Main Manuscript for

A patchwork pathway of apparently recent origin enables degradation of the synthetic buffer compound TRIS in bacteria.

Johannes Holert[1*], Aron Borker[1], Laura Nübel[1], Rolf Daniel[2], Anja Poehlein[2], Bodo Philipp[1,3*]

[1] Institute for Molecular Microbiology and Biotechnology, Microbial Biotechnology & Ecology group, University of Münster, Münster, Germany

[2] Institute for Microbiology and Genetics, University of Göttingen, Göttingen, Germany

[3] Environmental Microbiology, Fraunhofer Institute for Molecular Biology and Applied Ecology, Schmallenberg, Germany

* Corresponding authors: Johannes Holert, Bodo Philipp

Email: johannes.holert@uni-muenster.de

Author Contributions: JH conceived the study, designed, planned, and performed experiments, supervised the work, analysed data, and wrote the manuscript. AB performed cloning, conjugation, and isolation experiments and analysed data. LN performed isolation and growth experiment and analysed data. RD contributed reagents and analytic tools. AP performed DNA and RNA extractions, library preparation, DNA sequencing, and transcriptome analysis, and edited the manuscript. BP conceived the study, supervised the work, co-wrote the manuscript, and supplied funding.

Competing Interest Statement: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Classification: Biological Sciences/Microbiology

Keywords: TRIS, bacterial catabolism, pathway evolution, horizontal gene transfer, Pseudomonas

This PDF file includes:

>   Main Text
>   Figures 1 to 5
>   Tables 1 to 2

Abstract

The widely used synthetic chemical 2-amino-2-hydroxymethyl-propane-1,3-diol (TRIS) was long considered to be biologically inert. Herein, we describe a complete degradation pathway for the catabolism of TRIS in bacteria. By serendipity, *Pseudomonas hunanensis* Teo1 was isolated from sewage sludge and shown to be able to grow with TRIS as only carbon and nitrogen source. Genome sequencing and transcriptome analyses revealed two adjacent gene clusters embedded in a mobile genetic element on a conjugative plasmid to be upregulated during growth with TRIS. Conjugational transfer of this plasmid into *P. putida* KT2440 enabled this strain to grow with TRIS confirming that these clusters encode the complete TRIS degradation pathway. Heterologous gene expression in *Escherichia coli* revealed cluster I to encode a TRIS uptake protein, a TRIS dehydrogenase, and a TRIS aldehyde dehydrogenase, which catalyze the oxidation of TRIS into 2-hydroxymethylserine. Phylogenetic analysis suggests that the TRIS dehydrogenase proteins evolved from choline dehydrogenases. Genes encoded in cluster II encode a methylserine hydroxymethyltransferase and a D-serine dehydratase which could plausibly catalyze conversion of 2-hydroxymethylserine into pyruvate. Subsequent enrichments from wastewater purification systems led to the isolation of further TRIS-degrading bacteria from the *Pseudomonas* and *Shinella* genera which all carried the respective gene clusters in a similar genetic context as strain Teo1.

Our data indicate that TRIS degradation evolved by gene assembly and enzyme adaptation from multiple independent metabolic pathways. Genomic database searches showed that TRIS degradation is now globally distributed, confirming its dissemination by horizontal gene transfer.

Significance statement

TRIS is a synthetic organic chemical that has been mass-produced since the 1950s and is now used in countless applications in industry, medicine, and households world-wide, in parts due to its presumed biological inertness. Our results challenge this common conception, showing that TRIS is biologically degradable by an apparently recently evolved pathway, providing insight into the evolution of metabolic pathways that make such ubiquitous chemicals available as growth substrates for bacteria. Such knowledge is valuable for developing new processes of wastewater purification in times of increasing water scarcity.

Introduction

Since the beginning of the industrial revolution hundreds of thousands of new pesticides, herbicides, medical drugs, and other industrial chemicals were synthesized to meet the growing demand of newly emerging agricultural, pharmaceutical, and industrial applications (1). Many of these anthropogenic chemicals eventually end up in the environment, where their removal is initially restricted due to the absence of efficient biological degradation mechanisms. However, more and more degradation pathways for chemicals that were introduced in the early twentieth century are now being discovered in microbes, suggesting that functional mineralization pathways can evolve within decades after the initial exposure of the microbial community (2). A prominent example is the degradation pathway for the anthropogenic herbicide atrazine, which has evolved in the genus *Pseudomonas* around fifty years after the large scale introduction of atrazine to the market, enabling these bacteria to exploit this compound as a carbon and nitrogen source for growth (3). Similarly, catabolic mineralization pathways for other industrially relevant compounds that were introduced in the early twentieth century including herbicides, pesticides, food additives, and medical drugs are now found in different microorganisms isolated from habitats exposed to these chemicals (4–8). Here, novel pathways can evolve as a result of sufficient positive selective pressure for either the detoxification of such chemicals or their use as a new nutrient source (2). Typically, novel degradation pathways emerge in a process called patchwork assembly by the recruitment, adaptation, and mutation of one or more genes encoding promiscuous enzymes from other metabolic pathways, either from within the host organism via gene duplication or via horizonal gene transfer (HGT) from the microbial community (1, 2, 9). If the mutations happen to increase the substrate affinity and catalytic activity towards the respective new substrate and if the new catalytic activity enables the host to transform the new substrate into metabolites of an already existing metabolic pathway, it will gain a selective advantage over competing microbes by being able to use this compound as a new nutrient and energy resource (1, 2). The genetic information encoding such novel catabolic pathways is often located on mobile genetic elements, such as plasmids or transposons, enabling transfer of the novel pathway to other microbes via HGT (4, 10, 11). Eventually, positive selection for the new catabolic trait can lead to a loss of mobility and manifestation of the new pathway in the genome of its host.

However, the environmental concentrations of synthetic compounds may be too low to provide enough selection pressure for the evolution of novel catabolic pathways. Especially in

wastewater treatment plants where the availability of other, readily degradable organic
compounds is high, many low-concentrated synthetic compounds presumably reside too
shortly for the evolution of novel degradation pathways and remain in the purified wastewater
as so-called micropollutants (12, 13). Even some synthetic and natural compounds for which
efficient biodegradation pathways exist, such as steroid hormones, are sometimes not fully
metabolized in wastewater treatment plants due to their low concentration and contribute to the
micropollutant pool. To enhance the biodegradation of such micropollutants, bioaugmentation
of water treatment facilities is increasingly being considered, which implies the establishment
of microorganisms in the water purification processes, which have been isolated for their ability
to efficiently degrade the respective organic compounds (14, 15).

The study presented here was originally set up to isolate bacteria capable of degrading
steroid hormones in low concentrations from activated sludge. To increase the chances of
isolating strains that can later be established for bioaugmentation in real wastewater treatment
plant conditions, we used an artificial wastewater medium to mimic typical wastewater nutrient
conditions. Surprisingly, our enrichment procedure resulted in the isolation of a bacterial strain
that did not grow with the provided steroid hormones, but with the synthetic medium buffer
TRIS (2-amino-2-(hydroxymethyl)propane-1,3-diol). Herein, we pursued this finding further
and present the identification and characterization of a bacterial degradation pathway for TRIS,
which has been considered to be biologically inert so far.

Results

Isolation and characterization of the TRIS-degrading strain *Pseudomonas hunanensis* Teo1

The first TRIS-degrading organism was isolated from an enrichment culture that was originally designed to isolate testosterone-degrading bacteria from activated sludge (**Supp. Methods**). We repeatedly observed growth in the enrichment cultures in TRIS-buffered artificial wastewater medium without removal of the provided carbon source testosterone (not shown). Plating of the enrichment cultures onto solid medium containing testosterone resulted in the isolation of a bacterial strain that was not able to grow with testosterone but showed growth in liquid artificial wastewater medium without the addition of any extra carbon or nitrogen source. Subsequent growth experiments in phosphate buffered minimal medium with different concentrations of TRIS confirmed a linear relationship between the provided TRIS concentration and the amount of biomass produced by the isolate (**Fig. 1A**), suggesting that TRIS was the growth substrate in these cultures. Growth experiments coupled with HPLC-MS analysis confirmed that TRIS was completely removed from the culture medium, suggesting its utilization as a carbon and nitrogen source for growth (**Fig. 1B-D**). The only detectable metabolite accumulating in the medium was ammonium, with around 40 % of the nitrogen introduced with the TRIS substrate being released as ammonium into the medium (**Fig. 1C-D**). Strain Teo1 was not able to use the structurally similar amino alcohols serinol, 2-amino-2-methyl-1-propanol, and 2-amino-2-methyl-1,3-propanediol as growth substrates (**Supp. Fig. S1**), while it was able to use the quaternary ammonium compounds choline and betaine, and the secondary amine sarcosine as substrates. It further grew with the amino acids D- and L-serine, but not with glycine. Based on its whole genome sequence (**Supp. Methods**), the isolate was taxonomically classified as a representative of the species *Pseudomonas hunanensis* and was named strain Teo1 (**Supp. Tab. ST1**). The genome of strain Teo1 consists of a circular chromosome (6.13 Mbp) and two large, circular plasmids, p1_Teo1 (156.3 kbp) and p2_Teo1 (65.0 kbp).

Identification of TRIS degradation genes

TRIS growth experiments and time-resolved analysis of TRIS degradation in cell suspensions of strain Teo1 showed that Tris degradation was induced in cells pre-grown with TRIS while it was not induced in pyruvate pre-grown cells (**Supp. Fig. S2**), suggesting that TRIS catabolism is regulated at the transcriptional level in strain Teo1. Based on this observation we used transcriptomics to identify potential TRIS degradation genes by

quantifying mRNA levels in TRIS-grown and pyruvate-grown Teo1 cells. A total of 398 genes
were differentially regulated in TRIS- compared to pyruvate-grown cells (fold change (FC) >
4, $p_{adj} < 0.05$, **Fig. 1E**, **Dataset SD1**), of which 65 were upregulated in TRIS-grown cells. Ten
of the twelve most upregulated genes in TRIS-grown cells were found in two adjacent gene
clusters (**Fig. 1E-G**) localized on the p1_Teo1 plasmid. The genes in cluster I were annotated
as a putative solute binding protein, an amino acid/polyamine-like transporter protein, a choline
dehydrogenase-like protein, a NAD/NADP-dependent aldehyde dehydrogenase, a Δ(1)-
pyrroline-2-carboxylate/Δ(1)-piperideine-2-carboxylate reductase-like protein, and an alpha-
ketoglutaric semialdehyde dehydrogenase-like protein (**Tab. 1**). The genes in cluster II were
annotated as a serine hydroxymethyltransferase-like protein, a D-serine dehydratase-like
protein, and two proteins presumably involved in the transformation of methylene
tetrahydrofolate into tetrahydrofolate and formate. The clusters are separated by a gene that
encodes a helix-turn-helix (HTH)-type transcriptional regulator. Based on the similar
upregulation of their genes, both gene clusters appear to be expressed as operons (**Fig. 1G**).
Due to their strong upregulation and their colocalization in putative operons we proposed that
these genes or a subset of them are involved in TRIS degradation in strain Teo1.

Characterization of the initial TRIS degradation reactions

Based on the predicted protein functions encoded in the upregulated gene clusters, we
hypothesized that TRIS is initially oxidized by the proteins encoded in cluster I. To test this,
we cloned combinations of the genes encoding the putrescine importer-like protein, the choline
dehydrogenase-like protein and the aldehyde dehydrogenase into the expression plasmid
pUCp18, transformed the plasmids into *E. coli*, and tested high density cell suspensions of the
resulting strains for TRIS transformation activity. While the *E. coli* strains that carry only the
putrescine importer gene or the choline and aldehyde dehydrogenase genes did not transform
TRIS, the strain with all three genes transformed TRIS almost completely into a new compound
within 24 h (**Fig. 2A**). This compound was identified as 2-hydroxymethylserine (**Fig. 2B**) based
on its molecular weight, which was 14 Da heavier than that of TRIS, suggesting the oxidation
of one hydroxymethyl group into a carboxylic group. To test whether this presumable TRIS
degradation intermediate can be further utilized by strain Teo1, sterilized culture supernatants
containing 2-hydroxymethylserine were used as growth medium for Teo1, confirming that
strain Teo1 can grow with and fully degrade 2-hydroxymethylserine (**Fig. 2C**). These results
supported our hypothesis that TRIS is transported into the cells by the putrescine importer-like
protein and subsequently oxidized by the choline dehydrogenase-like protein and the aldehyde

dehydrogenase. Thus, we propose that these genes encode a TRIS uptake protein (TupA), and

two TRIS-oxidizing proteins, namely a TRIS dehydrogenase (TopA) and a TRIS aldehyde

dehydrogenase (TopB).

Isolation of further TRIS-degrading bacteria and genomic analysis of TRIS degradation

Subsequent targeted enrichment of TRIS-degrading bacteria resulted in the isolation of

seven *Pseudomonas* strains (Teo2, Teo3, Teo4, Teo6, Teo8, Teo10, and Teo11) and one

Shinella zoogloeoides strain (Teo12) (**Supp. Tab. ST1**). All isolates were all able to grow with

TRIS as only carbon and nitrogen source and completely removed TRIS from the culture

medium (**Supp. Fig. S3**). The *Pseudomonas* strains Teo2, Teo4, Teo6, Teo8, and Teo11 and

the *Shinella* isolate strain Teo12 were isolated from different municipal wastewater treatment

plant samples, *Pseudomonas sichuanensis* Teo3 from an activated charcoal basin of a water

purification plant, and *Pseudomonas* sp. strain Teo10 from a freshwater lake sample.

Enrichment cultures from two additional wastewater treatment plants and from five freshwater

habitats did not develop growth (**Supp. Tab. ST1)**.

We sequenced the genomes of five *Pseudomonas* isolates (**Supp. Methods**) and found

homologous TRIS degradation gene clusters to the ones identified in strain Teo1 in all of these

strains (**Fig. 3, Suppl. Fig. S4**). In *Pseudomonas* strains Teo2, Teo4, Teo6, and Teo8 the

clusters are also localized on plasmids (p1_Teo2, p1_Teo4, p1_Teo6, and p2_Teo8) and the

plasmids have high similarities to p1_Teo1 (**Fig. 3A**). In *Pseudomonas* strain Teo3, the clusters

are encoded in the chromosome (**Fig. 3B**). While all gene clusters II are highly similar, only

the *tupA*, *topA*, and *topB* genes are conserved in all cluster I sequences (**Fig. 3, Suppl. Fig. S4**),

suggesting that the ∆(1)-pyrroline-2-carboxylate/∆(1)-piperideine-2-carboxylate reductase-

like protein and the alpha-ketoglutaric semialdehyde dehydrogenase-like protein are not

required for TRIS degradation. In all these strains, the TRIS degradation gene clusters are

flanked by sequences similar to known bacterial insertion elements (**Fig. 3B**), suggesting that

the TRIS degradation gene clusters are located within a mobile genetic element (11). A search

in the NCBI nucleotide database identified one *Priestia* genome (accession CP065422.1) and

three *Pseudomonas* genomes (CP069081.1, CP097105.1, CP114115.1) with homologous gene

clusters (**Fig. 3A, Suppl. Fig. S4**). In *Priestia*, and two of the *Pseudomonas* strains the clusters

are also plasmid-borne, while they are encoded chromosomally in *Pseudomonas* sp. strain

GXZC (**Fig. 3B**).

We also sequenced the genome of the *Shinella* isolate (**Supp. Methods**), which consists of

one circular chromosomes (3.54 Mbp) and three circular plasmids, p1_Teo12 (1.89 Mbp),

p2_Teo12 (221.54 kbp) and p3_Teo12 (140.01 kbp), which have no apparent similarity to the

TRIS degradation-encoding *Pseudomonas* plasmids. However, a DNA region on p2_Teo12

encodes homologs of all TRIS degradation genes in two adjacent gene clusters, except for the

genes encoding the solute binding protein, the uptake protein TupA, the Δ(1)-pyrroline-2-

carboxylate/Δ(1)-piperideine-2-carboxylate reductase-like protein, and the alpha-ketoglutaric

semialdehyde dehydrogenase-like protein (**Fig. 3B, Suppl. Fig. S4**). In these clusters, the *topA*

and *topB* gene homologs are encoded in the same orientation as in cluster I of the *Pseudomonas*

TRIS degradation gene clusters, while the genes are differently oriented in cluster II. A

homologous regulator gene to the one found in the *Pseudomonas* gene clusters is located

upstream of this cluster. A search in the NCBI nucleotide database identified a closely related

Rhizobium oryzihabitans strain M15 (CP048637.1), that carries a homologous DNA segment

on a plasmid (p5, **Fig. 3B**). The predicted TRIS degradation gene clusters in *S. zoogloeoides*

Teo12 and strain M15 are separated by a truncated transposase gene and flanked by additional

transposase genes and insertion elements.

A phylogenetic analysis of the TopA proteins with closely related proteins of the glucose-

methanol-choline oxidoreductase family (GMC, InterPro IPR012132) revealed that the TopA

proteins form a unique cluster that diverges from a clade containing choline dehydrogenase

protein sequences (**Supp. Fig. S5A**). In contrast, other choline dehydrogenase proteins of the

TRIS-degrading isolates encoded outside of the TRIS degradation gene clusters cluster within

the choline dehydrogenase clade, except for two choline dehydrogenase proteins from *S.*

zoogloeoides Teo12, which cluster at the base of the TopA cluster. A phylogenetic analysis of

the TopB proteins with closely related proteins containing an aldehyde dehydrogenase domain

(InterPro IPR015590**)** showed that the TopB proteins also from a distinct cluster within the

dataset with closest relations to a reviewed aldehyde dehydrogenase (PuuC, Accession P23882)

that oxidizes aldehydes during putrescine catabolism in *E. coli* (**Supp. Fig. S5B**). Other PuuC-

like proteins encoded outside of the TRIS degradation gene clusters of the TRIS-degrading

isolates cluster in close proximity to the TopB cluster.

Conjugational transfer of TRIS degradation plasmids

The TRIS degradation-encoding *Pseudomonas* plasmids have high similarities to the

previously described large plasmids pND6-2 from *Pseudomonas putida* ND6 and pS04-90

from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* S04-90 (16, 17). Both these plasmids lack the putative mobile

genetic element that encodes TRIS degradation (**Fig. 3A, Suppl. Fig. S4**). However, pS04-90

carries a carbapenem resistance-encoding class 1 integron at almost the same site in the pND6-

backbone as the TRIS degradation-encoding elements in the *Pseudomonas* plasmids. Both pND6-2 and pS04-90 are conjugative plasmids that can be transferred from their hosts into other *Pseudomonas* strains. Like pND6-2 and pS04-90, p1_Teo1 and its homologs carry genes encoding type IV pili and a type IVB secretion system (**Fig. 3A, Suppl. Fig. S4**), suggesting that these plasmids are also conjugative plasmids. To test this, we set up conjugation experiments with strain Teo1 and strain Teo8 as plasmid donors and *Pseudomonas putida* KT2440 as a non-TRIS-degrading recipient. To be able to differentiate between donor and recipient cells, we labelled strain KT2440 with a chromosomally integrated gentamycin resistance associated with a yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) gene. After the conjugation of Teo1 and Teo8 with strain KT2440::*eyfp-gm* growth of fluorescing colonies was observed on gentamycin-containing minimal medium plates with TRIS as only carbon and nitrogen source (**Fig. 4A**), suggesting that conjugational transfer of the p1_Teo1 and p2_Teo8 plasmids also transferred the ability to use TRIS as growth substrate to KT2440::*eyfp-gm*. The resulting transconjugants were also able to grow with TRIS in liquid culture (**Fig. 4D**), confirming that both gene clusters together encode the complete degradation pathway sufficient to use TRIS as sole carbon and nitrogen source.

Discussion

In this study we identify and characterize a degradation pathway for the synthetic buffer compound TRIS in several *Pseudomonas* strains and a *Shinella* strain, which were all isolated from wastewater purification systems with TRIS as only carbon source. Our results suggest that TRIS degradation proceeds via a pathway that originated recently via a combination of genes from different, formerly independent metabolic pathways and their assembly into two co-regulated gene clusters within a mobile genetic element. Although not all individual functions for the proteins encoded in clusters I and II were biochemically confirmed, conjugational transfer of the plasmid that contains both clusters into *P. putida* KT2440 co-transferred the ability to degrade TRIS, confirming that they together encode the complete degradation pathway sufficient to use TRIS as sole carbon and nitrogen source.

TRIS has long been considered biologically inert, because the bonding of its amino group to a tertiary carbon atom prevents its metabolism via transamination or oxidative deamination, which are the most common reactions in the degradation of amines. However, bacterial degradation of α-amino acids with a tertiary α-carbon atom is known for a long time and has been demonstrated for 2-hydroxymethylserine via a tetrahydrofolate-dependent methylserine hydroxymethyltransferase (mSHMT) with D-serine and formaldehyde as products (18). All of our TRIS-degrading isolates encode a protein in cluster II with highest similarities to confirmed D-amino acid-producing mSHMTs (19) as well as a protein for the degradation of D-serine to pyruvate, suggesting that these proteins together can catalyze the degradation of 2-hydroxymethylserine, the product of TRIS oxidation by the TopAB proteins. Thus, we propose a pathway for the catabolism of TRIS, in which TRIS is translocated into the cytoplasm by the TRIS uptake protein TupA and subsequently oxidized to 2-hydroxymethylserine by the TRIS dehydrogenase TopA and the TRIS-aldehyde dehydrogenase TopB via a suspected aldehyde intermediate (**Fig. 5**). 2-Hydroxymethylserine is further transformed into D-serine by the mSHMT protein, which is then transformed into pyruvate by the D-serine dehydratase. The latter can be channelled into the tricarboxylic acid cycle via oxidative decarboxylation to acetyl-CoA. The formaldehyde-accepting tetrahydrofolate (THF) cofactor of the mSHMT protein can then be recycled by the bifunctional methylenetetrahydrofolate dehydrogenase/ methenyltetrahydrofolate cyclohydrolase FolD and the formyltetrahydrofolate deformylase PurU encoded in cluster II (20, 21).

The genetic context of the *tupA*, *topA* and *topB* genes is not found outside of cluster I,
suggesting that these genes were assembled from multiple origins. The TopA proteins have
highest similarities to choline dehydrogenases (CDH), which catalyse the oxidation of choline
into betaine aldehyde (22) and belong to the glucose-methanol-choline oxidoreductase family
(GMC). Within a phylogenetic GMC protein tree, the TopA proteins form a distinct clade that
diverges from the CDH sequences with strong bootstrap support, suggesting that the TRIS
dehydrogenase functionality evolved from enzymes with choline dehydrogenase activity.
Strikingly, two CDH proteins encoded outside of gene cluster I in *S. zoogloeoides* Teo12
cluster basal to the TopA protein clade, suggesting that they could be ancestral to TopA. It is
tempting to speculate that the TopA proteins have originated in *Shinella* or a similar organism
through the duplication and mutation of CDH-encoding genes. TupA and TopB have highest
similarities to proteins involved in the degradation of polyamines like putrescine (23, 24),
suggesting that these proteins were recruited from bacterial polyamine degradation pathways
(25). The fact that Teo1 was not able to use other α-substituted amino alcohols such as 2-
amino-2-methylpropanol and 2-amino-2-methylproandiol as growth substrates suggests that
either the substrate uptake by TupA or the oxidation reactions catalysed by TopAB evolved to
be highly specific for TRIS.

Expression of *tupA* was strictly required for TRIS transformation in *E. coli* cells,
suggesting that TRIS translocation is required for TRIS uptake in Gram-negative cells. With a
pKa of 8.07 TRIS is mainly positively charged at neutral and acidic pH, preventing its diffusion
across the cytoplasmic membrane. The absence of a *tupA* gene homolog in *S. zoogloeoides*
Teo12 suggests that this gene was recruited later to the pathway. It remains unknow how TRIS
is translocated by Teo12, however, alternative putrescine uptake transporters (23) are also
encoded in the genome of Teo12, which might play a role in TRIS uptake in this strain.

The genetic context of the genes encoded in cluster II is also present in other
Pseudomonas strains that do not encode cluster I, suggesting that this gene cluster may have
been assembled prior to its recruitment into the TRIS degradation pathway. While SHMT and
mSHMT proteins are often accompanied by THF co-factor recycling proteins (19, 26), their
genetic association with D-amino acid degradation genes such as the D-serine dehydratase
genes in cluster II in a putative operon was not reported so far. In pathogenic bacteria, D-serine
dehydratase genes play important roles in the detoxification and catabolism of D-amino acids
(27, 28). Thus, we conclude that the second part of the TRIS degradation pathway was
assembled by a combination of genes involved in the transformation of α-substituted amino
acids and in the degradation of D-amino acids. The presence of mostly incomplete insertion

elements up- and downstream of the TRIS degradation gene clusters suggests that the whole DNA segment was originally able to be mobilized as a composite transposon, allowing its transposition between plasmids and the chromosome. The finding of an additional transposase gene between the two gene clusters in *Shinella* and the closely related *Rhizobium* strain corroborates our hypothesis that the pathway was assembled from two independent reactions sequences encoded in clusters I and II.

TRIS is used in countless applications in research, industry, medicine, and household settings. Its most prominent applications include its use as a buffer in molecular biology and biochemistry labs, as an excipient in drug formulations, and as an active agent for the treatment of metabolic acidosis and an enhancer for antibiotics and antiseptics for the treatment of Gram-negative infections. Based on its first large scale production in the middle of the twentieth century (29, 30), we hypothesize that the TRIS degradation pathway evolved within the last thirty to fifty years, which is corroborated by the fact that TRIS degradation was not discovered earlier despite its intense use in research laboratories. However, the organization of the TRIS degradation genes in two compact gene clusters and the fact that expression of these presumable operons was regulated in response to TRIS in strain Teo1 are signs for a highly evolved pathway (5), suggesting its turn-around in the environment for a while. The regulator gene between the two clusters is presumably involved in this regulation. Its protein product is similar to the transcription factor GltC that regulates glutamate synthase expression in *Bacillus subtilis* (31). The first reports of bacteria being able to utilize TRIS as a growth substrate were published thirty years ago from a group in Spain (32), however, no genetic or biochemical analyses followed this observation.

Specific microbial habitats such as sinks and wastewater treatment facilities of large research laboratories, hospitals, or from the TRIS-manufacturing industry could be locations where the TRIS degradation pathway might have originated. First, such habitats encounter significant TRIS concentrations on a regular basis. For example, the antibiotic fosfomycin, which is produced and administered as a TRIS salt, was found at concentrations of 0.13 mM in the influent and 0.015 mM in the effluent of a wastewater treatment plant of a fosfomycin production plant (33), suggesting the presence of similar concentrations of its counterion TRIS. Second, sinks and water purification systems are hotspots for horizontal gene transfer (11, 34, 35), which additionally favors the evolution of novel catabolic pathways.

The identification of identical TRIS degradation gene clusters in bacteria that have been isolated in Germany, the Republic of Korea, and in China corroborates our findings, that TRIS degradation-encoding plasmids can be readily transferred among bacteria by conjugation-

driven HGT. Our isolation studies suggest that the TRIS degradation pathway is frequently
present in the microbiome of municipal wastewater treatment plants but less frequent in
freshwater habitats, indicating that environments with high carbon and nitrogen loads better
support the maintenance and dissemination of the TRIS degradation pathway than more
oligotrophic environments. Although the average TRIS concentration in the sampled
wastewater treatment plants is presumably very low, its metabolism as an additional nitrogen
and carbon source alongside other recalcitrant molecules might provide sufficient positive
selection pressure for bacteria with broad substrate ranges such as *Pseudomonas* and *Shinella*
(36–39) to maintain the pathway. Our results corroborate the importance of HGT and mobile
genetic elements in the evolution of novel catabolic pathways. With this, they provide
additional knowledge about the basic structure of such elements, which can be used for future
use in engineering bacteria for bioaugmentation (11).
348
349

Experimental procedures

Targeted enrichment and growth cultures

TRIS-degrading strains were isolated and grown in a phosphate-buffered minimal medium (pH 7.0) containing 0.01 mM $CaCl_2$ x 2 H_2O, 1.5 mM $MgSO_4$ x 7 H_2O, 35 mM K_2HPO_4 x 3 H_2O, 15 mM NaH_2PO_4 x H_2O, trace elements and 10 mM TRIS. For solid media plates, 1.5 % agar was added prior to autoclaving. Enrichment cultures (5 ml) were inoculated with fresh samples (1 ml) from local wastewater treatment plants (activated sludge or activated carbon), a water purification plant (activated carbon), or different freshwater habitats (**Supp. Tab. ST1**). When enrichment cultures showed growth, 100 µl of the culture supernatant were transferred to 5 ml fresh minimal medium with TRIS, and this was repeated two to three times before cultures were spread onto solid minimal medium plates containing to isolate individual TRIS-degrading colonies. Growth experiments in liquid cultures were carried out at 30°C and 200 rpm in 1 ml or 5 ml medium in 24-well plates or in reaction tubes, respectively. Experimental cultures were inoculated from washed, over-night starter cultures grown with TRIS. Growth was followed by measuring the optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}). For transcriptome experiments, TRIS was replaced with 20 mM pyruvate and 20 mM NH_4Cl were added as nitrogen source. For substrate tests, TRIS was replaced with 10 mM D- or L-serine, 10 mM choline, 10 mM betaine, 10 mM 2-amino-2-methylpropanol, 10 mM 2-amino-2-methylproandiol, 10 mM sarcosine, or 10 mM serinol, and 20 mM NH_4Cl were added as nitrogen source. *Pseudomonas putida* KT2440 and its derivatives were grown in the same minimal medium with succinate as carbon source at 30°C. *E. coli* strains were grown in half-concentrated lysogeny broth (LB) at 37°C. LB grown overnight E. *coli* cultures carrying predicted TRIS degradation genes on the expression vector pUCp18 were inoculated into fresh LB medium and 0.2 mM (isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside) IPTG were added at an OD_{600} of around 0.4. Cultures were grown to a final OD_{600} of 0.8 – 1.0 before cells were harvested, washed with sterile minimal medium without carbon source, and were resuspended in minimal medium with TRIS to an OD_{600} of 1.5. If required, kanamycin (20-50 µg/ml), tetracycline (10 µg/ml), or gentamycin (20-40 µg/ml) antibiotics were added to the medium after autoclaving. To test whether 2-hydroxymethylserine can be used as a growth for Teo1, cell suspensions of *tupA*, *topB* and *topA* expressing *E. coli* cells that had produced 2-hydroxymethylserine from TRIS were centrifuged and sterile filtered (0.2 µm) and the culture supernatant was inoculated with strain Teo1 cells.

TRIS quantification

TRIS, its degradation intermediates, and ammonium were identified and quantified by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) coupled to a mass spectrometer and a UV/Vis detector (40) after derivatization of their amino group with diethyl ethoxymethylenemalonate (DEEMM, (41)). For this, 100 µl culture supernatants were mixed with 130 µl borate buffer (1 M, pH 9.0), 75 µl methanol, and 3 µl DEEM reagent, followed by 30 min sonication and 60 min incubation at 70°C before injection into the HPLC. A gradient (flow rate 0.3 ml/min) of ammonium-acetate buffer (10 mM, pH 3.0, with 0.1 % (v/v) formic acid, eluent A) and acetonitrile (eluent B) were used for product elution starting with 10 % eluent B for 2 min, increasing to 90 % eluent B within 22 min, remaining at 90 % eluent B for 2 min, and returning to 10 % eluent B within 1 min, followed by an equilibration of 5 min. Products were identified based on their mass spectra after electrospray ionization in positive ion mode. The capillary voltage was 2500 V, the end plate offset 500 V and the capillary temperature 300°C. Nebulizer pressure was 22.5 psi, dry gas flow 12 l/min and dry temperature 200°C. Quantification was performed based on the product peak areas at 280 nm UV absorbance, and concentrations were calculated based on concentration curves of authentic standards treated in the same way. The concentration of 2-hydroxymethylserine was calculated using the same standard curve as for TRIS.

DNA manipulation

DNA amplification and purification was carried out using standard techniques. DNA for cloning purposes was amplified by PCR using a high-fidelity polymerase (Q5, New England Biolabs). Predicted TRIS degradation genes were cloned into the expression plasmid pUCp18 (42) by isothermal assembly (43). For this, DNA fragments were PCR-amplified from *P. hunanensis* Teo1 DNA and pUCp18 was linearized using primers with overlapping homologies designed with the NEBuilder online tool (New England Biolabs, **Supp. Tab. ST2**). Purified fragments and plasmid were combined in equimolar concentrations in isothermal assembly reaction buffer and assembled at 50°C for 60 min. Assembled DNA was transformed into competent *E. coli* DH5α cells by chemical transformation and positive clones were selected on LB agar plates containing an appropriate antibiotic. Correct insertion of the fragments into the vector was confirmed by PCR using standard M13 primers and sequencing (Microsynth AG, Switzerland). A YFP-tagged *Pseudomonas putida* KT2440 strain was constructed following the protocol from (44) using the plasmid pBK-miniTn7(Gm)PA1/04/03-*eyfp*-a. In short, cells

from an overnight culture of *P. putida* KT2440 were mixed with cells of *E. coli* SM10(*λpir*)

pUX-BF13, *E. coli* JM105 pBK-miniTn7(Gm)PA1/04/03-*eyfp*-a and *E. coli* RK600 and

conjugation was carried out at 30°C over night on non-selective LB plates. Cells were washed

of the plates with minimal medium without carbon source and were plated onto minimal

medium with 10 mM benzoate and gentamycin to select for positive transconjugants. Single

colonies showing YFP fluorescence (Chemidoc MP Imaging System, Bio-Rad Laboratories

GmbH) were selected and correct insertion of the *yfp*-containing Tn7 element gene into the

chromosome was confirmed by PCR.

Transcriptome analysis

P. hunanensis Teo1 was grown in minimal medium with TRIS as only carbon and nitrogen

source or with pyruvate and ammonium and cultures were harvested during mid-log phase.

Harvested cells were re-suspended in 800 µl RLT buffer (RNeasy Mini Kit, Qiagen) with β-

mercaptoethanol (10 µl ml^{-1}) and cell lysis was performed using a laboratory ball mill.

Subsequently, 400 µl RLT buffer (RNeasy Mini Kit Qiagen) with β-mercaptoethanol (10 µl

ml^{-1}) and 1200 µl 96% (vol./vol.) ethanol were added. For RNA isolation, the RNeasy Mini Kit

(Qiagen) was used as recommended by the manufacturer, but instead of RW1 buffer RWT

buffer (Qiagen) was used in order to isolate RNAs smaller than 200 nucleotides also. To

determine the RNA integrity number the isolated RNA was run on an Agilent Bioanalyzer

2100 using an Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit as recommended by the manufacturer (Agilent

Technologies, Waldbronn, Germany). Remaining genomic DNA was removed by digesting

with TURBO DNase (Invitrogen, Thermo Fischer Scientific, Paisley, UK). The Pan-

Prokaryozes riboPOOL kit v4 (siTOOLS BIOTECH, Planegg/Martinsried, Germany) was used

to reduce the amount of rRNA-derived sequences. For sequencing, the strand-specific cDNA

libraries were constructed with a NEB Next Ultra II Directional RNA library preparation kit

for Illumina and the NEB Next Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (New England BioLabs,

Frankfurt am Main, Germany). To assess quality and size of the libraries samples were run on

an Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 using an Agilent High Sensitivity DNA Kit as recommended by

the manufacturer (Agilent Technologies). Concentration of the libraries was determined using

the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit as recommended by the manufacturer (Life Technologies

GmbH, Darmstadt, Germany). Sequencing was performed by using the HiSeq2500 instrument

(Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) using the HiSeq Rapid SR Cluster Kit v2 for cluster

generation and the HiSeq Raid SBS Kit (50 cycles) for sequencing in the single-end mode and

running 1x50 cycles. For quality filtering and removing of remaining adaptor sequences,

Trimmomatic-0.39 (Bolger et al., 2014) and a cutoff phred-33 score of 15 were used. The

mapping against the reference genomes of *Pseudomonas hunanensis Teo1* (BioProject

PRJNA999090, Accessions CP131127- CP131129) was performed with Salmon (v 1.9.0) (45).

As mapping back-bone a file that contains all annotated transcripts excluding rRNA genes and

the whole genome of the references as decoy was prepared with a k-mer size of 11. Decoy-

aware mapping was done in selective-alignment mode with '–mimicBT2', '–

disableChainingHeuristic' and '–recoverOrphans' flags as well as sequence and position bias

correction and 10,000 bootstraps. For –fldMean and –fldSD, values of 325 and 25 were used,

respectively. The quant.sf files produced by Salmon were subsequently loaded into R (v 4.2.0)

using the tximport package (v 1.24.0). DeSeq2 (v 1.36.0) (46) was used for normalization of

the reads and fold change shrinkages were also calculated with DeSeq2 and the apeglm package

(v 1.18.0) (47). Genes with a $\log_2$-foldchange of +2/-2 and a p-adjust value <0.05 were

considered differentially expressed. Raw reads have been deposited in the Sequence Read

Archive under study SRP451968 (SRR25447477-SRR25447482).

Conjugation experiments

Conjugation experiments were carried out using strains Teo1 and Teo8 as donors and

gentamicin-resistant *P. putida* KT2440::*eyfp-gm* as recipients. Approximately 1 x 10^9 donor

cells and 3 x 10^9 recipient cells were mixed and spotted onto sterile cellulose acetate filter disks

(ca. 3 cm^2, 0.45 μm pores) on LB agar plates. Conjugation plates were incubated at 30°C for

24 h before cells were washed off the filter disks with 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.2).

Decimal dilutions were plated onto minimal medium agar plates with TRIS as only carbon and

nitrogen source containing 40 μg/ml gentamicin. Transconjugants were screen using a

ChemiDocTM Imaging System (Bio-Rad) using blue epi illumination and an emission filter at

530 nm. The conjugation rate was calculated by dividing the number of positive

transconjugants by the number of recipient cells in each assay. The successful transfer of the

p1_Teo1 and p2_Teo8 plasmids was confirmed by colony PCR amplifying the *tupA*, *topA*,

topB, *glyA*, and *dsdA* genes (**Suppl. Tab. ST2**).

Acknowledgment

The authors like to thank the operators and the employs of the water treatment facilities in the cities of Münster, Hamm, Dülmen, and Güthersloh-Putzhagen for their help with sampling. We like to especially thank Rudolf Cigelski (Hamm) for his continued support and his great efforts to provide us with samples. We further thank Malte Jochimsen and Anna Hannes for experimental support.

Data availability

The whole-genome shotgun projects have been deposited at DDBJ/ENA/GenBank under the BioProject accession numbers PRJNA999090, PRJNA999091, PRJNA999092, PRJNA999094, PRJNA999097, PRJNA999137, PRJNA999141 and the transcriptome data under the BioProject accession number PRJNA999090 with the SRA accession numbers SRR25447477 - SRR25447482.

References

1. B. A. Kolvenbach, D. E. Helbling, H.-P. E. Kohler, P. F.-X. Corvini, Emerging chemicals and the evolution of biodegradation capacities and pathways in bacteria. *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.* **27**, 8–14 (2014).

2. S. D. Copley, Evolution of efficient pathways for degradation of anthropogenic chemicals. *Nat. Chem. Biol.* **5**, 559–566 (2009).

3. N. Udiković-Kolić, C. Scott, F. Martin-Laurent, Evolution of atrazine-degrading capabilities in the environment. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **96**, 1175–1189 (2012).

4. E. M. Top, D. Springael, N. Boon, Catabolic mobile genetic elements and their potential use in bioaugmentation of polluted soils and waters. *FEMS Microbiol. Ecol.* **42**, 199–208 (2002).

5. G. R. Johnson, J. C. Spain, Evolution of catabolic pathways for synthetic compounds: bacterial pathways for degradation of 2,4-dinitrotoluene and nitrobenzene. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **62**, 110–123 (2003).

6. M. Aulestia, A. Flores, S. Acosta-Jurado, E. Santero, E. M. Camacho, Genetic Characterization of the Ibuprofen-Degradative Pathway of *Rhizorhabdus wittichii* MPO218. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **88**, e00388-22 (2022).

7. M. L. Bonatelli, *et al.*, Recently evolved combination of unique sulfatase and amidase genes enables bacterial degradation of the wastewater micropollutant acesulfame worldwide. *Front. Microbiol.* **14**, 14:1223838 (2023).

8. A. B. Rios-Miguel, *et al.*, Microbial paracetamol degradation involves a high diversity of novel amidase enzyme candidates. *Water Res. X* **16**, 100152 (2022).

9. S. D. Copley, Evolution of a metabolic pathway for degradation of a toxic xenobiotic: the patchwork approach. *Trends Biochem. Sci.* **25**, 261–265 (2000).

10. D. Springael, E. M. Top, Horizontal gene transfer and microbial adaptation to xenobiotics: new types of mobile genetic elements and lessons from ecological studies. *Trends Microbiol.* **12**, 53–58 (2004).

11. A. B. Rios Miguel, M. S. M. Jetten, C. U. Welte, The role of mobile genetic elements in organic micropollutant degradation during biological wastewater treatment. *Water Res. X* **9**, 100065 (2020).

12. R. P. Schwarzenbach, *et al.*, The challenge of micropollutants in aquatic systems. *Science* **313**, 1072–1077 (2006).

13. B. Petrie, R. Barden, B. Kasprzyk-Hordern, A review on emerging contaminants in wastewaters and the environment: Current knowledge, understudied areas and recommendations for future monitoring. *Water Res.* **72**, 3–27 (2015).

14. J. Benner, *et al.*, Is biological treatment a viable alternative for micropollutant removal in drinking water treatment processes? *Water Res.* **47**, 5955–5976 (2013).

15. M. Herrero, D. C. Stuckey, Bioaugmentation and its application in wastewater treatment:
A review. *Chemosphere* **140**, 119–128 (2015).

16. A. van der Zee, *et al.*, Spread of carbapenem resistance by transposition and conjugation
among *Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Front. Microbiol.* **9**, 2057 (2018).

17. S. Wang, S. Li, D. Du, D. Wang, W. Yan, Conjugative transfer of megaplasmids pND6–1
and pND6–2 enhancing naphthalene degradation in aqueous environment:
characterization and bioaugmentation prospects. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **104**, 861–
871 (2020).

18. E. M. Wilson, E. E. Snell, Metabolism of α-methylserine. *J. Biol. Chem.* **237**, 3171–3179
(1962).

19. H. Nozaki, S. Kuroda, K. Watanabe, K. Yokozeki, Cloning of the gene encoding α-
methylserine hydroxymethyltransferase from *Aminobacter* sp. AJ110403 and *Ensifer* sp.
AJ110404 and characterization of the recombinant enzyme. *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.*
72, 3002–3005 (2008).

20. L. D'Ari, J. C. Rabinowitz, Purification, characterization, cloning, and amino acid
sequence of the bifunctional enzyme 5,10-methylenetetrahydrofolate
dehydrogenase/5,10-methenyltetrahydrofolate cyclohydrolase from *Escherichia coli. J.*
Biol. Chem. **266**, 23953–23958 (1991).

21. P. L. Nagy, A. Marolewski, S. J. Benkovic, H. Zalkin, Formyltetrahydrofolate hydrolase,
a regulatory enzyme that functions to balance pools of tetrahydrofolate and one-carbon
tetrahydrofolate adducts in *Escherichia coli. J. Bacteriol.* **177**, 1292–1298 (1995).

22. M. J. Wargo, Homeostasis and catabolism of choline and glycine betaine: Lessons from
Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. **79**, 2112–2120 (2013).

23. S. Krysenko, W. Wohlleben, Polyamine and ethanolamine metabolism in bacteria as an
important component of nitrogen assimilation for survival and pathogenicity. *Med. Sci.*
10, 40 (2022).

24. J. M. Luengo, E. R. Olivera, Catabolism of biogenic amines in *Pseudomonas* species.
Environ. Microbiol. **22**, 1174–1192 (2020).

25. N. Nemoto, *et al.*, Mechanism for regulation of the putrescine utilization pathway by the
transcription factor PuuR in *Escherichia coli* K-12. *J. Bacteriol.* **194**, 3437–3447 (2012).

26. S. Shetty, U. Varshney, Regulation of translation by one-carbon metabolism in bacteria
and eukaryotic organelles. *J. Biol. Chem.* **296**, 100088 (2021).

27. J. P. R. Connolly, A. J. Roe, When and where? Pathogenic *Escherichia coli* differentially
sense host D-serine using a universal transporter system to monitor their environment.
Microb. Cell **3**, 181–184 (2016).

28. G. Li, C.-D. Lu, The cryptic *dsdA* gene encodes a functional d-serine dehydratase in
Pseudomonas aeruginosa PAO1. *Curr. Microbiol.* **72**, 788–794 (2016).

29. J. Bourguignon, M.-X. Sion, M. Moreau, Preparation of
Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane. US Patent No. US4233245A, U.S. Patent and
Trademark Office (1980).

30. G. W. McMillan, Electrolytic production of aminoalcohols. US Patent No. US2485982A,
U.S. Patent and Trademark Office (1949).

31. D. E. Bohannon, A. L. Sonenshein, Positive regulation of glutamate biosynthesis in
Bacillus subtilis. *J. Bacteriol.* **171**, 4718–4727 (1989).

32. J. Fábregas, V. Vázquez, B. Cabezas, A. Otero, Tris not only controls the pH in microalgal
cultures, but also feeds bacteria. *J. Appl. Phycol.* **5**, 543–545 (1993).

33. P. Zeng, *et al.*, Ion chromatography as highly suitable method for rapid and accurate
determination of antibiotic fosfomycin in pharmaceutical wastewater. *Water Sci. Technol.*
69, 2014–2022 (2014).

34. K. Abe, N. Nomura, S. Suzuki, Biofilms: hot spots of horizontal gene transfer (HGT) in
aquatic environments, with a focus on a new HGT mechanism. *FEMS Microbiol. Ecol.*
96, fiaa031 (2020).

35. L. Diorio-Toth, *et al.*, Intensive care unit sinks are persistently colonized with multidrug
resistant bacteria and mobilizable, resistance-conferring plasmids. *mSystems*, e00206-23
(2023).

36. E. R. B. Moore, *et al.*, "Nonmedical: *Pseudomonas*" in *The Prokaryotes*, M. Dworkin, S.
Falkow, E. Rosenberg, K.-H. Schleifer, E. Stackebrandt, Eds. (Springer New York, 2006),
pp. 646–703.

37. H. J. Jiang, Y. Ma, G. J. Qiu, F. L. Wu, S. L. Chen, Biodegradation of nicotine by a novel
Strain *Shinella* sp. HZN1 isolated from activated sludge. *J. Environ. Sci. Health Part B*
46, 703–708 (2011).

38. C. Hesse, *et al.*, Genome-based evolutionary history of *Pseudomonas* spp. *Environ.*
Microbiol. **20**, 2142–2159 (2018).

39. Y. Huang, Z. Yu, L. Liu, Y. Che, T. Zhang, Acesulfame anoxic biodegradation coupled to
nitrate reduction by enriched consortia and isolated *Shinella* spp. *Environ. Sci. Technol.*
(2022) https:/doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.2c03656 (July 21, 2023).

40. J. Holert, *et al.*, Identification of bypass reactions leading to the formation of one central
steroid degradation intermediate in metabolism of different bile salts in *Pseudomonas* sp.
strain Chol1. *Environ. Microbiol.* **8**, 3373–3389 (2016).

41. M. Alaiz, J. L. Navarro, J. Girón, E. Vioque, Amino acid analysis by high-performance
liquid chromatography after derivatization with diethyl ethoxymethylenemalonate. *J.*
Chromatogr. A **591**, 181–186 (1992).

42. H. P. Schweizer, *Escherichia-Pseudomonas* shuttle vectors derived from pUC18/19. *Gene*
97, 109–121 (1991).

43. D. G. Gibson, *et al.*, Enzymatic assembly of DNA molecules up to several hundred
kilobases. *Nat. Methods* **6**, 343–345 (2009).

44. M. Klausen, *et al.*, Biofilm formation by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* wild type, flagella and
type IV pili mutants: Roles of bacterial motility in the formation of the flat *P. aeruginosa*
biofilm. *Mol. Microbiol.* **48**, 1511–1524 (2003).

45. R. Patro, G. Duggal, M. I. Love, R. A. Irizarry, C. Kingsford, Salmon provides fast and
bias-aware quantification of transcript expression. *Nat. Methods* **14**, 417–419 (2017).

46. M. I. Love, W. Huber, S. Anders, Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for
RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.* **15**, 550 (2014).

47. A. Zhu, J. G. Ibrahim, M. I. Love, Heavy-tailed prior distributions for sequence count data:
removing the noise and preserving large differences. *Bioinformatics* **35**, 2084–2092
(2019).

Fig. 1: Characteristics of TRIS metabolism in *Pseudomonas hunanensis* Teo1 and identification of potential TRIS
degradation genes. (**A**) Maximal biomass production of strain Teo1 in relation to TRIS concentration. Error bars
indicate standard deviation (n = 3). (**B**) Growth of strain Teo1 with 10 mM TRIS as only carbon and nitrogen
source. (**C**) Removal of TRIS (straight lines) and formation of ammonium (dashed lines) in Teo1 growth cultures.
(**D**) Representative HPLC chromatograms of a strain Teo1 culture growing with 10 mM TRIS. TRIS is depleted
from the culture while ammonium is released. (**E**) Volcano plot of transcriptome data showing significantly up-
regulated genes (red) under TRIS-grown (positive fold changes) and pyruvate-grown conditions (negative fold
changes) in Teo1. Genes predicted to be involved in TRIS degradation are labelled. (**F**) Transcript abundances
and $\log_2$(fold changes) of the predicted TRIS degradation genes in Teo1 in TRIS- and pyruvate-grown cells (three
biological replicates of each growth substrate, horizontal bar indicates median, corrected p values of all selected
genes were < 0.05). (**G**) mRNA reads (red: positive strand, blue: negative strand) of a representative TRIS-grown
culture mapped onto the DNA section containing the predicted TRIS degradation gene clusters in strain Teo1.

Fig. 2: TRIS transformation activity of *E. coli* strains carrying different combinations of the putrescine importer-like protein-encoding gene (*puuP,* now *tupA*), the aldehyde dehydrogenase-encoding gene (*puuC,* now *topB*), and the choline dehydrogenase-like protein-encoding gene (*betA,* now *topA*) on the expression plasmid pUCp18. (**A**) Representative HPLC-UV/Vis chromatograms of TRIS-containing cell suspension supernatants of *E. coli* strains that carried either the *tupA* gene, the *topB* and *topA* genes, or all three genes. TRIS (peak I, red) was transformed into a new compound (peak II, orange) in the *E. coli* strain that carries all three genes only. The cloned genes were under the activity of the *lac* promotor (grey arrow). (**B**) Mass spectra of TRIS (peak I) and the new product (peak II). The new product was identified as 2-hydroxymethylserine based on the molecular mass of its diethyl ethoxymethylenemalonate (DEEMM, grey molecule moiety) derivative of 305 Da, which is 14 Da heavier than the molecular mass of 291 Da of the DEEMM derivative of TRIS. (**C**) Growth of strain Teo1 (blue circles) in sterilized culture supernatants containing 2-hydroxymethylserine produced from TRIS and removal of 2-hydroxymethylserine (white circles). Average and standard deviation of three independent biological replicates are shown.

Fig: 3: TRIS degradation gene clusters in the genomes of the sequenced TRIS-degrading isolates from this study and of homologous gene clusters found in the NCBI nr nucleotide database. (**A**) Most TRIS degradation gene clusters are located on large circular plasmids with high sequence similarities to the *Pseudomonas* plasmids pND6-2 and pS04-90, which lack the TRIS degradation clusters. The outer black line indicates the location of the putative mobile genetic element including the TRIS degradation genes. Like pND6-2 and pS04-90, the TRIS degradation-encoding plasmids encode orthologs to mobile elements groups (inner circle) including a type IVB secretion system and a type IV pilus for plasmid transfer as well as a type II toxin-antitoxin system. (**B**) All TRIS degradation gene clusters, including plasmid- and chromosome-encoded clusters, are flanked upstream and downstream by transposon- or insertion element-like structures. The plasmid p2_Teo12 from *Shinella* sp. strain Teo12 and the homologous plasmid p5 in a *Rhizobium* strain have no similarity to the other TRIS degradation-encoding plasmids, but also carry two gene clusters which encode homologs to the other TRIS degradation proteins.

Fig. 4: Conjugative transfer of the TRIS degradation pathway-encoding plasmids p1_Teo1 and p2_Teo8. (**A**) Growth of YFP-fluorescing colonies on TRIS-containing agar plates after conjugation of *P. putida* KT2440::*eyfp-gm* with Teo1 (left panel) and Teo8 (right panel) as donor strains. (**B**) Conjugation rate of KT2440::*eyfp-gm* with p1_Teo1, p2_Teo8, and of a control without donor cells. Black lines indicate median rates of three independent conjugation experiments, boxes indicate the interquartile range, and dashed lines the maximum and minimum range. Transconjugants of up to seven replicates from three independent experiments were counted. Datapoints are coloured based on the donor strain. Outliers are not filled. (**C**) Degradation of TRIS (dashed lines) and growth (solid lines) of *P. putida* KT2440::*eyfp-gm* p1_Teo1 and p2_Teo8 transconjugants in liquid medium. The recipient strain *P. putida* KT2440::*eyfp-gm* without the conjugated plasmids was neither able to grow with, nor to degrade TRIS.

666 **Fig. 5**: Proposed TRIS degradation pathway. Confirmed reactions and intermediates are in black, proposed
667 reactions and intermediates are in grey, THF = tetrahydrofolate, mTHF = methenyltetrahydrofolate, fTHF =
668 formyltetrahydrofolate.
669

Tab. 1: Genes potentially involved in TRIS degradation in *Pseudomonas hunanensis* Teo1.

Gene	Locus tag	Annotated function	Confirmed function and new gene ID	Protein family (InterProScan)	Best hit (Swiss-Prot)	% identity	
purU	PshuTeo1_56140	Formyltetrahydrofolate deformylase		Formyltetrahydrofolate deformylase (IPR004810)	Q46339, Formyltetrahydrofolate deformylase, *Corynebacterium* sp.	46.8	Cluster II
folD	PshuTeo1_56150	Bifunctional protein FolD		Tetrahydrofolate dehydrogenase/ cyclohydrolase (IPR000672)	A6UB98, Bifunctional protein FolD 2, *Sinorhizobium medicae*	73.0	
dsdA	PshuTeo1_56160	D-serine dehydratase		D-serine ammonia-lyase (IPR011780)	B3PYT5, Probable D-serine dehydratase, *Rhizobium etli*	66.1	
glyA	PshuTeo1_56170	Serine hydroxy-methyltransferase 2		Serine hydroxymethyltransferase (IPR001085)	B2DEU8, 2-methylserine hydroxymethyltransferase, *Aminobacter* sp.	66.6	
gltC	PshuTeo1_56180	HTH-type transcriptional regulator		non predicted	P71318, Hydrogen peroxide-inducible genes activator, *Pectobacterium carotovorum*	26.9	
56190	PshuTeo1_56190	hypothetical protein		none predicted	P45766, Putative amino-acid ABC transporter-binding protein YhdW, *Escherichia coli*	68.9	Cluster I
puuP	PshuTeo1_56200	Putrescine importer	TRIS uptake protein, *tupA*	Amino acid/polyamine transporter I (IPR002293)	P76037, Putrescine importer PuuP, *Escherichia coli*	41.8	
puuC	PshuTeo1_56210	NADP/NAD-dependent aldehyde dehydrogenase	TRIS aldehyde dehydrogenase, *topB*	none predicted	P23883, NADP/NAD-dependent aldehyde dehydrogenase PuuC, *Escherichia coli*	46.0	
betA	PshuTeo1_56220	Oxygen-dependent choline dehydrogenase	TRIS dehydrogenase, *topA*	Glucose-methanol-choline oxidoreductase (IPR012132)	Q9L4K0, Oxygen-dependent choline dehydrogenase, *Chromohalobacter salexigens*	48.3	
lhpD	PshuTeo1_56230	Δ(1)-Pyrroline-2-carboxylate/Δ(1)-piperideine-2-carboxylate reductase		Malate/L-lactate dehydrogenase-like (IPR003767)	Q9I492, Δ(1)-pyrroline-2-carboxylate/Δ(1)-piperideine-2-carboxylate reductase, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*	67.0	
aldH	PshuTeo1_56240	Alpha-ketoglutaric semialdehyde dehydrogenase		Alpha-ketoglutaric semialdehyde dehydrogenase (IPR044151)	Q6FFQ0, Alpha-ketoglutaric semialdehyde dehydrogenase, *Acinetobacter baylyi*	58.5	