Integration of metabolism and regulation reveals rapid adaptability to growth on non-native substrates.

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ABSTRACT

Engineering synthetic heterotrophy (i.e., growth on non-native substrates) is key to efficient bio-based valorization of various renewable and waste substrates. Among these, engineering hemicellulosic pentose utilization has been well-explored in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (yeast) over several decades – yet the answers remain elusive about what makes their utilization inherently recalcitrant in yeast. Through implementation of a semi-synthetic regulon (REG), we find that harmonizing cellular and engineering objectives is key to obtaining highest growth rates and yields with minimal metabolic engineering effort showing that "extrinsic" factors – specifically, upstream genes that direct flux of pentoses into central carbon metabolism – are rate-limiting. We also reveal that yeast metabolism is innately highly adaptable to rapid growth on non-native substrates and that systems metabolic engineering (i.e., flux balancing, directed evolution, functional genomics, and network modeling) is largely unnecessary. We posit that the need for extensive engineering espoused by prior works is a consequence of unfortunate (albeit avoidable) antagonism between engineering and cellular objectives. We also found that deletion of endogenous genes to promote growth demonstrate inconsistent outcomes that are genetic-context- and condition-dependent. For the most part, these knockouts also lead to deleterious pleiotropic effects that decrease the robustness of strains against inhibitors commonly found in lignocellulosic hydrolysate. Thus, at best, perturbation of intrinsic factors (e.g., native metabolic, regulatory genes) results in incremental and inconsistent benefits. At worst, they are detrimental. Overall, this work provides insight into the limitations and pitfalls to realizing efficient synthetic heterotrophy using traditional/systems metabolic engineering approaches, demonstrates the innate adaptability of yeast for metabolism of non-native substrates, and provides an alternate, novel, holistic (and yet minimalistic) approach based on integrating non-native metabolic genes with a native regulon system.

KEYWORDS: synthetic biology, systems biology, metabolic engineering, sustainability, biomanufacturing

INTRODUCTION

Engineering metabolism for growth on non-native substrates (i.e., synthetic heterotrophy) has been an outstanding challenge for several decades in various microbial species (*1-4*). The traditional approach is to constitutively overexpress catabolic genes that input substrate to central carbon metabolism with the expectation that the native cellular systems can direct subsequent steps required for growth. In case initial designs do not lead to rapid growth, flux balancing (*5*), adaptive laboratory evolution (ALE) (*6, 7*), functional genomics (*8, 9*), and directed evolution (*6, 10*) approaches are used. More recently, systems-level analysis of regulatory structures in engineered strains have been used to identify dysregulated pathways and corrective interventions have provided avenues to improve engineering outcomes (*11-13*). Unifying to these approaches is that they are reactive interventions that try to rectify inefficiencies introduced due to strain engineering but not proactive in circumventing undesirable outcomes by harmonizing recombinant activity with native cellular objectives. Typical of this approach is engineering the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* for complete and rapid utilization of lignocellulosic pentoses (*14-17*). In this work, we engineer strains of yeast for rapid growth and pentose (xylose, arabinose) utilization and assess intrinsic and extrinsic constraints and pitfalls that control desirable phenotypic outcomes. Specifically, we answer the longstanding unresolved question: *what are the inherent/intrinsic limitations within this yeast that prevent it from metabolizing non-native pentose substrates at rates equivalent to native substrates?* Surprisingly, we find that this yeast is intrinsically highly adaptable to rapid growth on non-native substrates and that it can achieve maximum growth rates with minimal engineering – which is in direct contrast with the currently accepted paradigm.

To achieve this, we first modified our semi-synthetic regulon system (*18*) – based on synthetically activating the galactose (GAL) system by the non-native substrate – for efficient utilization of arabinose through the isomerase pathway (*19*). We demonstrate that while initial outcomes – like with xylose, previously – are superior to constitutively overexpressing the same genes, growth rates were modest ($\mu = 0.14 – 0.17$ h^{-1}). To identify factors that constrain growth on either pentose, we performed pathway balancing, directed evolution, and systems biology-driven functional genomics. To our surprise, we found that when cells can coordinate global growth responses with substrate use through the semi-synthetic GAL regulon (REG), growth is largely extrinsically controlled – i.e., limited by the upstream/heterologous pathway that controls non-native substrate uptake and flux to central carbon metabolism. We also found through parallel investigations that genetic interventions identified through traditional/systems metabolic engineering that prune cellular metabolic and/or regulatory networks to improve strain performance often led to pleiotropic defects with mid-to-severe fitness costs. Thus, our findings suggest that an approach that repurposes native substrate utilization GAL regulon and synergizes it with an optimized upstream heterologous metabolic module reveals the hidden metabolic adaptability of yeast.

RESULTS

A semi-synthetic regulon design outperforms a constitutive overexpression strategy.

Previously, we demonstrated that coupling activation of galactose (GAL)-responsive regulon to catabolism and growth on non-native substrate, xylose, enabled faster growth and more complete utilization when compared to the constitutive overexpression of the same genes. This is because GAL regulon activation upregulates growth responsive genes and suppresses starvation responses, in contrast to the traditional constitutive overexpression approaches where the opposite holds true (**Figure 1A**). We wanted to assess whether the benefit was unique to xylose or if growth on other substrates, like arabinose, could also benefit from activation of the GAL regulon. Since the Gal3p$^{Syn4.1}$ was engineered to activate the GAL regulon in a xylose-dependent manner, we wondered if it could be activated by arabinose since the two sugars are structurally similar. We assessed activation of *GAL1p-EGFP* by wild-type Gal3p or engineered Gal3p$^{Syn4.1}$ in the presence of native Gal2p and/or engineered Gal2p$^{2.1}$ permease (*18*). We observed that a Gal3p$^{Syn4.1}$ and Gal2p$^{2.1}$ co-expressing strain showed activation on arabinose with low background and high dynamic range (**Figure 1B**). Interestingly, arabinose showed higher activation of *GAL1p-EGFP* than xylose, even though both Gal3p$^{Syn4.1}$ and Gal2p$^{2.1}$ were engineered for activity on xylose (**Figure 1C**). Given robust activation, we constructed a semi-integrant strain by integrating accessory genes including, sensor (*GAL3$^{Syn4.1}$*), transporter (*GAL2$^{2.1}$*), and transaldolase (*TAL1*) – expressed under GAL promoters – to generate a "REG" (regulon) strain background (**Figure 1D**). Similarly, as control, and to compare the with the traditional engineering approach, we integrated *GAL2$^{2.1}$* and *TAL1* under strong constitutive promoters to generate the "CONS" parental strain. We then assessed the growth of both strains transformed with *araBAD* or *XYLA*3-XKS1* arabinose and xylose, respectively. In ARA-REG and XYL-REG all genes were expressed under GAL-responsive promoters whereas in ARA-CONS and XYL-CONS all genes were under constitutive promoters (**Figure 1D**). On both carbon sources, strains that used the GAL regulon to coordinate substrate assimilation with global metabolism demonstrated higher growth rates (μ: ARA-REG = 0.14 $\pm$ 0.04 h^{-1}, XYL-REG = 0.17 $\pm$ 0.01 h^{-1}) compared to those that constitutively overexpressed the same genes (μ: ARA-CONS = 0.06 $\pm$ 0.01 h^{-1}, XYL-CONS = 0.11 $\pm$ 0.01 h^{-1}) in addition to higher final cell densities (OD$_{600}$: ARA-REG = 6.01 $\pm$ 1.62, ARA-CONS = 1.31 $\pm$ 0.04, XYL-REG = 10.8 $\pm$ 0.62, XYL-CONS = 5.3 $\pm$ 0.49) (**Figure 1E-F**). We next wanted to assess what factors prevented these REG strains from achieving maximum aerobic growth rate (μ = 0.22 – 0.29 h^{-1}) (*13, 20*). We explored two potential limitations – i) intrinsic, i.e., native metabolic or regulatory systems downstream of substrate uptake, and ii) extrinsic, i.e., upstream metabolic modules (primarily heterologous genes) that direct non-native substrates to central carbon metabolism.

Perturbation of intrinsic (downstream) factors result in modest and inconsistent improvements.

In traditional/systems metabolic engineering strategies, adaptive laboratory evolution (ALE) or rational data-driven approaches are often used to improve growth rates of initial strain designs, since growth rates and biomass yields are most often suboptimal. We decided to use a (data-driven) systems biology approach to identify "intrinsic" genetic targets to modify so that may lead to improved growth rates of

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Figure 1. Implementation of a semi-synthetic regulon design for synthetic heterotrophy. A) The GAL
regulon, synthetically activated by Gal3p$^{Syn4.1}$, regulates GAL-responsive genes as well as hundreds of downstream
genes to promote growth. The traditional approach of constitutive overexpression cannot activate downstream
genes, which leads to starvation response and slow growth (*18*). **A)** Dose-dependent *GAL1p-EGFP* activation by
arabinose of strain expressing Gal3p^{WT} or Gal3p$^{Syn4.1}$ in and Gal2p^{WT} or Gal2p$^{2.1}$. **B)** Comparison of *GAL1p*
activation by 2 % of native sugar, galactose, and non-native sugars – xylose and arabinose. **C)** Genetic structure
of semi-integrant REG and CONS strain backgrounds. Growth curve of REG and CONS strains on **D)** arabinose
and **E)** xylose when transformed with respective arabinose and xylose isomerase pathway genes, respectively.
REG and CONS strains use GAL-responsive and constitutive promoters, respectively, for all genes indicated
(**Table S1 and S2**).
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our REG strains on xylose and arabinose (i.e., pentoses). By "intrinsic" factors, we mean native yeast

genes that are far downstream of substrate uptake and catabolism (e.g., TCA cycle, DNA replication).

For this, we identified differentially expressed genes between pentoses (non-native substrates) and

galactose (a native substrate) – since growth rate on the latter has evolved to function harmoniously as

part of the GAL regulon. Identifying the differences between two and closing the gap between them

may aid in better synchronizing GAL regulation with pentose metabolism. We chose not to investigate

previously identified genetic targets due to the vast difference in the transcriptional phenotype of REG

strains relative to traditional CONS-type designs (*18*).

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Figure 2. Systems analysis to identify intrinsic limitations in yeast for growth on pentoses. A) PCA plot of
the three conditions AR#; ARA-REG grown on arabinose, XR#; XYL-REG grown on xylose, G#; WT grown on
galactose. **B)** Differential expression volcano plot for transcriptome profile of galactose vs. xylose and arabinose
combined. **C)** GO terms enriched among non-differentially expressed genes in the galactose vs. combined
pentoses comparison are associated with growth. **D)** Network topology obtained by mapping results of differential
gene expression analysis onto the EGRIN yeast gene regulatory network. **E)** 24 highly connected genes identified
via differential gene expression and gene regulatory network analyses (with $p < 0.05$) as targets for deletion to
improve growth on pentoses.

To identify targets, we performed RNA-seq on strains grown on arabinose (ARA-REG), xylose (XYL-

REG), and galactose (WT) to characterize their respective expression profiles. As the GAL regulon has

evolved to function harmoniously during growth on a native substrate, we hypothesized that identifying

expression differences between galactose and the two non-native substrates and closing the gap

between them may aid in better synchronizing GAL regulation with pentose metabolism. Principal
component analysis (PCA) of the transcriptomic profiles revealed clear separation of all three
substrates, though the two pentoses clustered closer together than with the hexose, galactose, in PC1
(that represented 80.5% of the observed variance) (**Figure 2A**). A differential gene expression (DGE)
analysis also revealed that a total of 865 genes were differentially regulated between ARA-REG and
GAL-REG strains and 1455 genes between XYL-REG and GAL-REG strains (**Figure S1**) (p-value <
0.05 after Benjamini–Hochberg correction). We reasoned genes that are either directly regulated by
GAL regulon (e.g., *GAL2, GAL4,* etc.) make a small fraction of the transcriptome and would not be
differentially expressed in pentoses and hexoses. Rather than pursue the individual substrate
comparisons, we chose to repeat the DGE analysis to compare pentose (XYL-REG and ARA-REG) vs.
galactose utilization to identify "intrinsic" factors that differentiate growth on pentoses vs. a hexose.
Upon doing so, we found 480 genes that were upregulated and 358 genes that were downregulated
genes in pentoses vs. galactose (**Figure 2B**). Interestingly, many of the GO terms enriched among non-
differentially expressed genes in the galactose vs. combined pentoses comparison are associated with
growth, as expected from REG approaches (**Figure 2C**). Conversely, our previous comparison of
CONS and REG approaches to growth on xylose and galactose showed upregulation of stress and
starvation responses in CONS strains *(18)*.
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Given the large number of differentially expressed genes (838) between the two conditions (pentoses
vs. galactose), we sought to use gene regulatory networks (GRN) to identify core, highly-connected,
regulatory elements that could serve as major contributors to the observed divergence in transcriptional
profiles and therefore growth rates. We first identified three different yeast GRNs in the literature –
EGRIN (*21*), YEASTRACT (*22*), and CLR (*23*) – constructed from diverse data types. Next, we mapped
the differential expression data of each gene onto its corresponding node in each of the three networks.
We then restricted the networks to just the significantly differentially expressed genes (log_2 > 1.5, p-
value < 0.05) and calculated the Betweenness Centrality value for each of the remaining nodes,
collecting the identities of the top nodes. These highly-connected nodes (**Figure 2D**) broadly related to
six gene ontology (GO) terms (**Figure S2**). Of these, 24 genes were chosen as targets for knock-out to
test their effect on growth and phenotype (**Figure 2E**). We generated barcoded deletion (KO) libraries
of these "intrinsic" factors in wild-type and REG strain backgrounds and performed growth enrichments
on glucose, galactose, xylose, and arabinose (**Figure 3A**). Comparing population shifts using barcodes,
we identified eight genes that displayed positive fitness on both xylose and arabinose but not on
galactose – indicating a role in controlling growth primarily on pentoses. We then tested their growth
individually on galactose, xylose, and arabinose (**Figure 3B-D**) and found that only Δ*GLN3* was either
neutral or beneficial on both pentoses – all other deletions were detrimental for growth on xylose.
Further, the growth rates of all knockout strains were still lower than that of the parental strain on
galactose (μ = 0.24 ± 0.03 h^{-1} when *GAL1-7-10* are expressed from a plasmid, **Figure S5**), indicating
additional limitations. Overall, these systems metabolic engineering approaches failed to identify
genetic factors broadly beneficial to growth on pentoses. In contrast, the genome-wide expression
changes effected by GAL regulon activation are beneficial for all three substrates.

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194 **Figure 3. Effect of gene knockouts on growth phenotype**. **A)** Fitness map of knock-out library of 24 genes
195 identified from the mutual information network. The scale represents fitness ranging from blue (negative) to orange
196 (positive). Growth rates of KOs with positive fitness on **B)** galactose, **C)** xylose (*GAL1p- XYLA*3 GAL10p -XKS1*),
197 **D)** arabinose (*GAL1p-araB GAL10p-araA GAL7p-araD*).
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Pentose metabolism is largely extrinsically (upstream) controlled with a regulon approach.
Our studies have so far focused on identifying "intrinsic" factors that may be controlling/bottlenecking
growth on pentoses and given the inconsistent benefits, we wondered whether the limitations were, in
fact, "extrinsic". The former implies that the native metabolic and/or regulatory capacity of this yeast is
inherently limited for effective pentose metabolism and improving growth rate requires vast restructuring
of associated (intrinsic) metabolic and/or regulatory networks. The latter implies that there are no
inherent limitations in this yeast and that it is already poised for rapid growth on pentoses, but the
observed low growth rates are due to suboptimal design of the upstream metabolic module that includes
the heterologous (extrinsic) genes. To assess whether the "extrinsic limitation" paradigm has any merits,
we needed to optimize the design of the upstream metabolic module responsible for substrate uptake
and flux into central carbon metabolism (i.e., glycolysis).

First, we looked at the effect of plasmid copy number. For arabinose, there was no difference in growth
rate when *araA-araB-araD* genes were expressed on high- or low-copy plasmids, whereas for xylose,
we only observed growth when the *XYLA*3-XKS1* gene dose was high (**Figure S4**). In either case,
changing plasmids backbone did not improve growth rate. Next, we hypothesized that balancing
expression of these heterologous genes may be required to enhance growth rate. For arabinose, we
created all six combinations of gene-promoter pairings and assessed their performance. Surprisingly,
we found marked improvement in growth rate – from 0.14 ± 0.04 h^{-1} in the original design to 0.27 ± 0.03
h^{-1} in the best re-design (**Figure 4A**). To understand the cause of this behavioral change, we compared
the relative expression levels of the *araA*, *araB,* and *araD* using quantitative reverse transcription PCR

Figure 4. Optimizing extrinsic (upstream) factors to enhance growth of yeast on pentoses. A) Comparison of growth performance of different promoter-gene combination. **B)** Gene expression analysis of the six strains by qPCR. Pearson correlation coefficient between growth rate and gene expression levels of **C)** *araA:araB*, **D)** *araB:araD,* and **E)** *araA:araD*, respectively. **G)** Enrichment of mutagenic *araBAD* library in SC+Ara. **H)** Fitness heatmap of strain dynamics during enrichment on arabinose, reveled by sequencing barcodes. **I)** Growth curves and **J)** qPCR expression profile of *araBAD* genes encoded in plasmids isolated from top performing strains isolated after directed evolution.

(qPCR) (**Figure 4B**). We observed that in the poor performing combinations, expression of *araB*
(ribulokinase) was the highest, whereas, in high performing combinations, expression level followed
this pattern *araA > araB > araD*. In addition, we found a strong positive correlation between growth rate
and relative expression of *araA*:*araB* and *araA*:*araD*, respectively (**Figure 4C-E**). The success of this
approach encouraged us to attempt the same on xylose and found similar improvements – from 0.17 ±
0.01 h^{-1} to 0.24 ± 0.01 h^{-1} (**Figure S5**). These are comparable to the growth rate of yeast on galactose
when *GAL1-7-10* are expressed from a plasmid (0.24 ± 0.03 h^{-1}) (**Figure S3**).

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Figure 5. **Effect of gene deletions on growth and stress-response phenotypes. A)** Growth rate of the optimized
plasmids in KO-strains. Fitness of KOs in presence of individual stressors when grown on **B)** sucrose and **C)**
arabinose or in the mixture of stressors on **D)** sucrose and **E)** arabinose. The relative fitness is expressed as growth
of deletion strains over the fitness of parental strain under the same conditions. NaCl = sodium chloride; NaAc =
sodium acetate; Fur = furfural; 5HMF = 5-hydroxymethylfurfural; Vald = veratraldehyde. 1/2x, 1/4x, 1/8x = serial
dilutions of the five stressors combined. Xyl* = *GAL10p-XYLA*3 GAL7p-XKS1*; Ara* = *GAL1p-araA GAL10p-araB*
GAL7p-araD in respective REG backgrounds.

Finally, we used directed evolution to improve the growth rate on arabinose further. We randomly
mutagenized the six arabinose pathway combinations, adding barcodes to track the lineages and
enriched this library size of 10^8 variants in minimal (SC+Ara) and complex (2YP+Ara) arabinose media.
Over the course of 15 subcultures, the growth rate over subcultures increased from 0.12 h^{-1} to 0.22 h^{-1}
and 0.18 h^{-1} to 0.26 h^{-1} in SC+Ara and 2YP+Ara, respectively (**Figure 4G, S6**). Using barcodes, we

tracked the performance of promoter-gene combinations. We observed that initially all the six plasmids
start at similar abundance, but the *araA-B-D* (under *GAL1-10-7p*, respectively) was the most abundant
at the end of enrichment in SC+Ara. We picked single colonies from each condition and calculated their
growth rates and identified 4 variants that showed the highest growth rates (0.35 ± 0.04 h^{-1}) from the
SC+Ara enriched culture (**Figure S7**). We sequenced the barcodes to identify the lineage and the whole
cassette to identify the mutations and found that three of the six initial designs were represented in the
four best variants (named N-3, N-6, N-12, and N-16) (**Table S3**). Re-transformation into parent
background strain indicated that the four variants attained the same maximum growth rate as that on
galactose (0.29 ± 0.01 h^{-1}), which is the highest reported growth rate on any pentose reported in the
literature for this yeast (**Figure 4I**). Since the mutations were distributed throughout the cassettes, we
quantified the expression levels of *araA*, *araB*, and *araD* in the four strains (**Figure 4J**) and found
patterns that differed significantly than parental strains (**Figure 4B**). We saw a strong positive
correlation between growth rate and relative expression of *araA*:*araB* and negative correlation between
araB:*araD*, indicating that the directed evolution campaign likely altered both activity and expression in
each strain differently (**Figure S8**). These results highlight a key insight about yeast: it's ability to utilize
pentoses is largely limited only by "extrinsic" factors (upstream pathway, especially heterologous
enzyme activity) and minimally by any "intrinsic" factor (i.e., native regulation or metabolic pathway).
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Engineering intrinsic (downstream) genes lead to pleiotropic fitness trade-offs.
Next, we assessed whether the global regulatory elements identified through our network analysis
would benefit our best designs (*araA-B-D* under *GAL1-10-7p* and *XYLA*3-XKS1* under *GAL1-7p*).
Deleting each of the 8 genes in this strain did not result in any improvements over the parental strains
(**Figure 5A**). Here too, we could explore a combinatorial deletion of ALE strategy to enhance growth
rate. However, given that each strain with had already attained aerobic growth rate equivalent to the
maximum described for this yeast on glucose and galactose (0.22 h^{-1} – 0.29 h^{-1}) (*13, 20*) with high
biomass yields and short lag, we expect that improvements would be insignificant.
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One consideration not yet accounted for is the suitability these strains for bioprocessing and their
resilience to growth inhibitors found in lignocellulosic hydrolysates. Given that all deletion targets are
highly-connected genes that control key cellular processes, we were concerned that dysregulation
major networks may lead to undesirable pleiotropic effects. Since resilience against stress is a complex
phenotype, often requiring concerted response from gene networks, we tested the fitness of all single
knockout (KO) strains on several stressors (sodium chloride, sodium acetate, furfural, 5-
hydroxymethylfurfural, and veratraldehyde) relevant to bioprocessing individually and in combination
(**Figure 5B-E**). Using parental strain as reference, we observed that performance of strains under stress
was highly context-dependent. For example, in sucrose medium, all deletions lost fitness in single or
mixed inhibitor cultures (**Figure 5C, E**). Conversely, on arabinose (with GAL regulon activated), certain
KO strains had improved tolerance to stressors (e.g., *ΔTEC1, ΔMET28*) (**Figure 5D, F**). *ΔGLN3* has
previously been shown to improve fitness under isobutanol stress (*24*); however, in our study, it was
less fit than the parental strain under all stress conditions. Interestingly, it did demonstrate improved

growth rate in a sub-optimal upstream metabolic design in arabinose (**Figure 3E**) but lost that benefit
in a more optimized design (**Figure 5C, E**). Collectively, these results highlight that deleting genes to
remodel expression profiles to enhance a single phenotype (e.g., growth rate on a non-native substrate)
can lead to some improvements, but they are often accompanied by negative pleiotropic effects that
make the strain less suitable for eventual bioprocessing applications where growth conditions are often
non-ideal.
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DISCUSSION
Despite decades of effort engineering synthetic heterotrophy with *S. cerevisiae*, there is not formalized
understanding of what limits metabolic adaptability of this yeast for growth on pentoses. It is important
to differentiate between substrate utilization/uptake from growth since the former can be readily
achieved by diverting flux to unwanted or dead-end byproducts (e.g., Crabtree metabolites, organic
acids, pentitols) often with native substrate supplementation to support biomass generation. However,
valorization to high-value products requires efficient catabolism to central metabolic products whose
concentrations and fluxes are regulated and associated with growth. Initial studies in literature focused
on upstream ("extrinsic") elements (e.g., heterologous gene expression/activity, transporter
engineering, etc. (*25-29*)) whereas recent focus has been more "intrinsic", focusing on functional
genomics, adaptively laboratory evolution (ALE), and often network/systems analysis, to identify
downstream limitations (*5-13*). Successes have been abundantly reported with improvements in growth
along with a series of deletion and overexpression targets (*PHO13, ALD6, ASK10, YPR1, SNF6, RGT1,*
CAT8, MSN4, GPD1, CCH1, ADH6, BUD21, ALP1, ISC1, RPL20B, COX4, ISU1, SSK2, YLR042c,
CYC8, PHD1, TEC1, ARR1, etc. (*13, 30-36*)). Interestingly, many targets are unique to individual
studies, further highlighting the context dependence of targets on initial strain designs. Typifying the
traditional approach is a recent report where all the aforementioned extensive systems metabolic
engineering approaches were used to develop a strain of yeast with high growth aerobic growth rate
(0.26 h^{-1}) and short lag phase (9-15 h) on xylose (*13*). However, it is not clear if the insights were
translatable to engineering growth on any other substrate.
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Through our work, we posit that requirement for extensive engineering to identify intrinsic limitations is
only required when the initial strain design is sub-optimal. Indeed, constitutive overexpression of
upstream metabolic genes results in significant stress (*18*) and low growth rates that must be
compensated for through systems approaches focused on preventing cellular detection of stress rather
than activating growth supporting systems. We demonstrated that with an optimal upstream module,
strains can attain superior growth profiles (fast specific growth rate, $\mu \geq 0.24$ h^{-1}; short lag phase, <10
h; high final biomass, OD$_{600}$ >10) if a growth-associated regulon – the GAL regulon – is activated. This
builds on our prior observation that synthetic activation of the GAL regulon potentiates cells for rapid
growth on non-native substrates by upregulating growth responsive genes and suppressing starvation
responses (*18*). Importantly, using this approach our final strain designs had minimal modifications –
we deleted only one gene (other than the Leloir pathway genes) – *GRE3* – to minimize oxidation of
substrate pentoses to pentitols. Many genes that have previously been identified as important

inactivation targets to improve growth on pentoses are intact. We also overexpressed only a minimal
upstream metabolic module (*TAL1* and *GAL2*[2.1]) along with the specific pentose metabolic genes
(*araBAD* or *XYLA*3-XKS1*). Our work strongly argues that growth on pentoses is largely extrinsically
controlled and there are no major intrinsic regulatory or metabolic limitations in this yeast. This insight
presents a paradigm shift in engineering synthetic heterotrophy.

An additional advantage of this approach is the preservation of native regulatory systems that are
otherwise dysregulated in the traditional engineering approach. We found that while deletion of
endogenous genes could improve growth in strains with sub-optimal upstream modules under certain
conditions, they are associated with pleiotropic defects and are less robust in the presence of common
lignocellulosic inhibitors. This is not surprising since most genetic interventions aim to suppress cellular
responses to stress rather than promote growth. Thus, strains engineered for synthetic heterotrophy
through extensive gene inactivation are less robust for eventual bioprocess applications. This highlights
a major drawback of the traditional systems metabolic engineering approaches like ALE. In contrast,
our regulon-based approach is minimalistic and holistic – our strains maintain native regulatory systems
and even exploited them toward the engineering goal (i.e., the GAL regulon). This approach significantly
simplifies and expedites the design-build-test cycle for synthetic heterotrophy and demonstrates the
intrinsic adaptability of yeast toward growth on non-native substrates. We expect that this insight and
approach will expand the utility of this yeast for valorizing current and emerging waste and/abundant
substrates.

DATA AVAILABILITY
RNA-seq sequencing data has been submitted to NCBI SRA and is available under accession
PRJNA837644. R script for mutual information network is available at https://github.com/nair-lab/yeast-
MINet.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
N.U.N., V.D.T., and D.C. conceived and designed the research project. V.D.T., S.F.S., D.C., and N.U.N.
co-wrote the manuscript. V.D.T., S.F.S., V.E.G., and T.H. performed the experiments. V.D.T., S.F.S.,
and N.U.N. analyzed the data. All the authors have reviewed the manuscript and approved it for
submission.

COMPETING INTERESTS
None.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

371
372 **Strains and plasmids.**

373 The list of plasmids and strains used are listed in Supplementary **Table S1 and S2**. Strain W303-1a
374 (*MATa leu2-3,112 trp1-1 can1-100 ura3-1 ade2-1 his3-11,15*) and plasmids pIS374, pIS376, pIS385
375 were obtained from Euroscarf (Germany). The plasmids were constructed in the present using NEB-
376 HiFi DNA assembly master mix from NEB (Beverly, MA).

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Growth studies.

Overnight inoculums were grown in the required dropout SC medium with sucrose (2 %). The culture
was washed twice in the growth medium and resuspended at an initial OD_{600} of 0.1 with appropriate
sugar (2 %) in 250 mL shake flasks containing 20 mL of media. OD600 measurement was checked at
frequent time intervals (3-6 h) on SpectraMax M3 spectrophotometer (Molecular Devices). Growth rate
was determined by plotting the values in GraphPad Prism following non-linear regression and using
exponential growth equation, $Y = Y_0\,exp(kX)$.

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Directed evolution.

Error prone PCR libraries of arabinose cassettes (pVDT14, pVDT38-42) were generated as described
earlier (*18*). Six-barcoded primers (**Table S4**) were used to track the proportion of the lineage during
the enrichment. The amplicons from error prone PCR were assembled into pRS413 plasmids using
yeast gap-repair cloning. To attain high library size, the linear fragments were transformed into yeast
by electroporation as described previously (*37*). We attained library size of ~10^8 CFUs which was then
subjected to enrichment on arabinose in 2YP as well SC media. The cell pellets from each passage
were frozen for quantifying barcodes using amplicon sequencing (Genewiz, Cambridge, MA). At the
end of enrichment, the library pool was plated on 2YP+Ara and SC+Ara and 18 colonies were randomly
picked for growth rate determination. The plasmids from best variants were isolated from strain,
transformed into *E. coli*. The corresponding plasmid isolated from *E. coli* was sequenced and re-
transformed into REG-strain for growth rate determination.

398
399 **Genomics integrations.**

400 Accessory cassettes (pVDT29, 30, 35, **Table S1**) were integrated into VEG16 (W303-1a, Δ*GRE3*,
401 Δ*GAL1*, Δ*GAL3*, Δ*GAL7*, Δ*GAL10*) (*18*) strain via disintegrator plasmid(*38*). Counterselection was
402 performed on SC medium with 1 g/L 5-FOA to remove the *URA3* marker and the locus was amplified,
403 and sequence confirmed.

404
Deletion library.

To generate the deletion library, the cassettes for the required targets were amplified from the genomic
DNA of the appropriate strains from the KO collection (*39*). Since the cassettes contained *KANMX*
marker, the library was selected on YP+G418 (400 µg/mL). The pool was stored as a stock and used
for studying the fitness by transforming it with plasmids for galactose, xylose, and arabinose utilizing
cassettes.

qPCR expression analysis.

Total yeast RNA isolation was performed on OD ~ 1 of yeast cells collected from mid-log phase growth using the GeneJet RNA Purification Kit (Thermofisher Scientific Catalog #: K0731) according to the instructions for isolating yeast RNA. Two samples were collected for each growth condition. The concentration of total RNA isolated was obtained by measuring 10-fold dilutions from each sample on a spectrophotometer. Using these concentrations, 2.5 µg of total RNA was subjected to the 'routine' DNase treatment protocol using the Invitrogen Turbo DNA-free Kit (Thermofisher Scientific Catalog #: AM1907). Next, 20 % of the final reaction (10-50 µL, targeting 500 ng RNA) was used to synthesize cDNA for the sample using the Invitrogen SuperScript IV First-Strand Synthesis System (Thermofisher Scientific Catalog #: 18091050). The random hexamers supplied by the kit were used to prime the reverse transcriptase enzyme. cDNA samples were diluted 100-fold (2 µL into 198 µL dH$_2$O), of which 2 µL was used as the template for a 15 µL qPCR reaction using the Applied Biosystems PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermofisher Scientific Catalog #: A25741). Each sample was tested for the expression level of five genes: the three arabinose catabolic genes (*araA, araB*, and *araD*) as well as two housekeeping genes (*TFC1* and *UBC6*) using the primers listed in **Table S5**. Reactions were run on an Applied Biosystems Quantstudio 5 Real-Time PCR Instrument. The relative expression level of each catabolic genes was calculated by subtracting the geometric mean of the cycle thresholds (Ct) of the two housekeeping genes from the Ct of that catabolic gene, followed by conversion of the log-base two Ct into a non-log value that can be compared across genes.

RNA-seq.

Transcriptomics of strains WT, XYL-REG, ARA-REG were performed on the mid-log phase cultures grown on their respective carbon source (galactose, xylose, or arabinose). Cells pellets were washed twice in water and stored at −80 °C and outsourced to Genewiz Inc. for RNA extraction and sequencing. RNA-seq was performed on Illumina HiSeq. Raw FASTQ files were processed for differential expression analysis using GeneiousPrime. The possible adapter sequences and low-quality short-read (less than 50 bp) trimming were performed using BB-Trim package. The reads were aligned to the reference genome W303 obtained from Saccharomyces Genome Database (http://www.yeastgenome.org) using Bow-Tie2 package. The edgeR package was used to normalize the gene count based on library size and was converted to cpm (counts per million) using. DESEQ2 package was sued for differential gene expression analysis. Genes with p-values < 0.05 and fold change of $\geq$ 2 were considered as differentially expressed.

Amplicon sequencing analysis.

The total DNA was extracted and quantified using a spectrophotometer and approximately 100 ng was used as template for PCRs. Unique, barcoded primers flanked by Illumina sequencing adaptors were used to generate the amplicons after 15-20 cycles of PCR for sequencing (**Table S6**). The barcoded samples were pooled and sent for amplicon sequencing (2×250 bp, Genewiz, New Jersey, USA). For each pooled sample, we received approximately 100,000 sequencing reads. These data were

processed according to a previously described bioinformatic workflow using Geneious Prime® 2020.2.4
(*40*). Briefly, the reads were paired and merged using the BBMerge package and filtered for poor-quality
reads using the BBDuk package. The reads were mapped using BowTie2 and gene expression was
calculated and differential expression was determined using DESeq2 (*41*).

Network analysis.
The *S. cerevisiae* genes that we consider as the 'gold standard' list of transcription factors is the unique
set of genes identified in the file supplemental data **File S1**. Our analysis utilizes three yeast genetic
regulatory networks (EGRIN, YEASTRACT, and CLR) (*42*) in the context of integrating regulatory and
metabolic networks to enable more accurate prediction of yeast phenotypes in different growth
conditions (*43*). The Environment and Gene Regulatory Influence Network (EGRIN) consists of 92
regulators and 2,588 interactions and was constructed using the cMonkey and Inferelator computational
tools trained on expression data from 2,929 microarray experiments to identify gene clusters and
potential regulatory genes. The YEASTRACT gene regulatory network was extracted directly from the
YEASTRACT database2 and consists of 177 regulators and 31,075 regulatory associations based on
both 'direct evidence' – chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP), ChIP-on-chip, electrophoretic mobility
shift assay, or examination of the effect of TF binding site mutations on target gene expression – as
well as 'indirect evidence' provided by gene expression changes in response to deletion, mutation, or
overexpression of a given TF3.

The context likelihood of relatedness (CLR) algorithm quantifies the amount of mutual information
shared between all possible gene pairs in each set of gene expression data. The regulatory network is
then inferred by taking the distribution of calculated mutual information for all gene pairs and filtering
out gene pairs whose mutual information content is below a chosen threshold with the remaining pairs
considered to be connections in the network4. The R programming language was used for importing
and manipulating data. R scripts can be found in https://github.com/nair-lab/yeast-MINet.

Stressor studies.
We determined fitness of the strains in presence of various stressors encountered during
biomanufacturing using plate assay. Briefly, we tested the growth of by performing spot dilution on 2YP
supplemented with 2 % sucrose or arabinose and various concentration of the stressors (**Table S7**).
The plates after incubation were imaged and the colonies were counted to determine the CFUs. The
CFUs in the presence of the stressor was divided by the CFUs in absence of the stressor to determine
the fitness of that strain. This value was normalized to the fitness of the parental strain and was
expressed as the relative fitness.

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