge et al., 2020), and probe the relationship between CCMs and host physiology 301 (Mangan et al., 2016; Price and Badger, 1989b).

302

303 Our approach to studying CCMs by reconstitution in tractable non-native hosts can be applied to 304 other CCMs, including β -carboxysome CCMs, the algal pyrenoid, and plausible evolutionary 305 ancestors thereof (Flamholz and Shih, 2020). Historical trends in atmospheric CO₂ likely promoted 306 the evolution of CCMs (Fischer et al., 2016; Flamholz and Shih, 2020), so testing the growth of 307 plausible ancestors of bacterial CCMs (e.g. carboxysomes lacking carbonic anhydrase activity) 308 may provide insight into paths of CCM evolution and the composition of the ancient atmosphere 309 at the time bacterial CCMs arose. In response to these same pressures, diverse eukaryotic algae 310 evolved CCMs relying on micron-sized rubisco aggregates called the pyrenoids (Flamholz and 311 Shih, 2020; Wang and Jonikas, 2020). Pyrenoid CCMs are collectively responsible for perhaps 312 80% of oceanic photosynthesis (Mackinder et al., 2016), yet many fundamental questions remain 313 regarding the composition and operation of algal CCMs (Wang and Jonikas, 2020). Functional 314 reconstitution of a pyrenoid CCM is a worthy goal which, once achieved, will indicate enormous 315 progress in our collective understanding of the genetics, cell biology, biochemistry and physical 316 processes supporting the eukaryotic complement of oceanic photosynthesis. We hope such 317 studies will further our principled understanding of, and capacity to engineer, the cell biology 318 supporting CO₂ fixation in diverse organisms. 319

321 Materials and Methods

322 Growth conditions

323 Unless otherwise noted, cells were grown on M9 minimal media supplemented with 0.4% w/v 324 glycerol, 0.5 ppm thiamin (10⁴ dilution of 0.5% w/v stock) and a trace element mix. The trace element mix components and their final concentrations in M9 media are: 50 mg/L EDTA, 31 mM 325 326 FeCl₃, 6.2 mM ZnCl₂, 0.76 mM CuSO₄·5H₂O, 0.42 mM CoCl₂·6H₂O, 1.62 mM H₃BO₃, 81 nM 327 MnCl₂·4H₂O. 100 nM anhydrotetracycline (aTc) was used in induced cultures. For routine cloning, 328 25 mg/L chloramphenicol and 60 mg/L kanamycin selection were used as appropriate. Antibiotics 329 were reduced to half concentration (12.5 and 30 mg/L, respectively) for CCMB1 growth 330 experiments and kanamycin was omitted when evaluating rubisco-dependence of growth as pF 331 plasmids carrying kanamycin resistance also express rubisco. Culture densities were measured 332 at 600 nm in a table top spectrophotometer (Genesys 20, Thermo Scientific) and turbid cultures 333 were measured in five or tenfold dilution as appropriate in order to reach the linear regime of the 334 spectrophotometer.

335

Agar plates were incubated at 37 °C in defined CO_2 pressures in a CO_2 controlled incubator (S41i, New Brunswick). For experiments in which a frozen bacterial stock was used to inoculate the culture, cells were first streaked on agar plates and incubated at 10% CO_2 to facilitate fast growth. Pre-cultures derived from colonies were grown in 2-5 mL liquid M9 glycerol media under 10% CO_2 with a matching 1 mL control in ambient air. Negative control strains unable to grow in minimal media (i.e. active site mutants of rubisco) were streaked on and pre-cultured in LB media under 10% CO_2 .

343

344 Growth curves were obtained using two complementary methods: an 8-chamber bioreactor for 345 large-volume cultivation (MC1000, PSI), and 96-well plates in a gas controlled plate reader plate 346 (Spark, Tecan). For the 96-well format, cells were pre-cultured in the appropriate permissive 347 media, M9 glycerol under 10% CO₂ where possible. If rich media was used, e.g. for negative 348 controls, stationary phase cells were washed in 2x the culture volume and resuspended in 1x 349 culture volume of M9 with no carbon source. Cultures were diluted to an OD of 1.0 (600 nm) and 350 250 µl cultures were inoculated by adding 5 µl of cells to 245 µl media. A humidity cassette 351 (Tecan) was refilled daily with distilled water to mitigate evaporation during multi-day cultivation 352 at 37 °C. Evaporation nonetheless produced irregular growth curves (e.g. Figure 2 - figure 353 supplement 3), which motivated larger volume cultivation in the bioreactor, which mixes by 354 bubbling ambient air into each growth vessel. 80 ml bioreactor cultures were inoculated to a 355 starting OD of 0.005 (600 nm) and grown at 37 °C to saturation. Optical density was monitored 356 continuously at 680 nm.

357

358 Anaerobic cultivation of agar plates was accomplished using a BBL GasPak 150 jar (BD) flushed

- 359 6 times with an anoxic mix of 10% CO₂ and 90% N₂. Tenfold titers of biological duplicate cultures
- were plated on M9 glycerol media with and without 20 mM NaNO₃ supplementation. Because *E*.
- 361 *coli* cannot ferment glycerol, NO₃⁻ was supplied as an alternative electron acceptor. Plates without

 NO_3^- showed no growth (Figure 2 - figure supplement 4), confirming the presence of an anaerobic atmosphere in the GasPak.

364 Computational design of rubisco-dependent strains

365 To computationally design mutant strains in which growth is coupled to rubisco carboxylation flux, 366 we used a variant of Flux Balance Analysis (Lewis et al., 2012) called "OptSlope" (Antonovsky et 367 al., 2016). Starting from a published model of E. coli central metabolism, the Core Escherichia 368 coli Metabolic Model (Orth et al., 2010), we considered all pairs of central metabolic knockouts 369 and ignored those that permit growth in silico in the absence of rubisco and phosphoribulokinase 370 (Prk) activities. For the remaining knockouts, we evaluated the degree of coupling between 371 rubisco flux and biomass production during growth in nine carbon sources: glucose, fructose, 372 gluconate, ribose, succinate, xylose, glycerate, acetate and glycerol. This approach highlighted 373 several candidate rubisco-dependent knockout strains, including *ArpiAB Aedd*. OptSlope 374 predicted rubisco-dependent growth of $\Delta rpiAB \Delta edd$ strains on glucose, fructose, succinate, 375 acetate, glycerate, xylose and gluconate. The OptSlope algorithm is outlined in Figure 2 - figure 376 supplement 1 and described fully in (Antonovsky et al., 2016). Proposed mechanisms of rubisco-377 dependence are outlined in Figure 2 - figure supplement 2. OptSlope source code is available at 378 https://gitlab.com/elad.noor/optslope and calculations specific to CCMB1 can be found at 379 https://github.com/flamholz/carboxecoli.

380 Genomic modifications producing the CCMB1 strain

381 Strains used in this study are documented in Table S1. To produce CCMB1, we first constructed 382 a strain termed " $\Delta rpiAB$ " for short. This strain has the genotype $\Delta rpiAB \Delta edd$ and was constructed 383 in the E. coli BW25113 background by repeated rounds of P1 transduction from the KEIO 384 collection followed by pCP20 curing of the kanamaycin selection marker (Baba et al., 2006; 385 Datsenko and Wanner, 2000). Deletion of edd removes the Entner-Doudoroff pathway (Peekhaus 386 and Conway, 1998), forcing rubisco-dependent metabolism of gluconate via the pentose 387 phosphate pathway (Figure 2 - figure supplement 2). CCMB1 has the genotype BW25113 [ArpiAB] 388 $\Delta edd \Delta cynT \Delta can$ and was constructed from $\Delta rpiAB$ by deleting both native carbonic anhydrases 389 using the same methods, first transducing the KEIO $\Delta cynT$ and then Δcan from EDCM636 (Merlin 390 and Masters, 2003), which was obtained from the Yale Coli Genetic Stock Center. Transformation 391 was performed by electroporation (ECM 630, Harvard Biosciences) and electrocompetent stocks 392 were prepared using standard protocols. Strain genotypes were verified by PCR, as described 393 below.

394

Plants, cyanobacteria and other autotrophs uniformly express "photorespiratory" pathways to process the rubisco oxygenation product 2-phosphoglycolate, or 2PG (Eisenhut et al., 2008). The *E. coli* genome encodes enzymes that could plausibly serve as a photorespiratory pathway (Figure 2 - figure supplement 2). We attempted to delete the *gph* gene in CCMB1 as it encodes the 2PG phosphatase that catalyzes the first step of this putative pathway. However, the *Agph* knockout was challenging to transform by electroporation, consistent with a proposed role in DNA repair (Pellicer et al., 2003). We reasoned that photorespiration might be required in CCMB1, as

402 photorespiratory genes are essential in cyanobacteria (Eisenhut et al., 2008) and 403 chemolithoautotrophic bacteria (Desmarais et al., 2019) even though both employ CCMs.

404 Recombinant expression of rubisco, prk, and CCM components

405 pFE21 and pFA31 are compatible vectors derived from pZE21 and pZA31 (Lutz and Bujard, 406 1997). These vectors use an anhydrotetracycline (aTc) inducible P_{LtetO-1} promoter to regulate gene 407 expression. pF plasmids were modified from parent vectors to constitutively express the tet 408 repressor (TetR) under the P_{bla} promoter so that expression is repressed by default (Liang et al., 1999). We found that an inducible system aids in cloning problematic genes like prk (Wilson et 409 410 al., 2018). We refer to these vectors as pFE and pFA respectively. The p1A plasmid (Figure 2A) 411 derives from pFE and expresses two additional genes: the Form IA rubisco from H. neapolitanus 412 and a prk gene from Synechococcus elongatus PCC 7942. The pCB plasmid is properly called 413 pFE-CB, while pCCM is pFA-CCM. The two CCM plasmids are diagrammed in Figure 3 - figure 414 supplement 1. Cloning was performed by Gibson and Golden-Gate approaches as appropriate. 415 Large plasmids (e.g. pCB, pCCM) were verified by Illumina resequencing (Harvard MGH DNA 416 Core plasmid sequencing service) and maps were updated manually after reviewing results 417 compiled by breseq resequencing software (Deatherage and Barrick, 2014). Plasmids used in 418 S2 this study are described in Table and available on Addgene at 419 https://www.addgene.org/David Savage/.

Verifying the dependence of CCMB1 on rubisco carboxylation

421 To verify the dependence of CCMB1 on rubisco and Prk activities in minimal media, we 422 constructed the variants of p1A carrying inactive rubisco or prk genes. Rubisco was inactivated 423 by mutating the large subunit active site lysine to methionine, producing p1A CbbL K194M, or 424 p1A CbbL⁻ for short (Andersson et al., 1989; Cleland et al., 1998). Prk was inactivated by mutating 425 ATP-binding residues in the Walker A motif, producing p1A Prk K20M S21A, termed p1A Prk⁻ for 426 short (Cai et al., 2014; Higgins et al., 1986). CCMB1:p1A grew on glycerol and gluconate minimal 427 media when provided 10% CO₂ (Figure 2 - figure supplement 3). CCMB1:p1A CbbL⁻ and 428 CCMB1:p1A Prk⁻ both failed to grow on minimal media supplemented with glycerol or gluconate. 429 demonstrating a dependence on both enzymes. So long as high CO₂ was provided, neither 430 activity was required for growth in rich LB media, which contains abundant nucleic acids 431 precursors (Sezonov et al., 2007). Xylose minimal media was also tested but growth was 432 impractically slow (data not shown).

433

The high-CO₂ requirement of CCMB1:p1A growth was expected for two reasons: (i) bacterial rubiscos typically display low net carboxylation rates in ambient air due to relatively low CO₂ (\approx 0.04%) and relatively high O₂ (\approx 21%), as shown in Figure 1B and discussed in (Flamholz et al., 2019; Iñiguez et al., 2020), and (ii) CCMB1 entirely lacks carbonic anhydrase activity ($\Delta cynT$ 438 Δcan). Carbonic anhydrase knockouts of many microbes, including *E. coli* and *S. cerevisiae*, are 439 high-CO₂ requiring, likely due to cellular demand for HCO₃⁻ (Aguilera et al., 2005; Desmarais et 440 al., 2019; Du et al., 2014; Merlin and Masters, 2003).

441

442 To verify that CCMB1 growth depends specifically on rubisco carboxylation and not oxygenation, 443 we grew CCMB1:p1A on glycerol minimal medium in anoxic high-CO₂ conditions (10:90 CO₂:N₂, 444 Figure 2 - figure supplement 4). E. coli predominantly respires glycerol and, therefore, grows 445 extremely slowly on glycerol in anaerobic and low O_2 conditions (Stolper et al., 2010). We 446 therefore supplied 20 mM NO₃⁻ as an alternate terminal electron acceptor (Unden and Dünnwald, 447 2008) in anaerobic growth conditions (see "Growth conditions"). CCMB1:p1A grew on glycerol 448 media in anaerobic conditions when NO_3^- was provided. Growth is qualitatively weaker than a 449 wild-type control, but this is consistent with the growth differences observed in aerobic conditions 450 (Figure 2 - figure supplement 4). Anaerobic growth of CCMB1:p1A on glycerol minimal media 451 implies that growth can be supported by rubisco carboxylation alone and does not require the 452 rubisco-catalyzed oxygenation of RuBP.

453 Strain verification by PCR and phenotypic testing

As CCMB1 is a relatively slow-growing knockout strain, we occasionally observed contaminants in growth experiments. We used two strategies to detect contamination by faster-growing organisms (e.g. wild-type *E. coli*). As most strains grew poorly or not at all in ambient air, precultures grown in 10% CO₂ were accompanied by a matching 1 mL negative control in ambient air. Pre-cultures showing growth in the negative control were discarded or verified by PCR genotyping in cases where air-growth was plausible.

460

461 PCR genotyping was performed using primer sets documented in Table S3. Three primer pairs 462 were used to probe a control locus (*zwf*) and two target loci (*cvnT* and *rpiA*). The *zwf* locus is 463 intact in all strains. cynT and rpiA probes test for the presence of the CCMB1 strain (genotype 464 BW25113 $\Delta rpiAB \Delta edd \Delta cynT \Delta can$). Notably, the CAfree strain (BW25113 $\Delta cynT \Delta can$) that we 465 previously used to test the activity of DAB-type transporters (Desmarais et al., 2019) is a cynT 466 knockout but has a wild-type rpiA locus, so this primer set can distinguish between wild-type, 467 CAfree and CCMB1. This was useful for some experiments where CAfree was used as a control 468 (e.g. Figures S7-8). Pooled colony PCRs were performed using Q5 polymerase (NEB), annealing 469 at 65 °C and with a 50 second extension time.

470 Selection for growth in novel conditions

471 CCMB1:pCB did not initially grow in glycerol minimal media, which was unexpected because pCB 472 carries rubisco and prk genes. We therefore performed a series of selection experiments (Herz 473 et al., 2017) to isolate plasmids conferring growth at elevated CO_2 and then in ambient air. We 474 first describe the methodology; the full series of experiments is diagrammed fully in Figure S5B 475 and described in paragraphs below. CCMB1 cultures carrying appropriate plasmids were first 476 grown to saturation in rich LB media in a 10% CO₂ incubator. Stationary phase cultures were 477 pelleted by centrifugation for 10 min at 4,000 x g, washed in 2x the culture volume, and 478 resuspended in 1x culture volume of M9 media with no carbon source. After resuspension, 479 multiple dilutions were plated on selective media (e.g. M9 glycerol media) and incubated in the 480 desired conditions (e.g. in ambient air) with a positive control in 10% CO₂ on appropriate media.

In later experiments, matching tenfold titers were plated in permissive conditions (e.g. in 10% CO₂) to estimate the number of viable cells. When colonies formed in restrictive conditions, they were picked into permissive media, grown to saturation, washed and tested for re-growth in restrictive conditions by titer plating or streaking. Plasmid DNA was isolated from verified colonies and transformed into naive CCMB1 cells to test whether plasmid mutations confer improved growth (i.e. in the absence of genomic mutations).

487

488 We first selected for CCMB1:pCB growth on M9 glycerol media in 10% CO₂ and then in M9 489 gluconate media under 10% CO₂. Pre-cultures to stationary phase in rich media in 10% CO₂, and 490 then plated on selective media after washing. The resulting plasmid, pCB-gg for "gluconate 491 grower," was isolated and deep sequenced (Harvard MGH DNA Core plasmid sequencing 492 service). Plasmid maps were updated manually after running the breseq resequencing software 493 (Deatherage and Barrick, 2014). pCB-gg was found to carry two regulatory mutations: an amino 494 acid substitution to the tet repressor (TetR E37A) and a nucleotide substitution in the Tet operator 495 regulating the carboxysome operon (tetO₂ +8T. Table S4).

496

Following this first round of selection, CCMB1 was co-transformed with pCB-gg and pCCM. The transformants grew in M9 glycerol media in 10% CO₂ but failed to grow on in ambient air. We therefore performed another selection experiment, plating CCMB1:pCB-gg+pCCM on M9 glycerol media in ambient CO₂. Parallel negative control selections were conducted on uninduced plates (no aTc) and using CCMB1:p1A+pCCM, which lacks carboxysome genes. Colonies formed on induced CCMB1:pCB-gg+pCCM plates after 20 days, but not on control plates (Figure S5F).

504 Forty colonies were picked and tested for re-growth in ambient CO₂ by tenfold titer plating. 10 of 505 40 regrew (six examples are shown in Figure S5G). Pooled plasmid DNA was extracted from 506 verified colonies and electroporated into naive CCMB1 to test plasmid-linkage of growth. We 507 found that plasmid DNA from colony #4 produced the most robust growth in ambient air. This was 508 tested by picking 16 re-transformants and testing their growth in ambient air in liquid M9 glycerol 509 media. Re-transformant #13 regrew robustly in all 6 technical replicates. Pooled plasmid DNA 510 from colony #4 re-transformant #13 was resequenced by a combination deep sequencing (as 511 above) and targeted Sanger sequencing of the TetR locus and origins of replication, as these 512 regions share sequence between both parent plasmids. pCB carried the same mutations as pCB-513 gg and pCCM had acquired the high-copy CoIE1 origin of replication from pCB (Table S4). The 514 individual mutant plasmids, termed pCB' and pCCM', were reconstructed from pooled plasmid 515 extract by PCR and Gibson cloning.

516

517 These post-selection plasmids, termed pCB' and pCCM', were again verified by resequencing. 518 Naive CCMB1 was transformed with the reconstructed post-selection plasmids pCB' and pCCM' 519 and tested for growth in ambient air. We found that the post-selection plasmids confer 520 reproducible growth in ambient air in multiple growth conditions (Figure 3), implying that genomic 521 mutations that formed during selections were not required to produce growth in ambient air.

522 Design of mutant CCM plasmids

523 To verify that air-growth depends on the known components of the CCM, we generated variants 524 of pCB' and pCCM' carrying known, targeted null mutations to the CCM. CCMB1 was co-525 transformed with two plasmids: a mutant plasmid (of either pCB' or pCCM') and its cognate, 526 unmodified plasmid. Mutant plasmids are listed here along with expected growth phenotypes, with 527 fuller detail in Table S2. pCB' CbbL K194M, or pCB'⁻, contains an inactivating mutation to the 528 large subunit of the carboxysomal Form 1A rubisco (Andersson et al., 1989; Cleland et al., 1998). 529 This mutation was expected to abrogate rubisco-dependent growth entirely.

530

531 Mutations targeting the CCM, rather than rubisco itself, are expected to ablate growth in ambient 532 air but permit growth in high CO₂. The following plasmid mutations were designed to specifically 533 target essential components of the CCM. pCB' CsoSCA C173S, or pCB' CsoSCA, carries a 534 mutation to an active site cysteine residue responsible for coordinating the catalytic Zn2+ ion in 535 β-carbonic anhydrases (Sawaya et al., 2006). pCB' CsoS2 ΔNTD lacks the N-terminal domain of 536 CsoS2, which is responsible for recruiting rubisco to the carboxysome during the biogenesis of 537 the organelle (Oltrogge et al., 2020). Similarly, pCB' CbbL Y72R carries an arginine residue 538 instead of the tyrosine responsible for mediating cation- π interactions between the rubisco large 539 subunit and the N-termus of CsoS2. This mutation was shown to eliminate any binding interaction 540 between the rubisco complex and the N-termus of CsoS2 (Oltrogge et al., 2020). pCB' $\Delta csoS4AB$ 541 lacks both pentameric shell proteins, CsoS4AB, which was shown to disrupt the permeability 542 barrier at the carboxysome shell (Cai et al., 2009). pCCM' DabA1 C462A, D464A, or pCCM' 543 DabA1, carries inactivating mutations to the putative active site of the inorganic carbon 544 transporter component DabA1 (Desmarais et al., 2019).

545

546 Two more mutant plasmids were designed to test the roles of rubisco chaperones in producing a 547 functional CCM. pCCM' CbbQ K46A, E107Q, denoted pCCM' CbbQ⁻, carries mutations that 548 inactivate the ATPase activity of the CbbQ subunit of the CbbOQ rubisco activase complex (Tsai 549 et al., 2015). pCCM' ΔacRAF lacks the putative rubisco chaperone acRAF. acRAF is homologous 550 to a plant rubisco folding chaperone (Aigner et al., 2017) and likely involved in the folding of the 551 H. neapolitanus Form IA rubisco (Wheatley et al., 2014). Experimental evaluation of growth 552 phenotypes for the above-described mutants is detailed below and results are given in Figure 4 -553 figure supplement 1.

⁵⁵⁴ Phenotyping of matched cultures in 10% CO₂ and ambient air

555 To interrogate the phenotypic effects of mutations to the CCM, we tested the growth of matched biological replicate cultures of CCM mutants (e.g. disruption of carboxysome components or 556 557 transporter function) in M9 glycerol medium in 10% CO₂ and ambient air (Figure 4A). For these 558 experiments, individual colonies were picked into a round-bottom tube with 4 mL of M9 glycerol 559 media with full strength antibiotic and 100 nM aTc. 1 mL of culture was then transferred to a 560 second tube. The 3 mL pre-culture was incubated in 10% CO₂, while the 1 mL culture was 561 incubated in ambient air as a negative control. Control strains unable to grow in minimal media 562 (e.g. those expressing inactive rubisco mutants) were pre-cultured in LB media. High-CO₂ pre-

563 cultures were grown to saturation, after which optical density (OD600) was measured in five-fold 564 dilution.

565

566 Experimental cultures were inoculated with pre-culture to a starting OD600 of 0.01 in 3 mL of M9 567 glycerol media with 12.5 mg/L chloramphenicol and 100 nM aTc. Each pre-culture was used to 568 inoculate a matched pair of experimental cultures, one incubated in 10% CO₂ and another in 569 ambient air, as diagrammed in Figure 4A. After a defined period of growth (4 days in Figure 4B 570 and 12 days in Figure 4 - figure supplement 1, panel C) all culture densities were measured at 571 600 nm. All experiments were performed in biological guadruplicate, i.e. using four independent 572 pre-cultures deriving from distinct colonies to inoculate four pairs of matched cultures. A positive 573 control was included in all experiments to test the media composition. We used a complemented 574 double carbonic anhydrase knockout (CAfree:pFE-sfGFP+pFA-HCAII) for this purpose as its 575 growth in air depends on the expression of the human carbonic anhydrase II from the pFA-HCAII 576 plasmid (Desmarais et al., 2019).

577 Electron microscopy

578 CCMB1:pCB'+pCCM' was grown in ambient air in 3 ml of M9 glycerol medium and induced with 579 100 nM aTc. A carboxysome-negative control, CAfree:pFE-sfGFP+pFA-HCAII, was grown in the 580 same conditions. Sample preparation and sectioning were performed by the University of 581 California Berkeley Electron Microscope Laboratory. Cell pellets were fixed for 30 min at room 582 temperature in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer pH 7.4. Fixed cells were stabilized 583 in 1% very low melting-point agarose and cut into small cubes. Cubed sample was then rinsed 584 three times at room temperature for 10 min in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer, pH 7.4 and then 585 immersed in 1% osmium tetroxide with 1.6% potassium ferricyanide in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer 586 for an hour in the dark on a rocker. Samples were later rinsed three times with a cacodylate buffer 587 and then subjected to an ascending series of acetone for 10 min each (35%, 50%, 75%, 80%, 588 90%, 100%, 100%). Samples were progressively infiltrated with Epon resin (EMS, Hatfield, PA, 589 USA) while rocking and later polymerized at 60 °C for 24 hours. 70 nm thin sections were cut 590 using an Ultracut E (Leica) and collected on 100 mesh formvar coated copper grids. The grids 591 were further stained for 5 min with 2% aqueous uranyl acetate and 4 min with Reynold's lead 592 citrate. The sections were imaged using a Tecnai 12 TEM at 120 KV (FEI) and images were 593 collected using UltraScan 1000 digital micrograph software (Gatan Inc.).

594 Sample preparation for LC-MS analysis

Protein-bound amino acids were analyzed in total biomass hydrolysate of 80 mL cultures grown 595 in minimal media with 99% ¹³C glycerol (Cambridge Isotopes) as the sole organic carbon source. 596 597 These cultures were grown in 80 mL volumes in a bioreactor pumping ambient air (MC1000, PSI). 598 After harvesting biomass, samples were prepared and analyzed as described in (Antonovsky et 599 al., 2016). Briefly, the OD600 was recorded and 0.6 OD x mL of sample were pelleted by 600 centrifugation for 15 min at 4,000 x g. The pellet was resuspended in 1 mL of 6 N HCl and 601 incubated for 24 hours at 110 °C. The acid was subsequently evaporated under a nitrogen stream 602 using a custom-built gas manifold (Nevins et al., 2005), resulting in a dry hydrolysate. Dry

603 hydrolysates were resuspended in 0.6 mL of MilliQ water, centrifuged for 5 min at 14,000 x g, and 604 supernatant was analyzed by liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS). Hydrolyzed 605 amino acids were separated using ultra performance liquid chromatography (UPLC, Acquity, 606 Waters) on a C-8 column (Zorbax Eclipse XBD, Agilent) at a flow rate of 0.6 mL/min, and eluted 607 off the column using a hydrophobicity gradient. Buffers used were: A) H2O + 0.1% formic acid 608 and B) acetonitrile + 0.1% formic acid with the following gradient: 100% of A (0-3 min), 100% A 609 to 100% B (3-9 min), 100% B (9-13 min), 100% B to 100% A (13-14 min), 100% A (14-20 min), 610 The UPLC was coupled online to a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (TQS, Waters). Data 611 were acquired using MassLynx v4.1 (Waters). Amino acids and metabolites used for analysis were selected according to the following criteria: amino acids that had peaks at a distinct retention 612 time and m/z values for all isotopologues and also showed correct ¹³C labeling fractions in control 613 614 samples that contained protein hydrolyzates of WT cells grown with known ratios of ¹³C6-glucose 615 to ¹²C-glucose.

616 Isotopic analysis composition of biomolecules

617 The total ¹³C fraction of each metabolite was determined as the weighted average of the fractions 618 of all the isotopologues for that metabolite:

$$f_{13_C} = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{N} f_i \times i}{N}$$

621

Here N is the number of carbons in the compound (e.g. N = 3 for serine) and f_i is the relative fraction of the i-th isotopologue, i.e containing *i* ¹³C carbon atoms. Each metabolite's total ¹²C fraction was calculated as $f_{12c} = 1 - f_{13c}$.

625 Estimating the effective intracellular ¹²CO₂ fraction

E. coli cells grown in ¹³C glycerol will simultaneously respire glycerol, producing intracellular 626 13 CO₂, and take up extracellular 12 CO₂ and H 12 CO₃. The isotopic composition of the intracellular 627 628 inorganic carbon (C_i) pool will therefore reflect the balance of uptake and respiration. As rubisco 629 carboxylation draws from the intracellular CO₂ pool, we must estimate the isotopic composition of 630 the C_i pool to evaluate the contribution of rubisco to metabolism. We used the carbamoyl-631 phosphate moiety as a marker for the isotopic distribution of the intracellular C_i pool, as described 632 in (Gleizer et al., 2019). Briefly, carbamoyl-phosphate is generated by phosphorylation of 633 bicarbonate, and is condensed with ornithine in the biosynthesis of L-arginine. We compared the 634 mass isotopologue distribution of L-arginine, which contains one carbon from carbamoyl-635 phosphate, with the mass isotopologue distribution of L-glutamate as L-glutamate is an ornithine 636 precursor.

637

638 We estimated the effective ¹³C labeling of intracellular inorganic carbon ($f_{13_{CO_2}, effective}$) as follows:

639
$$f_{13_{CO_2},effective} = \sum_{i=0}^{6} f_{arg,i} - \sum_{i=0}^{5} f_{glu,i}$$

640

Here $f_{13co_2,effective}$ is the relative fraction of ¹³CO₂ out of the total CO₂ pool (or, more formally, 641

the C_i), and f_{arg,i} and f_{glu,i} are the fraction of the i-th isotopologue of arginine and glutamate 642 643 respectively. We assumed fast equilibration of the intracellular C_i pool because the strains used

644 in labeling experiments express a carbonic anhydrase. An equivalent equation can be defined for

- 645 the arginine-proline comparison (Gleizer et al., 2019), however proline data were of insufficient quality to use and so we report inferences based on the arginine-glutamate comparison. The 646
- effective intracellular fraction of ¹²CO₂ was calculated as $f_{12_{CO_2},effective} = 1 f_{13_{CO_2},effective}$. 647

For brevity, we refer to these fractions as $f_{12_{CO_2}}$ and $f_{13_{CO_2}}$, respectively. 648

Estimating the rubisco carboxylation flux in vivo 649

When CCMB1 cells are grown on 99% ¹³C glycerol, 3-phosphoglycerate (3PG) can be produced 650 via two routes: (i) rubisco catalyzed carboxylation of RuBP and (ii) glycolytic metabolism of 651 652 glycerol via dihydroxyacetone phosphate, or DHAP (Booth, 2005). We denote these two fluxes as $J_{rubisco}$ and J_{pak} , where pgk (phosphoglycerate kinase) is the glycolytic enzyme producing 3PG 653 (Bar-Even et al., 2012). Serine is a direct metabolic product of 3PG (Stauffer, 2004; Szyperski, 654 1995) and was therefore assumed to have the same ¹²C composition as 3PG. Rubisco-catalyzed 655 carboxylation of RuBP adds one CO₂ to the 5-carbon substrate, producing two 3PG molecules 656 657 containing a total of six carbon atoms. Therefore, 1/6 of carbon atoms on 3PG produced via rubisco 658 carboxylation must derive from an inorganic source (Figure 5 - figure supplement 3). 659 Carboxylation draws CO₂ from the intracellular inorganic carbon pool, whose ¹²C composition 660 f_{12co_2} was inferred as described above.

661

Based on these assumptions, the ¹²C composition of 3PG, and therefore serine, equals a flux-662 weighted sum of contributions from rubisco and pgk. As such, the relative 3PG production flux 663 664 that is due to rubisco, $J_{rubisco}/(J_{rubisco}+J_{pqk})$, can be inferred via the following calculation:

665

666

$$f_{ser,ctrl} = f_{3PG,ctrl} = 0 \times \frac{1}{6} (f_{12_{CO_2}} + 5 \times f_{RuBP,exp}) + 1 \times f_{DHAP,ctrl} = f_{DHAP,ctrl}$$

$$I_{rubicco} = 1$$

$$I_{nak}$$

$$667 frac{f_{ser,exp} = f_{3PG,ctrl} = \frac{J_{rubisco}}{J_{rubisco} + J_{pgk}} \times \frac{1}{6}(f_{12_{CO_2}} + 5 \times f_{RuBP,exp}) + \frac{J_{pgk}}{J_{rubisco} + J_{pgk}} \times f_{DHAP,exp}$$

668

Where the first equation is written for the control and the second for experimental cultures where 669 rubisco is active (CCMB1:pCB'+pCCM'). $f_{ser.ctrl}$ and $f_{ser.exp}$ denote the ¹²C composition of serine 670 in the control and experiment respectively. Identical notation is used for RuBP and DHAP. As 671 672 there are only two routes of 3PG production, the above equations can be simplified to solve for 673 the relative flux through rubisco in vivo:

675
$$\frac{J_{pgk}}{J_{rubisco} + J_{pgk}} \equiv 1 - \frac{J_{rubisco}}{J_{rubisco} + J_{pgk}}$$

676
$$\frac{J_{rubisco}}{J_{rubisco} + J_{pgk}} = \frac{f_{ser,exp} - f_{DHAP,exp}}{\frac{1}{6}(f_{12_{CO_2}} + 5 \times f_{RUBP,exp}) - f_{DHAP,exp}}$$

677

678 To calculate the rubisco flux in vivo we must attach values to several parameters in the above equation. $f_{12_{CO_2}}$ was inferred on a per-sample basis, with the mean values being $25\% \pm 4\%$ and 679 $67\% \pm 28\%$ for the control and experiment respectively (Figure 5 - figure supplement 3, panel C). 680 681 Because glycerol is converted into 3PG and serine via DHAP in wild-type E. coli (Booth, 2005), we expect that $f_{ser,ctrl} = f_{DHAP,ctrl}$, as derived above. LC-MS measurements give $f_{ser,ctrl} =$ 682 $0.6\% \pm 0.2\%$ and $f_{ser,exp} = 3.5\% \pm 2.2\%$ (Figure 5C). Valine is also a metabolic product of DHAP 683 684 (Szyperski, 1995) and was found to have a similar ¹²C fraction $f_{val,ctrl} = 0.6\% \pm 0.1\%$ in control 685 cells (Figure 5 - figure supplement 2). Since glycerol is immediately converted to DHAP in E. coli, 686 we further assumed that $f_{DHAP,ctrl} = f_{DHAP,exp}$.

687

688 RuBP is produced in CCMB1 when rubisco and prk are expressed. Since glycerol is the sole 689 carbon source and there are no carboxylation reactions between DHAP and RuBP in CCMB1, we assumed $f_{RuBP,exp} = f_{DHAP,ctrl}$. This assumption is supported by LC-MS measurements of 690 691 histidine in control cells. Like RuBP, histidine is synthesized from a pentose-phosphate pathway 692 intermediates (Szyperski, 1995; Winkler and Ramos-Montañez, 2009), and measured $f_{his,ctrl}$ = $0.7\% \pm 0.1\%$, which is very similar to $f_{ser,ctrl} = 0.6\% \pm 0.3\%$. Using mean values to illustrate the 693 calculation gives $\frac{J_{rubisco}}{J_{rubisco}+J_{pgk}} = \frac{3.5\% - 0.6\%}{\frac{1}{6}(67\% + 5 \times 0.6\%) - 0.6\%} = 0.26$, implying that 26% of 3PG production is 694 due to rubisco.

695

696

10⁵ random samples were drawn from the experimentally determined parameter ranges to 697 698 estimate a 99% confidence interval on the rubisco flux fraction. As the ¹²C composition of 699 inorganic carbon $(f_{12}_{CO_2})$ and serine are mechanistically linked via rubisco, these values were 700 assumed to co-vary. Distributions were estimated on a per-sample basis by assuming 0.1% error in direct measurement of serine and 1% error in the inference of $f_{12_{CO_2}}$. These calculations gave 701 702 a median flux estimate of 19% with 99% of values falling between 4.0% and 47.3%. The sample 703 with the lowest inferred rubisco flux had a median estimate of 10.2% with 99% of values falling 704 between 2.5% and 17.9%, implying that rubisco is responsible for a nonzero fraction of 3PG production in all samples. Applying a wider error range of 5% to $f_{12_{CO_2}}$ did not qualitatively change 705 706 results, giving an overall median flux fraction of 19.1% and a 99% confidence interval 3.9-50.7%. 707 This and above calculations can be found in the following Jupyter notebook: 708 https://github.com/flamholz/carboxecoli/blob/master/notebooks/00 LCMS calcs.ipynb.

Predicting rubisco carboxylation flux via Flux Balance Analysis 709

710 A stoichiometric model of complemented CCMB1 was generated from the Core Escherichia coli

711 Metabolic Model (Orth et al., 2010) by adding rubisco and prk and then deleting the rpi and edd

712 reactions. Parsimonious Flux Balance Analysis (pFBA) was applied to the resulting model to

713 calculate intracellular metabolic metabolic fluxes that maximize the rate of biomass production.

As many distinct flux distributions can yield the same (maximal) rate of biomass production, pFBA uses the minimum sum of fluxes objective to define a unique flux solution (Holzhütter, 2004). The COBRApy implementation of pFBA introduces an additional free parameter, the permissible fraction of the maximal biomass production rate f_{opt} (Ebrahim et al., 2013). When $f_{opt} < 1.0$, the biomass production can be less-than-optimal if this would further decrease the sum of fluxes.

719

720 pFBA was run with f_{opt} ranging from 0.8 to 1.0 in increments of 0.01 to account for the fact that 721 CCMB1 has not undergone selection to maximize biomass production with rubisco expressed. 722 For each resulting flux distribution the fraction of 3PG production flux due to rubisco was 723 calculated as the fraction of 3PG molecules produced via rubisco carboxylation divided by the 724 total flux to 3PG. These calculations predict that 19.5%-21.5% of 3PG production is due to 725 rubisco. The model was rerun after removing all possibility for product secretion by deleting all 726 carbon-containing exchange reactions other than glycerol and CO₂ exchange. This modification 727 should give an upper bound on the fraction of 3PG production due to rubisco, as carbon cannot 728 be shunted away from biomass production to overflow products. The "no overflow" model 729 predicted that 23.9% of 3PG production is due to rubisco independent of fopt. The range of 730 predictions from 19.5-23.9% is plotted in Figure 5D. All calculations were done using Python and 731 COBRApy (Ebrahim et al., 2013), and can be found in this Jupyter notebook: https://github.com/flamholz/carboxecoli/blob/master/notebooks/01 FBA rubisco flux prediction 732 733 .ipynb.

736 Acknowledgements: We thank Matt Davis for P1 transduction materials and advice, Hernan 737 Garcia and Han Lim for pZ plasmids, Maggie Stoeva, Anna Engelbrektson, Anchal Mehra, Sophia 738 Ewens and Tyler Barnum for help with anaerobic growth, Reena Zalpuri and Danielle Jorgens at 739 the University of California Berkeley Electron Microscope Laboratory for advice and assistance 740 with electron microscopy, and Rob Egbert and Adam Arkin for KEIO strains. We are grateful to 741 Eric Estrin, Woody Fischer, Darcy McRose, Dipti Navak, Sabeeha Merchant, Luke Oltrogge, and 742 Naiva Phillips for detailed comments on the manuscript, and to Dan Arlow, Yinon Bar-On, Dan 743 Davidi, Jack Desmarais, Hernan Garcia, Oliver Mueller-Cajar, Rob Nichols, Kris Niyogi, Dan 744 Portnoy, Morgan Price, Noam Prywes, Jeremy Roop, Rachel Shipps, Patrick Shih, and Dan 745 Tawfik, for support, advice and helpful discussions throughout.

746

Funding: This work was supported by a National Science Foundation Graduate Research
Fellowship (to A.I.F.), grants from the US Department of Energy (no. DE-SC00016240) and Royal
Dutch Shell (Energy Biosciences Institute project CW163755) to D.F.S., and from the European
Research Council (Project NOVCARBFIX 646827) to R.M. R.M. is the Charles and Louise
Gartner Professional Chair.

752

753 Author contributions: A.I.F. conceived of and designed all experiments with mentorship from 754 R.M. and D.F.S. and support from all authors. S.A., N.A., E.N., A.B-E. and R.M. designed and 755 constructed the $\Delta rpiAB$ strain from which A.I.F., E.J.D, and S.R. constructed CCMB1. A.I.F., 756 E.J.D, and S.R. designed and constructed all other strains and plasmids. A.I.F and E.J.D. performed growth and selection experiments. C.B. performed electron microscopy. S.G. and R.B-757 758 N. performed LC-MS analysis on biomass hydrolysate prepared by A.I.F. and E.J.D. A.I.F., S.G., 759 R.B-N., and E.N. analysed isotopic labeling data. A.I.F and E.N. designed and executed Flux 760 Balance Analysis. A.I.F. wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

761

766

Competing interests: D.F.S. is a co-founder of Scribe Therapeutics and a scientific advisory
 board member of Scribe Therapeutics and Mammoth Biosciences. A.B.-E. is co-founder of b.fab.
 These companies were not involved in this research in any way. All other authors declare no
 competing interests.

767 Data and materials availability: All data associated with this work is available in the main text,
 768 supplementary materials and the repository at https://github.com/flamholz/carboxecoli. Plasmids
 769 available on Addgene at https://github.com/flamholz/carboxecoli. Plasmids
 770

- 771
- 772 773
- 774
- 775 776

777 References

- Aguilera J, Van Dijken JP, De Winde JH, Pronk JT. 2005. Carbonic anhydrase (Nce103p): an
 essential biosynthetic enzyme for growth of Saccharomyces cerevisiae at atmospheric
 carbon dioxide pressure. *Biochem J* 391:311–316.
- Aigner H, Wilson RH, Bracher A, Calisse L, Bhat JY, Hartl FU, Hayer-Hartl M. 2017. Plant
 RuBisCo assembly in E. coli with five chloroplast chaperones including BSD2. *Science* 358:1272–1278.
- Andersson I, Knight S, Schneider G, Lindqvist Y, Lundqvist T, Brändén C-I, Lorimer GH. 1989.
 Crystal structure of the active site of ribulose-bisphosphate carboxylase. *Nature* 337:229–234.
- Antonovsky N, Gleizer S, Noor E, Zohar Y, Herz E, Barenholz U, Zelcbuch L, Amram S, Wides
 A, Tepper N, Davidi D, Bar-On Y, Bareia T, Wernick DG, Shani I, Malitsky S, Jona G, BarEven A, Milo R. 2016. Sugar Synthesis from CO2 in Escherichia coli. *Cell* 166:115–125.
- Baba T, Ara T, Hasegawa M, Takai Y, Okumura Y, Baba M, Datsenko K a., Tomita M, Wanner
 BL, Mori H. 2006. Construction of Escherichia coli K-12 in-frame, single-gene knockout
- 792 mutants: the Keio collection. *Mol Syst Biol* **2**:2006.0008.
- Bar-Even A, Flamholz A, Noor E, Milo R. 2012. Rethinking glycolysis: on the biochemical logic
 of metabolic pathways. *Nat Chem Biol* 8:509–517.
- Bar-On YM, Milo R. 2019. The global mass and average rate of rubisco. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S* A **116**:4738–4743.
- Bonacci W, Teng PK, Afonso B, Niederholtmeyer H, Grob P, Silver P a., Savage DF. 2012.
 Modularity of a carbon-fixing protein organelle. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 109:478–483.
- 799 Booth IR. 2005. Glycerol and Methylglyoxal Metabolism. *EcoSal Plus* 1:1–8.
- Bowes G, Ogren WL. 1972. Oxygen inhibition and other properties of soybean ribulose 1,5 diphosphate carboxylase. *J Biol Chem* 247:2171–2176.
- 802 Bremer H, Dennis PP. 2008. Modulation of Chemical Composition and Other Parameters of the 803 Cell at Different Exponential Growth Rates. *EcoSal Plus* **3**:1–49.
- Cai F, Menon BB, Cannon GC, Curry KJ, Shively JM, Heinhorst S. 2009. The pentameric vertex
 proteins are necessary for the icosahedral carboxysome shell to function as a CO2 leakage
 barrier. *PLoS One* **4**:e7521.
- Cai Z, Liu G, Zhang J, Li Y. 2014. Development of an activity-directed selection system enabled
 significant improvement of the carboxylation efficiency of Rubisco. *Protein Cell* 12–18.
- Claassens NJ, Sousa DZ, Dos Santos VAPM, de Vos WM, van der Oost J. 2016. Harnessing
 the power of microbial autotrophy. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 14:692–706.
- Cleland WW, Andrews TJ, Gutteridge S, Hartman FC, Lorimer GH. 1998. Mechanism of
 Rubisco: The Carbamate as General Base. *Chem Rev* 98:549–562.
- B13 Datsenko KA, Wanner BL. 2000. One-step inactivation of chromosomal genes in Escherichia
 coli K-12 using PCR products. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 97:6640–6645.
- Barrick JE. 2014. Identification of mutations in laboratory-evolved microbes
 from next-generation sequencing data using breseq. *Methods Mol Biol* 1151:165–188.
- 817 Desmarais JJ, Flamholz AI, Blikstad C, Dugan EJ, Laughlin TG, Oltrogge LM, Chen AW,
 818 Wetmore K, Diamond S, Wang JY, Savage DF. 2019. DABs are inorganic carbon pumps
 819 found throughout prokaryotic phyla. *Nat Microbiol* **4**:2204–2215.
- Bu J, Förster B, Rourke L, Howitt SM, Price GD. 2014. Characterisation of Cyanobacterial
 Bicarbonate Transporters in E. coli Shows that SbtA Homologs Are Functional in This
 Heterologous Expression System. *PLoS One* **9**:e115905.
- Ebrahim A, Lerman JA, Palsson BO, Hyduke DR. 2013. COBRApy: COnstraints-Based Reconstruction and Analysis for Python. *BMC Syst Biol* **7**:74.
- 825 Eisenhut M, Ruth W, Haimovich M, Bauwe H, Kaplan A, Hagemann M. 2008. The

826 photorespiratory glycolate metabolism is essential for cyanobacteria and might have been 827 conveyed endosymbiontically to plants. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105:17199–17204. 828 Ermakova M, Danila FR, Furbank RT, von Caemmerer S. 2020. On the road to C4 rice: 829 advances and perspectives. Plant J 101:940-950. 830 Fischer WW, Hemp J, Johnson JE. 2016. Evolution of Oxygenic Photosynthesis. Annu Rev 831 Earth Planet Sci 44:647-683. 832 Flamholz AI, Prywes N, Moran U, Davidi D, Bar-On YM, Oltrogge LM, Alves R, Savage D, Milo 833 R. 2019. Revisiting Trade-offs between Rubisco Kinetic Parameters. *Biochemistry* 834 **58**:3365–3376. 835 Flamholz A, Shih PM. 2020. Cell biology of photosynthesis over geologic time. Curr Biol 836 **30**:R490–R494. 837 Gleizer S, Ben-Nissan R, Bar-On YM, Antonovsky N, Noor E, Zohar Y, Jona G, Krieger E, 838 Shamshoum M, Bar-Even A, Milo R. 2019. Conversion of Escherichia coli to Generate All 839 Biomass Carbon from CO2. Cell 179:1255-1263.e12. 840 Herz E, Antonovsky N, Bar-On Y, Davidi D, Gleizer S, Prywes N, Noda-Garcia L, Frisch KL, 841 Zohar Y, Wernick DG, Others. 2017. The genetic basis for the adaptation of E. coli to sugar 842 synthesis from CO 2. Nat Commun 8:1705. 843 Higgins CF, Hiles ID, Salmond GP, Gill DR, Downie JA, Evans IJ, Holland IB, Gray L, Buckel 844 SD, Bell AW. 1986. A family of related ATP-binding subunits coupled to many distinct 845 biological processes in bacteria. Nature 323:448-450. 846 Holzhütter H-G. 2004. The principle of flux minimization and its application to estimate 847 stationary fluxes in metabolic networks. Eur J Biochem 271:2905–2922. 848 Iñiguez C, Capó-Bauçà S, Niinemets Ü, Stoll H, Aguiló-Nicolau P, Galmés J. 2020. Evolutionary 849 trends in RuBisCO kinetics and their co-evolution with CO2 concentrating mechanisms. 850 *Plant J* **101**:897–918. 851 Kerfeld CA, Melnicki MR. 2016. Assembly, function and evolution of cyanobacterial 852 carboxysomes. Curr Opin Plant Biol 31:66-75. 853 Lewis NE, Nagarajan H, Palsson BO. 2012. Constraining the metabolic genotype-phenotype 854 relationship using a phylogeny of in silico methods. Nat Rev Microbiol **10**:291–305. 855 Liang S, Bipatnath M, Xu Y, Chen S, Dennis P, Ehrenberg M, Bremer H. 1999. Activities of 856 constitutive promoters in Escherichia coli. J Mol Biol 292:19-37. 857 Lin MT, Occhialini A, Andralojc PJ, Parry MAJ, Hanson MR. 2014. A faster Rubisco with 858 potential to increase photosynthesis in crops. Nature 513:547-550. 859 Long BM, Hee WY, Sharwood RE, Rae BD, Kaines S, Lim Y-L, Nguyen ND, Massey B, Bala S, 860 von Caemmerer S. Badger MR. Price GD. 2018. Carboxysome encapsulation of the CO2-861 fixing enzyme Rubisco in tobacco chloroplasts. Nat Commun 9:3570. 862 Long BM, Rae BD, Rolland V, Förster B, Price GD. 2016. Cyanobacterial CO2-concentrating 863 mechanism components: function and prospects for plant metabolic engineering. Curr Opin 864 Plant Biol 31:1–8. 865 Lutz R, Bujard H. 1997. Independent and tight regulation of transcriptional units in Escherichia 866 coli via the LacR/O, the TetR/O and AraC/I1-I2 regulatory elements. Nucleic Acids Res 867 **25**:1203–1210. 868 Mackinder LCM, Meyer MT, Mettler-Altmann T, Chen VK, Mitchell MC, Caspari O, Freeman 869 Rosenzweig ES, Pallesen L, Reeves G, Itakura A, Roth R, Sommer F, Geimer S, Mühlhaus 870 T. Schroda M. Goodenough U. Stitt M. Griffiths H. Jonikas MC. 2016. A repeat protein links 871 Rubisco to form the eukaryotic carbon-concentrating organelle. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 872 **113**:5958–5963. 873 Mangan NM, Flamholz A, Hood RD, Milo R, Savage DF. 2016. pH determines the energetic 874 efficiency of the cyanobacterial CO2 concentrating mechanism. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 875 113:E5354-62. 876 Marcus Y, Schwarz R, Friedberg D, Kaplan A. 1986. High CO2 Requiring Mutant of Anacystis

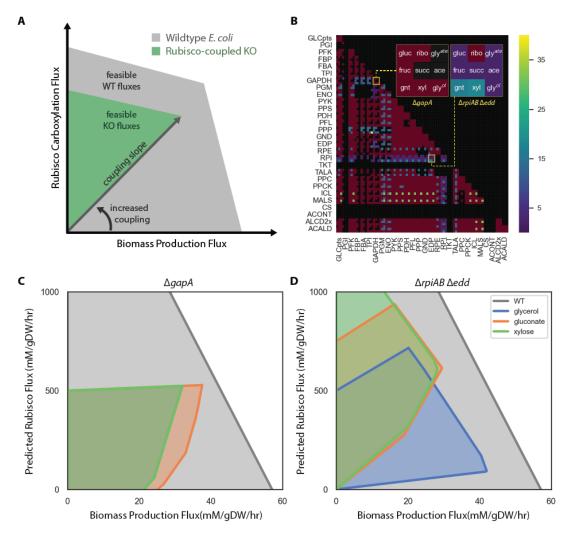
- 877 nidulans R2. *Plant Physiol* **82**:610–612.
- 878 McGrath JM, Long SP. 2014. Can the cyanobacterial carbon-concentrating mechanism increase 879 photosynthesis in crop species? A theoretical analysis. *Plant Physiol* **164**:2247–2261.
- Merlin C, Masters M. 2003. Why is carbonic anhydrase essential to Escherichia coli? *J Bacteriol* **185**. doi:10.1128/JB.185.21.6415
- Mueller-Cajar O. 2017. The Diverse AAA+ Machines that Repair Inhibited Rubisco Active Sites.
 Front Mol Biosci 4:31.
- Mueller-Cajar O, Morell M, Whitney SM. 2007. Directed evolution of rubisco in Escherichia coli
 reveals a specificity-determining hydrogen bond in the form II enzyme. *Biochemistry* 46:14067–14074.
- Nevins CP, Vierck JL, Bogachus LD, Velotta NS, Castro-Munozledo F, Dodson MV. 2005. An
 Inexpensive Method for Applying Nitrogen Evaporation to Hexane-containing 24- or 96-well
 Plates. *Cytotechnology* 49:71–75.
- Occhialini A, Lin MT, Andralojc PJ, Hanson MR, Parry MAJ. 2016. Transgenic tobacco plants
 with improved cyanobacterial Rubisco expression but no extra assembly factors grow at
 near wild-type rates if provided with elevated CO2. *Plant J* 85:148–160.
- 893 Oltrogge LM, Chaijarasphong T, Chen AW, Bolin ER, Marqusee S, Savage DF. 2020.
 894 Multivalent interactions between CsoS2 and Rubisco mediate α-carboxysome formation.
 895 Nat Struct Mol Biol 27:281–287.
- 896 Orr DJ, Worrall D, Lin MT, Carmo-Silva E, Hanson MR, Parry MAJ. 2020. Hybrid
 897 Cyanobacterial-Tobacco Rubisco Supports Autotrophic Growth and Procarboxysomal
 898 Aggregation. *Plant Physiol* **182**:807–818.
- Orth JD, Fleming RMT, Palsson BØ. 2010. Reconstruction and Use of Microbial Metabolic
 Networks: the Core Escherichia coli Metabolic Model as an Educational Guide. *EcoSal Plus* 4:1–47.
- Peekhaus N, Conway T. 1998. What's for dinner?: Entner-Doudoroff metabolism in Escherichia
 coli. *J Bacteriol* 180:3495.
- Pellicer MT, Nuñez MF, Aguilar J, Badia J, Baldoma L. 2003. Role of 2-Phosphoglycolate
 Phosphatase of Escherichia coli in Metabolism of the 2-Phosphoglycolate Formed in DNA
 Repair. J Bacteriol 185:5815–5821.
- Price GD, Badger MR. 1989a. Isolation and characterization of high CO2-requiring-mutants of
 the cyanobacterium Synechococcus PCC7942: two phenotypes that accumulate inorganic
 carbon but are apparently unable to generate CO2 within the carboxysome. *Plant Physiol* 910
 91:514–525.
- Price GD, Badger MR. 1989b. Expression of Human Carbonic Anhydrase in the
 Cyanobacterium Synechococcus PCC7942 Creates a High CO2-Requiring Phenotype
 Evidence for a Central Role for Carboxysomes in the CO2 Concentrating Mechanism. *Plant Physiol* **91**:505–513.
- Rae BD, Long BM, Badger MR, Price GD. 2013. Functions, compositions, and evolution of the
 two types of carboxysomes: polyhedral microcompartments that facilitate CO2 fixation in
 cyanobacteria and some proteobacteria. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev* **77**:357–379.
- Raven JA, Beardall J, Sánchez-Baracaldo P. 2017. The possible evolution and future of CO2 concentrating mechanisms. *J Exp Bot* 68:3701–3716.
- Sage RF, Sage TL, Kocacinar F. 2012. Photorespiration and the evolution of C4
 photosynthesis. *Annu Rev Plant Biol* 63:19–47.
- Sawaya MR, Cannon GC, Heinhorst S, Tanaka S, Williams EB, Yeates TO, Kerfeld C a. 2006.
 The structure of beta-carbonic anhydrase from the carboxysomal shell reveals a distinct subclass with one active site for the price of two. *J Biol Chem* 281:7546–7555.
- Scott KM, Leonard JM, Boden R, Chaput D, Dennison C, Haller E, Harmer TL, Anderson A,
 Arnold T, Budenstein S, Brown R, Brand J, Byers J, Calarco J, Campbell T, Carter E,
- 927 Chase M, Cole M, Dwyer D, Grasham J, Hanni C, Hazle A, Johnson C, Johnson R, Kirby B,

928 Lewis K, Neumann B, Nguyen T, Nino Charari J, Morakinyo O, Olsson B, Roundtree S, 929 Skjerve E, Ubaldini A, Whittaker R. 2019. Diversity in CO2-Concentrating Mechanisms 930 among Chemolithoautotrophs from the Genera Hydrogenovibrio, Thiomicrorhabdus, and 931 Thiomicrospira, Ubiquitous in Sulfidic Habitats Worldwide. Appl Environ Microbiol 85:1-19. 932 Sezonov G, Joseleau-Petit D, D'Ari R. 2007. Escherichia coli physiology in Luria-Bertani broth. J 933 Bacteriol 189:8746-8749. 934 Shih PM, Occhialini A, Cameron JC, Andralojc PJ, Parry MAJ, Kerfeld CA. 2016. Biochemical 935 characterization of predicted Precambrian RuBisCO. Nat Commun 7:10382. 936 Stauffer GV. 2004. Regulation of Serine, Glycine, and One-Carbon Biosynthesis. EcoSal Plus

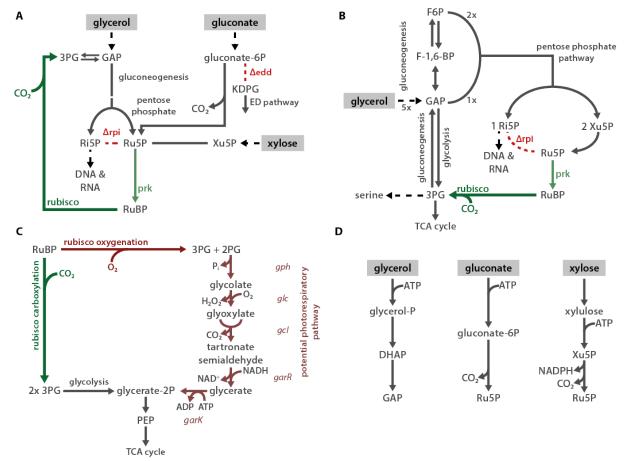
- 936 Staulier GV. 2004. Regulation of Serine, Glycine, and One-Carbon Biosynthesis. *EcoSal Plus* 937 1:1–22.
 938 Stalper DA Bayabash ND Capfield DE 2010. Acrehia growth at papamolar awaren
- Stolper DA, Revsbech NP, Canfield DE. 2010. Aerobic growth at nanomolar oxygen
 concentrations. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **107**:18755–18760.
- Szyperski T. 1995. Biosynthetically directed fractional 13C-labeling of proteinogenic amino
 acids. An efficient analytical tool to investigate intermediary metabolism. *Eur J Biochem* 232:433–448.
- Taymaz-Nikerel H, Borujeni AE, Verheijen PJT, Heijnen JJ, van Gulik WM. 2010. Genome derived minimal metabolic models for Escherichia coli MG1655 with estimated in vivo
 respiratory ATP stoichiometry. *Biotechnol Bioeng* 107:369–381.
- Tsai Y-CC, Lapina MC, Bhushan S, Mueller-Cajar O. 2015. Identification and characterization of
 multiple rubisco activases in chemoautotrophic bacteria. *Nat Commun* 6:8883.
- 948 Unden G, Dünnwald P. 2008. The Aerobic and Anaerobic Respiratory Chain of Escherichia coli
 949 and Salmonella enterica: Enzymes and Energetics. *EcoSal Plus* 3.
 950 doi:10.1128/ecosalplus.3.2.2
- 951 Wang L, Jonikas MC. 2020. The pyrenoid. *Curr Biol* **30**:R456–R458.
- Wheatley NM, Sundberg CD, Gidaniyan SD, Cascio D, Yeates TO. 2014. Structure and
 identification of a pterin dehydratase-like protein as a ribulose-bisphosphate
 carboxylase/oxygenase (RuBisCO) assembly factor in the α-carboxysome. *J Biol Chem* 289:7973–7981.
- Wildman SG. 2002. Along the trail from Fraction I protein to Rubisco (ribulose bisphosphate
 carboxylase-oxygenase). *Photosynth Res* **73**:243–250.
- Wilson RH, Martin-Avila E, Conlan C, Whitney SM. 2018. An improved Escherichia coli screen
 for Rubisco identifies a protein-protein interface that can enhance CO2-fixation kinetics. J *Biol Chem* 293:18–27.
- 961 Winkler ME, Ramos-Montañez S. 2009. Biosynthesis of Histidine. *EcoSal Plus* **3**:1–33.
- 962 Wu A, Hammer GL, Doherty A, von Caemmerer S, Farquhar GD. 2019. Quantifying impacts of 963 enhancing photosynthesis on crop yield. *Nat Plants* **5**:380–388.
- 964
- 965

966

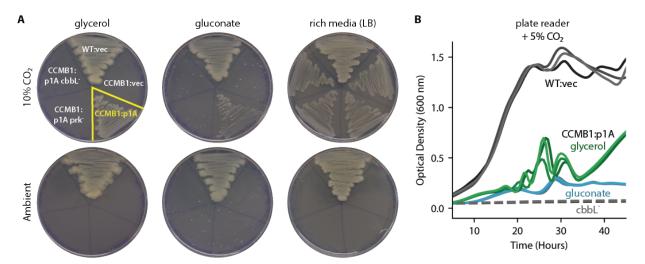
Figures Supplements



968 Figure 2 - figure supplement 1. The OptSlope algorithm for designing rubisco-coupled E. coli strains. Optslope 969 searches for metabolic knockout mutants in which biomass production is coupled to flux through a reaction of choice 970 (e.g. rubisco) at all growth rates. (A) Shows the space of feasible biomass production and rubisco fluxes for wildtype 971 (WT, grey) and a knockout mutant (green). For WT, biomass production and, therefore, growth rate, are independent 972 of rubisco at all feasible growth rates (i.e. within the grev polygon). The mutant is "rubisco-coupled" because maximal 973 biomass production requires non-zero rubisco carboxylation flux and increasing biomass production demands 974 increased carboxylation. The slope of this relationship is the "coupling slope." (B) We computationally generated pairs 975 of E. coli central metabolic knockouts and calculated the coupling slope on nine carbon sources: glucose (gluc), fructose 976 (fruc), gluconate (gnt), ribose (ribo), succinate (succ), xylose (xyl), glycerate (gly^{ate}), acetate (ace) and glycerol (gly^{ol}). 977 Each double knockout is summarized as a 3×3 matrix of coupling slopes. Black denotes a rubisco-independent mutant 978 and maroon a coupling slope of 0. The published mutant ∆gapA (Mueller-Cajar et al., 2007) has a coupling slope of 0 979 (left), while the Δ rpiAB Δ edd strain is rubisco-coupled on seven of the carbon sources (right). (C) Feasible phase space 980 diagram for the Δ gapA strain shows that biomass production is not coupled to rubisco flux. (D) Δ rpiAB Δ edd has a 981 positive coupling slope in glycerol, gluconate and xylose media.



982 983 Figure 2 - figure supplement 2. Proposed mechanisms of rubisco-dependent growth in CCMB1. (A) CCMB1 984 depends on rubisco and prk for growth in glycerol, gluconate, and xylose minimal media. The common mechanism is 985 an inability to metabolize ribulose-5-phosphate (Ru5P) due to the deletion of both ribose-phosphate isomerase genes 986 (Δ rpiAB). When gluconate or xylose is the growth substrate, Ru5P must be produced in order to metabolize the carbon 987 source. Though wild type E. coli can metabolize gluconate via the ED pathway, the ED dehydratase knockout (Δ edd) 988 in CCMB1 blocks this route and forces 1:1 production of Ru5P from gluconate. Expression of prk and rubisco opens a 989 new route of Ru5P metabolism, thus enabling CCMB1 to grow in gluconate or xylose media. Since extracellular glycerol 990 is converted to glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate (GAP), it can be metabolized through lower glycolysis or through 991 gluconeogenesis. The gluconeogenesis route produces hexoses that enter the pentose phosphate pathway, which is 992 required to synthesize ribose 5-phosphate (Ri5P) for nucleotide and histidine biosynthesis. Depending on the growth 993 rate, products of Ri5P make up 5-25% of E. coli biomass (Bremer and Dennis, 2008; Taymaz-Nikerel et al., 2010). As 994 shown in (B), the pentose phosphate pathway forces co-production of Ri5P, Ru5P and xylulose 5-phosphate (Xu5P). 995 In the absence of rpi activity, there is no pathway for metabolism of Xu5P or Ru5P. This defect is complemented by the 996 expression of rubisco and prk. Notably, rubisco can also oxygenate RuBP, as shown in (C). E. coli can, in principle, 997 recycle the oxygenation product 2-phosphoglycolate (2PG) though an ersatz photorespiratory pathway via tartronate 998 semialdehvde. This pathway is not the dominant mechanism of rubisco complementation because CCMB1;p1A cannot 999 grow in ambient air, where O_2 is abundant (Figure 2D). Panel (**D**) describes the initial metabolism of extracellular 1000 glycerol, gluconate and xylose in E. coli. Extracellular carbon sources are marked with a grey background throughout. 1001 Abbreviations: 3-phosphoglycerate (3PG), 2-phosphoglycolate (2PG), glyceraldehyde 2-phosphate (GAP), 1002 dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHAP), ribose 5-phosphate (Ri5P), ribulose 5-phosphate (Ru5P), xylulose 5-phosphate 1003 (Xu5P), ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP), 2-keto-3-deoxy-6-phosphogluconate (KDGP), fructose 6-phosphate (F6P), 1004 fructose 1,6-bisphosphate (F-1,6-BP), phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP). 1005

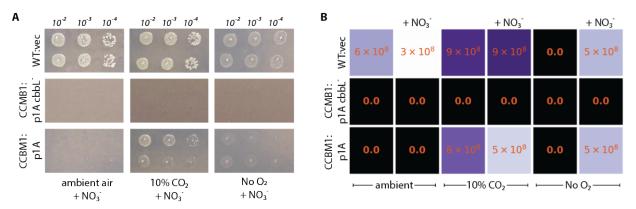


1006

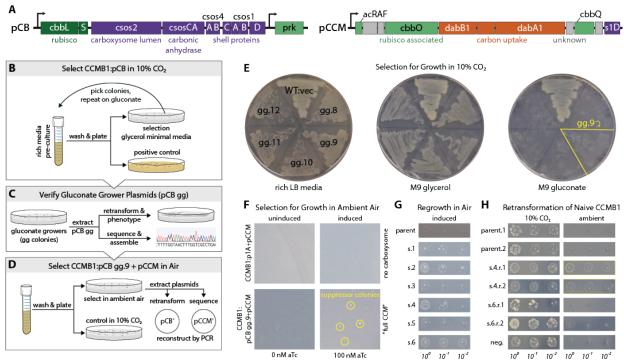
1007 Figure 2 - figure supplement 3. CCMB1 depends on rubisco and prk for growth in minimal media. (A) Expression 1008 of rubisco and prk complements CCMB1 growth on M9 glycerol and gluconate media under 10% CO₂, but not in 1009 ambient conditions (100 nM aTc induction in M9 plates). Mutations ablating rubisco (cbbL) or prk (prk) activity abrogate 1010 growth in selective media but not in LB under 10% CO₂. Growth in LB is rubisco-independent in 10% CO₂, but CCMB1 1011 does not grow in ambient air even when supplied rich media because it lacks CA genes (Merlin and Masters, 2003). 1012 Growth curves in (B) show the rubisco-dependence of CCMB1:p1A growth in glycerol (green) and gluconate (blue) 1013 media under 5% CO₂ in a gas controlled plate reader (Tecan Spark, Methods). Negative controls (CCMB1:p1A cbbL⁻ 1014 in glycerol or gluconate media) and uninduced cultures failed to grow in these conditions (dashed grey lines). Though 1015 three curves are plotted for each condition in (B), experiments were conducted in technical sextuplicate. Replicates 1016 were all consistent.

1017

1018

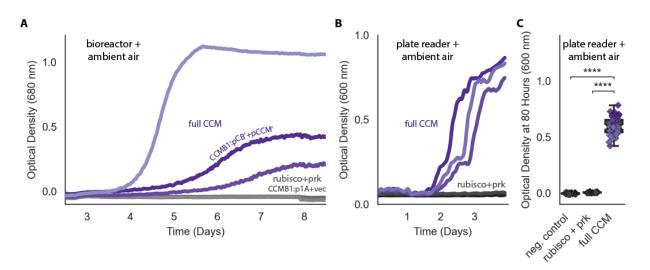


1020 1021 Figure 2 - figure supplement 4. CCMB1 does not require oxygen for growth in minimal media. (A) Titer plating 1022 assays were used to measure the viability of CCMB1:p1A grown on glycerol media under ambient air (≈0.04% CO₂, 1023 21% O₂), 10% CO₂ (balance air), and an anoxic mix of 10% CO₂ and 90% N₂ ("No O₂"). Since E. coli cannot ferment 1024 glycerol, 20 mM NO3⁻ was provided as an alternate electron acceptor as marked. (B) CCMB1:p1A grows on glycerol 1025 media in the absence of O_2 so long as nitrate is provided. While CCMB1:p1A colonies are noticeably smaller than WT 1026 in panel (A), the colony count is indistinguishable, as quantified in panel (B). Experiments were conducted in biological 1027 duplicate (i.e. pre-cultures from distinct colonies) with at least two technical replicates (repeated spotting from the same 1028 preculture).



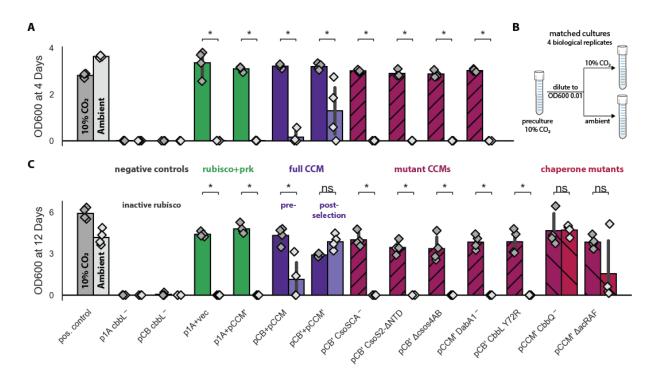


1031 Figure 3 - figure supplement 1. A series of selection experiments produced mutant plasmids that permit 1032 rubisco-dependent growth in ambient air. (A) pCB and pCCM plasmids together encode 20 H. neapolitanus genes 1033 including 12 confirmed CCM components. pCB carries kanamycin resistance and has two transcriptional units 1034 expressed under an aTc-inducible P_{Lteto-1} promoter (Lutz and Bujard, 1997). The first derives from pHnCB10 (Bonacci 1035 et al., 2012) and expresses 10 carboxysome proteins. The second expresses phosphoribulokinase (prk), pCCM carries 1036 chloramphenicol resistance and expresses an 11 gene operon from H. neapolitanus that contains both putative and 1037 confirmed CCM genes (Desmarais et al., 2019). Although pCB expresses both rubisco and prk, CCMB1:pCB did not 1038 initially grow in M9 media under 10% CO₂ (not shown) and so we undertook a series of selections, described in panels 1039 (B-D) that ultimately led to isolation of pCB' and pCCM' plasmids that together enable CCMB1 to grow in ambient air. 1040 (B) We first selected CCMB1:pCB for growth on minimal media by screening for mutants able to grow on M9 glycerol 1041 and then M9 gluconate media. Gluconate growing mutant #9 (gg.9) was used for subsequent experiments as this 1042 mutant was found to grow best on gluconate (as shown in E). (C) Plasmid extracted from gg.9 was deep sequenced 1043 and electroporated into naive CCMB1 to test for plasmid linkage of growth on minimal. (D) Selection for rubisco-1044 dependent growth in ambient air. A turbid pre-culture of the CCMB1:pCB gg.9+pCCM double transformant was washed 1045 and plated on M9 glycerol media under ambient air. Colonies formed after ≈20 days (as shown in F). 40 colonies (s.1-1046 40) were picked into rich media, grown to saturation, washed and plated on M9 glycerol media to verify growth under 1047 ambient air. Roughly ¼ of chosen colonies regrew under ambient air to varying degrees (s. 1-6 are shown in G). Plasmid 1048 extracted from several strains was deep-sequenced and electroporated into naive CCMB1 to test plasmid-linkage of 1049 growth on glycerol minimal media in ambient air. Pooled plasmid extracted from s.4 was found to confer replicable 1050 growth in ambient air (as shown in H). PCR and Gibson cloning were used to reconstruct the individual pCB and pCCM 1051 plasmids from this pool. We termed these reconstructed plasmids pCB' and pCCM'. (E) Restreaking of gluconate-1052 growing mutants gg.8-12 described in panel B shows that gg.9 grew best on gluconate. (F) CCMB1:pCB gg.9+pCCM 1053 double transformants were plated for mutants on M9 glycerol media under ambient air. A negative control lacking 1054 carboxysome genes (CCMB1:p1A+pCCM) was plated at the same time. Colonies formed after 20 days (bottom right) 1055 only on induced plates (100 nM) and only when all CCM genes were provided (i.e. pCB gg.9 and pCCM). (G) Several 1056 of the chosen colonies regrew in ambient air. Growth characteristics varied from colony to colony, suggesting genetic 1057 variation. (H) Pooled plasmid extracted from s.4 was found to permit naive CCMB1 to grow in ambient air. For 1058 comparison, plasmid from s.6 produced less reproducible air growth.



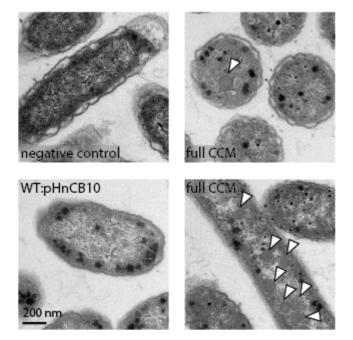


1060 Figure 3 - figure supplement 2. pCB' and pCCM' permit CCMB1 to grow in ambient air. (A) Biological triplicate 1061 growth curves from a bioreactor bubbling ambient air. CCMB1 co-transformed with post-selection plasmids pCB' and 1062 pCCM' (CCMB1:pCB' + pCCM') grows well (purple, "full CCM"), while rubisco and prk alone are insufficient for growth 1063 in air (green, "rubisco+prk"). Maximal growth rates for the "full CCM" cultures ranged from 0.03-0.06 hr¹, corresponding 1064 to doubling times of 12-25 hours. As these are biological replicate cultures, heterogeneity in growth kinetics could be 1065 due to genetic effects (e.g. point mutations in founding colonies) or non-genetic differences (e.g. varying degree of 1066 carboxysome production during pre-culturing). (B) Data for the same strains grown in a 96 well plate in ambient air in 1067 a shaking plate reader. Different shades mark biological replicates (pre-cultures deriving from three distinct colonies). 1068 Additionally, each preculture was used to inoculate at least 12 technical replicates. (C) Quantification of the experiment 1069 in panel (B) using endpoint data at 80 hours for biological and technical replicates. Panel (C) uses the same colors as 1070 (A) and (B) with the addition of a rubisco active site mutant as a negative control (grey, CCMB1:p1A⁻ + vec). (*****) 1071 indicates $P < 10^{-10}$. P-values were calculated with a Bonferroni-corrected two-sided Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test. 10^4 -1072 fold bootstrapping was used to compare "full CCM" data to "rubisco + prk" and estimate a confidence interval for the 1073 effect of expressing a full CCM on growth in ambient air, which gave a 99.9% confidence interval of 0.56-0.64 OD units. 1074

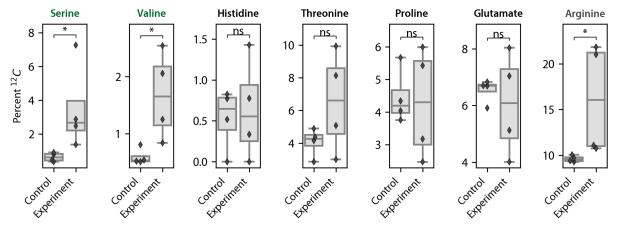


1075

1076 Figure 4 - figure supplement 1. Targeted mutations to the CCM eliminate growth in ambient air. Pre-cultures 1077 were grown to saturation in 10% CO₂ and then diluted to an optical density of 0.01 (600 nm) into two tubes (Methods). 1078 One tube was grown in 10% CO₂ and the other in ambient air, as diagrammed in (**B**). Cells were incubated for 4 days 1079 before measuring optical density in (A) and 12 days in (C). The left bar (darker color) gives the mean endpoint density 1080 of biological quadruplicate cultures in 10% CO₂ and the right bar (lighter color) gives the mean in ambient air. Error 1081 bars give a 95% confidence interval of measurements. (A) and (C) share the leftmost 11 strains. From left to right: a 1082 positive control (arev, grows in both conditions), two negative controls carrying active site mutants of rubisco 1083 (CCMB1:p1A⁻+vec and CCMB1:pCB⁻+pCCM⁻), CCMB1 expressing rubisco and prk but no CCM genes (green, 1084 CCMB1:p1A+vec) or an incomplete set of CCM genes (green, CCMB1:p1A+pCCM'), CCMB1:pCB+pCCM which 1085 carries the pre-selection CCM plasmids (purple), and CCMB1:pCB'+pCCM' which carries the post-selection plasmids. 1086 "vec" denotes an appropriate vector control (pFA-sfGFP). The following pairs of maroon bars describe strains carrying 1087 plasmids with targeted CCM mutations: CCMB1:pCB' CsoSCA-+pCCM' which carries an inactivating mutation to 1088 carboxysomal carbonic anhydrase, CCMB1:pCB' CsoS2 ΔNTD +pCCM' harboring a deletion of the N-terminal domain 1089 of CsoS2 responsible for recruiting rubisco to the carboxysome, CCMB1:pCB' ΔcsoS4AB + pCCM' lacking both genes 1090 pentameric vertex proteins, and CCMB1:pCB' DabA1⁻ + pCCM' carrying an inactivated DAB carbon uptake system. 1091 (A) CCMB1 grows well in ambient air only when given a full complement of CCM genes on the post-selection plasmids. 1092 All mutations to the CCM abrogate growth in air (maroon). Panel (C) shows consistent results over a 12-day time period. 1093 (C) describes three additional mutants: CCMB1:pCB' CbbL Y72R + pCCM' carrying a mutation to the rubisco large 1094 subunit that eliminates rubisco-CsoS2 binding, CCMB1:pCB' + pCCM' CbbQ⁻ harboring inactivating mutation to the 1095 CbbQ subunit of the rubisco activase complex, and CCMB1:pCB' + pCCM' ΔacRAF lacking the putative rubisco 1096 chaperone acRAF (CCMB1:pCB' + pCCM' ΔacRAF). Ablation of rubisco-CsoS2 interaction should eliminate 1097 recruitment of rubisco to the carboxyome (Oltrogge et al., 2020). Accordingly, the Y72R mutation eliminated growth in 1098 air. Chaperone mutants (CbbQ or acRAF) were both viable in air, though removal of acRAF produced a substantial 1099 growth defect (2.5 fold in mean and 8.5 fold in median final density). The positive control strain is the CAfree strain 1100 expressing human carbonic anhydrase II (Methods). P-values calculated by a one-sided Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test. 1101 '*' denotes a P < 0.05. Detailed description of all plasmid abbreviations is given in Table S2.

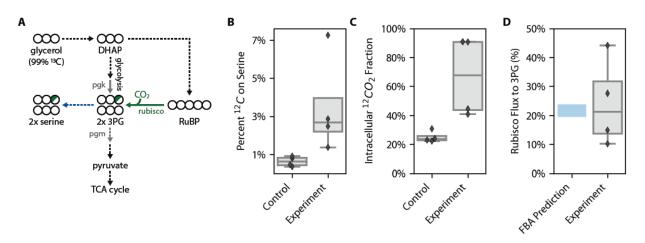


1102 1103 Figure 5 - figure supplement 1. CCMB1:pCB' + pCCM' produces polyhedral bodies resembling carboxysomes 1104 when grown in ambient air. Transmission electron micrographs of air-grown CCMB1:pCB'+pCCM' (images on the 1105 right) show morphological carboxysomes inside cells (white arrows). The negative control for carboxysome expression 1106 is CAfree:pFE-sfGFP + pFA-HCAII (top left). WT:pHnCB10 is the parent strain transformed with a plasmid expressing 1107 10 carboxysome genes and previously shown to enable purification of carboxysome structures from E. coli (Bonacci et 1108 al., 2012). This was intended as a positive control, but we did not observe carboxysome structures in electron 1109 micrographs of this strain, perhaps because of excessive IPTG induction (500 mM) as previously reported. Expression 1110 of carboxysome genes was associated with production of black staining stress granules in both the experiment and 1111 pHnCB10 control. These granules were not observed in images of the negative control.





1114 Figure 5 - figure supplement 2. Isotopic composition of amino acids from total biomass hydrolysate. Cells were 1115 grown under ambient air in M9 media containing 99% ¹³C labeled glycerol (0.4% v/v) so that nearly all ¹²C in biomass 1116 must derive from inorganic carbon. The isotopic composition of amino acids in total biomass hydrolysate of 1117 CCMB1:pCB' + pCCM' and an appropriate rubisco-independent control were measured via LC-MS (Methods). The 1118 control strain is CAfree complemented with the human carbonic anhydrase II, which does not express rubisco 1119 (Methods). Serine and valine, which are marked in green, are downstream of the rubisco product 3PG in E, coli central 1120 metabolism and, accordingly, show significantly greater ¹²C incorporation in CCMB1:pCB' + pCCM' than the control. 1121 Histidine, threonine, proline and glutamate are synthesized from precursors deriving from the TCA cycle and pentose 1122 phosphate pathways, and thus their carbon atoms do not derive from 3PG (Szyperski, 1995). Arginine is synthesized 1123 via a rubisco-independent carboxylation of glutamate (by the addition of carboxyphosphate, (Gleizer et al., 2019)), and 1124 so the difference between arginine and glutamate labeling is used to calculate the isotopic composition of intracellular 1125 inorganic carbon (C_i , Methods). Notably, intracellular C_i derives both from extracellular C_i (predominantly ¹²C) and 1126 decarboxylation of the 99% 13 C glycerol carbon source. As such, the composition will depend on C_i uptake as well as 1127 the rate of glycerol metabolism. Control cells grew faster than CCMB1:pCB'+pCCM, which can explain why arginine 1128 from these cells contains significantly less ¹²C and more ¹³C (from rapid glycerol decarboxylation).





1130 1131 Figure 5 - figure supplement 1. ¹²C enrichment on serine is consistent with in vivo CO₂ fixation. Cells were grown 1132 under ambient air in M9 media containing 99% ¹³C labeled glycerol (0.4% v/v) so that nearly all ¹²C in biomass must 1133 derive from inorganic carbon. In (A) ¹³C atoms are depicted as open circles and fractional ¹²C labeling by a partial green 1134 fill color. In CCMB1, 3-phosphoglycerate (3PG) can be produced either through glycolytic metabolism of glycerol (via 1135 dihydroxyacetone-phosphate, DHAP) or through rubisco-catalyzed carboxylation of RuBP. At most % of the carbon 1136 atoms on 3PG will be 12C when rubisco is active in vivo. In practice this fraction will be less than 1/2 because some of 1137 the intracellular inorganic carbon pool (Ci) derives from decarboxylation of ¹³C labeled glycerol and also because a 1138 large fraction of intracellular 3PG is produced through glycolysis (Methods). Serine is a direct metabolic product of 3PG 1139 and so reports on the labeling of 3PG. As such, we measured the ¹²C composition of amino acids in total protein 1140 hydrolysate via LC-MS (Methods). (B) Serine from CCM-expressing CCMB1 cells ('Experiment') displayed roughly 1141 threefold higher ¹²C labeling than controls, which grow in a rubisco-independent manner (Methods). (C) Rubisco 1142 carboxylation draws from the intracellular inorganic carbon pool, whose ¹²C composition can be inferred for each 1143 sample by comparing the labeling of L-arginine and L-glutamate (Methods). The mean 12 C fraction of intracellular C_i 1144 was estimated to be $25\% \pm 4\%$ and $67\% \pm 28\%$ for the control and experiment respectively. (D) These values were 1145 integrated to estimate the percent of 3PG production flux that is due to carboxylation by rubisco (Methods), which was 1146 inferred to be 24% + 15%. These values compare favorably with predictions made via Flux Balance Analysis (19.5-1147 24%, Methods). A sampling method was used to estimate the uncertainty in these rubisco flux inferences (Methods). 1148 99% confidence intervals on the rubisco flux fraction were strictly positive for each biological replicate, with 99% of all 1149 posterior estimates between 4% and 51% across all four replicates.