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Use of Genome Scale Metabolic Reconstructions of Avian Pathogenic *Escherichia coli*

(APEC) phylogroups for the identification of lineage-specific metabolic pathways

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Data statement. All supporting data, code and protocols have been provided within the

article or through supplementary data files and/or via Figshare. Five supplementary figures

and nine supplementary tables are available with the online version of this article.

Data summary. All genome sequencing data (sequencing reads and genome assemblies) are

available at the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) and Genomes repositories at NCBI, in

Bioproject number PRJNA523197. The information on the individual APEC isolates has

been included in Supplementary Material 2 (Table S1), whereas data on gene essentiality,

Biolog measurements and model growth simulations have been included in Supplementary

Material 2 (Tables S2-S4), respectively. The reactions included in the APEC GEM and

phylogroup-specific sub-models, the media pfile versions for submodels, carbon, sulphate,

phosphate and the *lysA* and *potE* mutants have been made available via Figshare

(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28067993), with the content of these files included as

Supplementary Material 3-5 (Tables S5-S7), respectively.

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A.H.M.v.V. carried out analyses and interpreted data. H.L. drafted the manuscript with input

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Abbreviations. SRA, Sequence Read Archive; APEC, Avian Pathogenic *Escherichia coli*;

ExPEC, Extra-Intestinal Pathogenic *E. coli*; GEM, Genome scale metabolic reconstruction;

AMR, antimicrobial resistance; AMP, ampicillin; Cm, chloramphenicol; CAT,

chloramphenicol resistance cassette; PCR, Polymerase Chain Reaction; RT-qPCR, reverse

transcription quantitative-PCR; 3-HPAA, 3-hydroxyphenylacetate; SBC, stoichiometrically

balanced cycles; BCR, biomass consumption reactions; FBA, flux balance analysis.

ABSTRACT

Avian Pathogenic *Escherichia coli* (APEC) are a genetically diverse pathotype primarily

associated with extra-intestinal infections in birds. APEC lineages are predicted to have

unique metabolic capabilities contributing to virulence and survival in the host environment.

Here we present a genome-scale metabolic model for the APEC pathotype based on 114

APEC genome sequences, and lineage-specific models for the phylogroups B2, C and G

based on a representative isolate for each phylogroup. A total of 1,848 metabolic reactions

were predicted in the 114 APEC isolates before gap filling and manual correction. Of these,

89% represented core reactions, whilst the 11% accessory reactions were mostly associated

with carbon and nitrogen metabolism. Predictions of auxotrophy were confirmed by

inactivation of the conditionally essential *lysA* and the non-essential *potE* genes. The APEC

metabolic model outperformed the *E. coli* K-12 *i*JO1366 model in the Biolog Phenotypic

Array platform. Sub-models specific for phylogroups B2, C and G predicted differences in

the metabolism of 3-hydroxyphenylacetate (3-HPAA), a phenolic acid derived from the

flavonoid quercetin, which is commonly added to poultry feed. Two 3-HPAA associated

reactions/genes distinguished APEC phylogroup C from APEC phylogroups B2 and G, and

3-HPAA supported the growth of APEC phylogroup C in minimal media, but not

phylogroups B2 and G. In conclusion, we have constructed genome-scale metabolic models

for the three major APEC phylogroups B2, C and G, and have identified a metabolic pathway

distinguishing phylogroup C APEC. This demonstrates the importance of lineage- and

pathotype-specific metabolic models when investigating genetically diverse microbial

pathogens.

IMPACT STATEMENT

Avian Pathogenic *Escherichia coli* (APEC) are the cause of colibacillosis in poultry,

which results in a significant economic burden to the poultry industry, and strongly affects

the health and welfare of flocks. APEC isolates show a high level of genetic diversity, which

complicates diagnostics, epidemiology and the design of prevention and treatment strategies.

In this study we have used genome sequences derived from 114 APEC isolates to investigate

their metabolic capabilities, and define the metabolic diversity of APEC within a generalised

APEC metabolic model, and lineage-specific metabolic models. These models have been

interrogated to find unique pathways that can be targeted for the development of anti-APEC

treatments, and one such metabolic pathway was identified as a proof of principle. This

approach shows great promise for the design of future strategies to prevent and deal with

APEC infections, and can be adapted to other genetically diverse microbial pathogens.

INTRODUCTION

Avian pathogenic *Escherichia coli* (APEC) belong to the extra-intestinal pathogenic

(ExPEC) group of *E. coli* [1, 2]. APEC cause extra-intestinal infections in birds, commonly

termed colibacillosis, a collective name describing a range of systemic and localised

syndromes such as pericarditis, perihepatitis, peritonitis, and airsacculitis. Colibacillosis

causes significant economic losses and is a major welfare concern in the poultry industry [3].

The APEC pathotype is defined by the diseases caused in birds, with *E. coli* isolated from

extra-intestinal locations in birds with colibacillosis-associated diseases being candidate

APEC, pending further characterisation. APEC are found in all major *E. coli* lineages and

phylogroups and encompass a range of serogroups and MLST sequence types [4-7], and it

this genetic variation and imprecise definition which complicates the development and

efficacy of control strategies, such as antimicrobial administration and vaccine development

[6]. Therefore, an improved understanding of the biology and variation of this pathogen will

be beneficial to the development of novel and effective control strategies.

It has been proposed that different pathogenic *E. coli* lineages, in addition to commensal

lineages, harbour variable metabolic profiles [8-10]. However, there remains a paucity of

knowledge regarding the unique metabolic traits of APEC isolates, as most studies have

focused on identification of markers allowing distinction of APEC from avian faecal *E. coli*

[7]. Genome scale metabolic reconstructions (GEMs) are a powerful tool that have been

applied in a number of fields [11]. Essentially, GEMs use genome sequences and database

comparisons to predict metabolic functions and responses in a range of environmental

conditions. To date, most *E. coli* GEMs have been constructed from a single commensal

isolate, such as K-12 MG1655 [12-15], probiotic isolate Nissle 1917 [16] and *E. coli* W

(ATCC 9637) [17]. However, as increasing numbers of *E. coli* genome sequences are now

available, it has become apparent that GEMs of single commensal isolates only partially

represent the metabolic capability of this species and its different pathotypes [9]. Similarly, it

was reported that GEMs based on multiple isolates were able to differentiate the metabolic

profile of pathogenic from commensal *E. coli* isolates [9]. Hence it is clear that single

laboratory strain-based models are not adequate to represent the metabolic capability and

variation within *E. coli* pathotypes.

In this study, we have constructed a comprehensive metabolic genome scale model based

on a panel of 114 APEC isolates. This general APEC model was then used as a template to

develop specific models that recapitulate the metabolism of the major phylogroups of the

APEC pathotype. Models were queried for auxotrophy and gene essentiality, growth

predictions in diverse media and used to identify a metabolic pathway distinguishing

phylogroup C APEC from phylogroup B2 and G APEC, demonstrating the potential for such

GEMs to improve our understanding of APEC biology and identification of potential targets

for future prevention and intervention strategies.

METHODS

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

114 APEC isolates were obtained from the SAP culture collection at the School of

Veterinary Medicine, University of Surrey and used for APEC model construction

(Supplementary Material 2, Table S1). These APEC isolates were obtained from commercial

laying hens or broilers with either colibacillosis, perihepatitis, yolk sac infection, pericarditis

or peritonitis in the UK and Germany. Isolates were collected at *post-mortem* examination per

the protocols used at the diagnostic services involved, and were submitted to the School of

Veterinary Medicine at the University of Surrey between 2014 and 2017 for further

diagnostic or research activity. The clinical information available is provided in

Supplementary Material 2, Table S1. All isolates were stored in BHI broth supplemented

with 50% glycerol at -80 °C until required for analysis. Prior to analysis, the APEC isolates

were streaked onto MacConkey agar 3 plates, Nutrient agar or Luria-Bertani (LB) and

incubated aerobically at 37°C for 16-24 hours, unless otherwise stated. M9 minimal medium

($1\times$ M9 salt, 2 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.1 mM $CaCl_2$, and 0.4% glucose if required) was used for

specific experiments as indicated below. Chloramphenicol and ampicillin were used at final

concentrations of 100 µg/ml and 30 µg/ml, respectively. All growth media and antibiotic

supplements were purchased from Oxoid (ThermoFisher Scientific) unless otherwise stated.

Biolog Phenotypic Microarray and M9 minimal medium test supplemented with 3-

hydroxyphenylacetate (3-HPAA)

Three APEC isolates were selected from the representative phylogroups B2, C and G

(serogroups O2, O78, and O24, respectively) and used for Biolog analysis (N=3). Additional

isolates from these phylogroups were selected for M9 minimal medium cultivation analysis

(N=13). The isolates used for these analyses are listed in Supplementary Material 2, Table

S1. Three biological and three technical replicates were performed for each isolate. The

APEC isolates were pre-cultured on R2A agar plates (Biolog) for Biolog assays as per the

manufacturer's instructions [18], and subsequently tested using 190 carbon sources (PM1 and

PM2 MicroPlate^{TM}), as well as 59 Phosphorus and 35 Sulphur Sources (PM4A

MicroPlate^{TM}). The cell suspensions and plate inoculation were undertaken according to the

instructions from the manufacturer. The Biolog PM1, PM2 and PM4A microplates were

incubated and analysed in Biolog's OmniLog® instrument at 37 °C for 24h, aerobically.

Readings were taken every 15 min. M9 minimal media was used to test the metabolic ability

of isolates in a defined synthetic medium. Three concentrations (1 mM, 0.75 mM, and 0.5

mM) of 3-hydroxyphenylacetate (3-HPAA) were tested in this study. L-lysine or putrescine

(1 mM) was also tested in this study for the cultivation analysis of gene knockout mutants.

The polystyrene 96 well plates (ThermoFisher Scientific) were cultured and read in Spark®

microplate reader (TECAN) at 37 °C for 24h, aerobically. Readings were taken every 15 min.

DNA extraction and Next generation sequencing (NGS)

The high molecular weight genomic DNA of APEC isolates was extracted and purified

using a DNA Wizard® genomic purification kit (Promega), according to the instructions

from the manufacturer. The extracted DNA samples were sent to the Animal and Plant Health

Agency (Weybridge, UK) for sequencing on the Illumina MiSeq platform, providing 150 nt

paired end reads. The obtained raw DNA sequences were *de novo* assembled in contigs using

Shovill version 1.1.0 (https://github.com/tseemann/shovill) using version 3.14 of the Spades

assembler [19] with minimum coverage of 2.00× and minimum length of 200 nt. Quality

assessment of genome assemblies were taken by QUAST version 5.0 [20], and required the

following minimum metrics to be satisfied: genome size between 4.5-6.0 Mbp, number of

contigs < 500 and N_{50} values of > 50 kb, respectively (Supplementary Material 2, Table S1).

Prokka version 1.14 [21] was used for initial annotation of genome sequences, which

produced relevant output files compatible for downstream analyses. The phylogenetic

grouping was analysed on the *in-silico* based ClermonTyping program [22]. *In silico*

serotyping was performed using Abricate version 1.0.1

(https://github.com/tseemann/abricate) with the EcOH [23] database. MLST sequence typing

was performed using the mlst v2.23 program (https://github.com/tseemann/mlst) with the

Warwick scheme [24]. A phylogenetic tree based on whole genome single-nucleotide

polymorphisms (SNPs) was generated using ParSNP version 1.2 [25], resulting in a

phylogenetic tree highlighting genomic similarity and sharing of core genome of all isolates.

All 114 APEC genomes were screened for 11 proposed virulence markers [26] using

Abricate. All relevant information for the 114 genomes (assembly metrics, presence/absence

of virulence genes, O:H serotype information and MLST sequence types) are included in

Supplementary Material 2, Table S1.

Construction of APEC metabolic models

The FASTA files of 114 APEC samples generated from Prokka were submitted to the

RAST server (https://rast.nmpdr.org/) for genome annotation [27]. The RAST annotation was

automatically submitted to ModelSEED (https://modelseed.org/genomes/) for further model

draft construction [28]. Model gap-filling is an essential step to investigate the missing

reactions, which apply a mixed-integer linear program to define the minimal number of

reactions required for the customer-defined collection of reactions. Several algorithms have

been reported and applied in model gap-filling [29, 30]. COBRA Toolbox v3.0 [31] was used

in this study and the database was based on ModelSeed. Further manual curation was

performed when model was unable to be corrected by gap-filling steps, for instance:

unnecessary reactions must be on for model running, and to avoid stoichiometrically

balanced cycles which are a subset of contiguous reactions that forms a loop or internal

network reactions, that carry fluxes without any exchange reactions involved. The model was

adjusted based on the literature (basic nutrient requirement for cell growth and common

pathways) and reference model *i*JO1366 [14]. The correction procedure included

adding/deletion of reactions, adjusting of reversibility/directionality of reactions, and change

of biomass consumption reactions. Metabolic models have been included as Supplementary

Material 3 (Table S5), Supplementary Material 4 (Table S6) and Supplementary Material 5

(Table S7).

GEM analysis

The growth prediction analysis was performed on the SurreyFBA 2.0 beta with JyMet2

[32]. The model was imported as a SurreyFBA formatted file, meanwhile a specific format

(pfile) was also introduced, in which the media setting can be adjusted via changing the

upper/lower bound of each exchange reaction. The computational prediction of growth rate

was based on typical flux units (millimole per gram dry weight per hour, mmol gDW^{-1} h^{-1}).

The default nutrient sources were glucose (carbon, C), ammonia (NH_3), phosphate (PO_4^{2-})

and sulphate (SO_4^{2-}). When examining the usage of a particular nutrient source, the exchange

reaction of its corresponding default source was adjusted to zero (reaction shut down). In

addition, growth simulation studies were performed using the *E. coli* K-12 model *i*JO1366

[14] for comparative analysis. Due to the differences in default nutrient requirements in

modelling, two growth simulations (*i*JO1366a and *i*JO1366b) were performed within two

different input nutrient settings. The input nutrients of *i*JO1366a were adjusted as in the

APEC model used here, where the exchange reactions of selenate (SeO_4^{2-}), selenite (SeO_3^{2-})

and tungstate (WO_4^{2-}) were disabled as they are absent from the APEC model; whilst these

three exchange reactions were enabled in *iJO1366*b to perform the optimal conditions for

*i*JO1366. In both *i*JO1366a and *i*JO1366b, the exchange reactions of molybdate (MoO_4^{2-}) and

nickel (Ni^{2+}), which are also absent from the APEC model, were kept enabled, as they are

essential for *i*JO1366. The phenotypic and computational measurements were compared

using a Pearson correlation coefficient test to measure the strength and direction of these two

variables.

Inactivation of genes in *E. coli*

Genes were inactivated using the Red Lambda Recombination assay [33]. Two gene

targets (*lysA* and *potE*) were selected based on gene essentially predicted by model. The

target genes were disrupted by deletion of approximately 450~550 bp sequence in the middle

part of the gene sequence, and replaced with a chloramphenicol resistance cassette (CAT) as

selective marker. These cloning fragments were constructed using gBlocks gene fragments in

tubes service (gBlocks™, Integrated DNA Technologies). APEC isolates were selected for

gene inactivation experiments from phylogroup B2, G and C, respectively, with 90%

coverage and identity for the *lysA* and *potE* genes, and no resistance to ampicillin and

chloramphenicol in Mueller Hinton broth, as these were used as selective markers for the

inactivation procedure and associated plasmids. Electrocompetent cells were generated by

three times washing with ice-cold 10% glycerol and electroporated with the assistant plasmid

pSIJ8 [33, 34], containing an ampicillin resistance gene. The transformed cells with pSIJ8

were selected on LB agar supplemented with ampicillin, followed by PCR using primers

described in Supplementary Material 2, Table S8. The expression of the pSIJ8-encoded λ-

Red recombination system was induced with 0.5M arabinose. The cloning fragment was then

introduced through electroporation, with cells recovered at 30°C (as plasmid pSIJ8 is

temperature sensitive) on a shaking platform for 1 -2h. Mutants were selected on

chloramphenicol-containing LB plates and verified by PCR. We also designed a reverse

transcription quantitative-PCR (RT-qPCR) to confirm the absence of *lysA* and *potE* mRNA

transcripts in mutant candidates. The primers and probe of the real time quantitative PCR

were designed to amplify the sequences deleted from the wildtype isolate during the

construction of the cloning fragment (Supplementary Material 2, Table S8).

RESULTS

Genomic characterisation of APEC isolates for metabolic model generation

A total of 114 *E. coli* isolates were included in this study, isolated from diseased birds

from the UK and Germany. The pathologies observed are provided in Supplementary

Material 1, Table S1, and ranged from colibacillosis, perihepatitis, peritonitis, pericarditis to

yolk sac infection. To test whether these 114 APEC isolates were representative of the APEC

pathotype, their genome sequences were determined using Illumina sequencing and

subsequent genome assembly. The total size of the genome assemblies was between 4.72-

5.56 Mbp (average 5.11 Mbp), with the number of contigs ranging from 104-327 (average

197), and the N_{50} ranging from 63-342 kbp (average 159 kbp). Subsequently their

phylogroups, dominant serogroups and sequence types were determined using the genome

sequences (Figure 1). The phylogenetic grouping of isolates based on core genome SNPs

matched the distinctions in phylogroups and sequence types. *In silico* phylogroup typing

showed that the majority of APEC isolates belonged to B2 (27.2%), followed by C (18.4%),

G (16.7%), A (15.8%) and B1 (13.2%). The phylogroups D, E and F were underrepresented

in this collection. The most prevalent serogroups were O78 (17%) and O2 (13%) and the

most common MLST sequence types (STs) were ST-117 (15.8%), ST-23 (12.3%) and ST-95

(10.5%). Screening of the genome sequences for the presence of 11 virulence markers

showed that 83/114 (73%) of the included APEC isolates had 5 or more of these virulence

markers. All these characteristics broadly matched earlier studies [4-7, 35], and hence we

consider this collection of isolates broadly representative for the APEC pathotype.

Generation of the metabolic profile of the APEC pathotype

The metabolic profile of the APEC isolates was predicted using ModelSEED. A total of

1,848 different metabolic reactions were identified and annotated in the 114 APEC isolates

included, and were defined as pan reactions. A total of 1,639 reactions (88.7%) were shared

among all isolates, defined as core reactions, whereas 209 reactions (11.3%) were defined as

accessory reactions. The reactions were categorised according to their predicted metabolic

functions using ModelSEED, as shown in Figure 2. The most highly conserved metabolic

reactions were responsible for lipid metabolism (96.4%), nucleotide metabolism (95.1%),

coenzyme metabolism (94.2%) and energy production (93.9%). Reactions for alternative

carbohydrate utilisation and amino acid metabolism made up 42.9% (792/1,848) of pan

reactions and 52.6% (110/209) of accessory reactions. The metabolic reactions were

subsequently clustered with the phylogroups identified (Figure 3, Supplementary Material 2,

Table S9). In the accessory reactions, there was clustering of metabolic profiles of APEC

isolates from the same phylogroups, especially in metabolism of alternative carbohydrates

and amino acids including their transport/exchange capabilities. This suggests that certain

lineages are likely adapted to niches or environments, where they may harbour an advantage

in the utilisation of available nutrient. Notably, phylogroup B2 APEC isolates displayed

distinct metabolic capabilities compared to the other phylogroups. Similar observations were

also reported previously [36, 37]. Metabolic capabilities absent in phylogroup B2 were

mainly associated with amino acids and carbohydrates, and related transport/exchange of

metabolites. In contrast, metabolic reactions involved in membrane biogenesis, such as N-

acetylneuraminic acid (Neu5Ac) metabolism, were predominantly clustered in phylogroup

B2 and G. These reactions have been described to contribute to the pathogenicity of Gram-

negative bacteria by protecting against the host immune system [38].

Characterisation of APEC GEM and phylogroup-specific sub-models

The 1,848 metabolic reactions identified in the APEC isolates were used to generate a

draft genome-scale metabolic model using ModelSEED. Sixteen reactions were excluded as

dead-end reactions. Eventually, the pan-genome metabolic model constructed in this study,

referred as APEC GEM, was composed of 2,923 reactions (inclusive of gap-filling reactions

and a total biomass reaction), 2,527 metabolites, and 2,242 genes (Figure 4). Notably, there

were many reactions added during gap-filling algorithms and manual curation, such as

spontaneous reaction for extracellular metabolites exchange, isomerization, putative

reactions, which significantly change the distribution of functional categories compared to

Figure 2. Based on KEGG annotations and the *E. coli* K-12 model [14], a large number of

exchange reactions of extracellular metabolites were accumulated in the transport/exchange

functional category (Figure 4). This contrasted with the central metabolism reactions, such as

those involved in energy production and nucleotide metabolism, which are generally

conserved across *E. coli* lineages.

The APEC GEM was built as a pan-genome metabolic model, to represent the full

metabolic capabilities in the complete APEC collection used in this study. Considering the

distinct metabolic variances between different APEC lineages (Figure 3, Supplementary

Material 2, Table S9), phylogroup B2, C and G-specific models were generated from the

APEC GEM to represent the metabolic capability and deficiency of each phylogroup. A brief

summary of the reactions associated with different metabolic categories removed for sub-

model construction for each phylogroup is shown in Supplementary Material 1, Figure S1. In

total, 133 reactions were deleted during the construction of sub-models. Notably, the same set

of metabolic pathways were removed from more than one phylogroup. Most of deleted

reactions were associated with carbohydrate metabolism, accounting for 42%, followed by

amino acid metabolism (14.3%) and transport/exchange reactions (9%). A relatively high

ratio of carbohydrate (13/19) and amino acid (45/57) metabolism reactions and

transport/exchange reactions (9/12) were removed in phylogroup B2 in this study, consistent

with prior observations. Besides, 39/57 of carbohydrate metabolism reactions were removed

for phylogroup G.

Gene essentiality analysis of APEC GEM

Gene essentiality analysis is often adopted to evaluate the validity of GEM by comparing

with experimentally obtained essential gene datasets [9, 16]. The APEC GEM was used to

predict growth on glucose and glycerol as carbon sources. For growth on glucose or glycerol,

the lower boundaries of the glucose and glycerol exchange reactions were set to -1,000,

respectively. All 2,242 genes in APEC GEM were inactivated *in silico* individually as time

and growth were simulated by flux balance analysis (FBA) (Supplementary Material 2, Table

S2). When inactivation of a gene resulted in a growth rate above zero, it was considered as a

non-essential gene. The gene essentiality predictions on glucose and glycerol in minimal

media showed a consistent outcome using the APEC model in this study (Supplementary

Material 2, Table S2). In general, *in silico* inactivation of 208 out of 2,242 genes (9.3%) led

to an absence of flux through the network and as such would lead to growth inhibition, and

thus were determined to be essential genes in the APEC model. The distribution of these

essential genes is shown in Supplementary Material 1, Figure S2. Of these essential genes, 57

(27%) were associated with more than one reaction in this model. 13% were responsible for

amino acid metabolism and 3% for carbohydrate metabolism. To validate these predictions,

we decided against the use of the Keio collection grown on glucose/glycerol, as there are

significant differences between *E. coli* K-12 and APEC. Hence two single gene knockout

mutants were constructed in APEC for this purpose, in the essential *lysA* gene and non-

essential *potE* gene. Both genes were present in 100% of the 114 APEC isolates analysed in

this study.

The *lysA* gene is predicted to encode a diaminopimelate decarboxylase that is responsible

for the biosynthesis of lysine. In the model, the *lysA* gene (model ID: peg18487) was

determined to be an essential gene and encoded for chemical equation (model ID:

R_rxn00313) as below ([c] represent for the metabolites in cytoplasm):

Rxn00313: (1) H$^+$ [c]+(1) meso-2,6-Diaminopimelate [c] => (1) CO$_2$ [c]+(1) L-Lysine [c]

The *potE* gene encodes a membrane protein mediating both the uptake (via proton

symport mechanism) and excretion of putrescine (as a putrescine and ornithine antiporter).

There is redundancy in putrescine transport with the PotABCD, PotFGHI, PlaP/YeeF, PuuP

and SapBCDF systems [39-42]. In the model, the target gene *potE* (model ID: peg6625) was

determined as non-essential and responsible for two putrescine transport reactions (model ID:

R_rxn05867 and R_rxn10182). For the modelling purpose, the chemical equations of these

two reactions are represented as below ([e] represents for the extracellular metabolites; [c]

represent for the metabolites in cytoplasm):

Rxn05687: (1) H$^+$[e] + (1) Putrescine[e] => (1) H$^+$[c] + (1) Putrescine[c]

Rxn10182: (1) Ornithine[c] + (1) Putrescine[e] <=> (1) Ornithine[e] + (1) Putrescine[c]

The *lysA* mutants generated in isolates SAP0010 and SAP0631 and *potE* mutant

generated in isolates SAP0631 were analysed using glucoside as default carbon source. Other

default nutrient sources were adjusted by general standard principle described in next section.

The *in-silico* growth prediction of knockouts grown in with and without supplementation of

L-lysine or putrescine were compared to the phenotypic screening using M9 minimal medium

as illustrated in Figure 5. The Δ*lysA* mutants (Δ*lysA* 10-9 and Δ*lysA* 631-11) were observed to

be auxotrophic for L-lysine (Figure 5), which indicates the fact that the *lysA* gene encodes the

enzyme in the final and only lysine biosynthesis pathway. This was also revealed in APEC

GEM knockout analysis that no biomass was produced when the rxc00313 was switched off.

On the contrary, the supplementation of putrescine in M9 medium did not lead any

significant change in growth between the Δ*potE* 631-12 mutant and its parental strain (Figure

5). The APEC GEMs correctly predicted the growth status of these knockout mutants, as well

as their wildtype, in minimal media with and without supplementation.

Comparison of the APEC GEM with the *E. coli* K-12 *i*JO1366 GEM

To validate *in silico* model prediction with phenotypic observations, the growth

(respiration) phenotype of three representative APEC isolates, chosen from phylogroups B2,

C and G, were tested using the Biolog Phenotypic Microarray analysis (PM1, PM2A: carbon

source plates, and PM4A: sulphate and phosphate plate). The respiration measurements are

available in Supplementary Material 2, Table S3. In total, 125 nutrient substrates were

analysed in the APEC model, and 119 substrates were analysed in *i*jO1366 (Supplementary

Material 2, Table S4). The Pearson correlation coefficient of all three comparison

experiments showed mostly positive correlations; the *i*JO1366a model showed a weak

positive correlation (r^2 values between 0.07 and 0.17, Supplementary Material 1, Figure S3),

while the *i*JO1366b and APEC models showed a moderate positive correlations (r^2 values

between 0.50 and 0.59, Figure 6). Under the optimised media settings, the APEC model

showed an improved performance with the representative phylogroups C (r^2=0.59, $p < 0.005$)

and G (r^2=0.59, $p < 0.005$), while it showed decreased performance with phylogroup B2

(r^2=0.50, $p < 0.005$), compared to model *i*JO1366 (Figure 6).

Comparison of the APEC GEM with phylogroup-specific sub-models

We also explored the performance of phylogroup-specific APEC model based sub

models. The default media setting of phylogroup based sub-models were modified from the

APEC GEM, with the import of Fe(II)-Nicotianamine (Fe(II)-NA or Fe^{2+}-NA) added as it

was required for model performance of sub-models for phylogroups C and G. In total, *in*

silico flux balance analysis (FBA) of 142 nutrient substrates was performed with phylogroup-

specific sub-models and then compared to growth simulation of APEC GEM according to

Biolog data (Supplementary Material 2, Table S4). In Figure 7, the relationship between the

computational prediction from the sub-models and their Biolog measurements showed

moderate positive correlation (r^2 values of 0.51, 0.64 and 0.3 for phylogroups C, G and B2,

respectively). Compared to the computational prediction by the pan model APEC GEM, the

sub-models of phylogroup C performed less well under similar media input, while the

phylogroup G and B2 sub-model showed improved performance compared to APEC model.

Identification of 3-hydroxyphenylacetate as a phylogroup C APEC-specific nutrient

During querying of the phylogroup-specific APEC GEMs, one of the reactions predicted

to be specific for phylogroup C APEC isolates was associated with the metabolism of 3- and

4-hydroxyphenylacetic acid:

Rxn02363: $NADH+O_2+H^++$3-hydroxyphenylacetate $=> H_2O+NAD^++$homoprotocatechuate

This reaction is catalysed by 4-hydroxyphenylacetate 3-monooxygenase oxygenase,

encoded by gene *hpaB* (4-hydroxyphenylacetate 3-monooxygenase, EC 1.14.13.3). The *hpaB*

gene was present in all phylogroup C (n=21/21) APEC, while absent in phylogroup B2

(n=0/31) and G (n=0/19) APEC. The *hpaB* gene was detected in phylogroups A and B1 as

well, but these constitute minor phylogroups for APEC. The metabolic variation on 3-HPAA

metabolism was measured using M9 minimal medium. As is shown in Supplementary

Material 1, Figure S4, five phylogroup C isolates were all able to grow with the three

different concentrations of 3-HPAA tested, whereas six phylogroup B2 and two phylogroup

G isolates were unable to grow with 3-HPAA as the single carbon source (Supplementary

Material 1, Figure S5), but all grew in LB medium.

The metabolism of 3-HPAA in *E. coli* has been described previously [43, 44]. However,

the intracellular/extracellular reaction of 3-HPAA in *E. coli* has not yet been documented in

the ModelSEED database. Therefore, we manually added the exchange reaction of 3-HPAA

into the sub-models, in order to perform the growth simulation with/without supplementary

of 3-HPAA. The additional reactions are presented as below (cpd03320 is the compound ID

of 3-HPAA in APEC GEM and relative sub-models, *e* represent for extracellular; *b* represents

for periplasm; *c* represent for cytoplasm):

R_e2c_cpd03320: M_cpd03320_e = M_cpd03320_c

R_EX_cpd03320: M_cpd03320_e = M_cpd03320_b

The lower bound (lb) of the 3-HPAA exchange reaction was adjusted to 0, -10, -100 and

-1000 in the APEC GEM sub-model B2, C and G, to simulate APEC growth in response to

four different concentrations of 3-HPAA. The growth prediction of different sub-groups and

M9 experimental observation are summarised in Figure 8. In sub-models B2 and G, the

relatively minimal biomass (~15) was produced with the lower bound of 3-HPAA exchange

reaction adjusted to 0, -10, -100, and -1000 (increasing uptake), which was assumed as no

growth for the modelling purpose. This agreed with the M9 minimal media experimental

data, where isolates from phylogroup B2 and G were unable to use 3-HPAA as the sole

carbon source. However, growth was predicted in sub-model C, matching the setting of

increased uptake of 3-HPAA (Figure 8).

DISCUSSION

In this study, we have investigated the metabolic capabilities of a representative set of

114 avian pathogenic *E. coli* isolates representing different phylogroups. A genome scale

metabolic model was constructed based on the genome sequences of these APEC isolates and

used to 1) perform growth simulation experiments which were validated using phenotypic

assays 2) perform gene essentiality analysis 3) investigate functional difference between

phylogroups and develop phylogroup based sub-models.

The comparative genomic analysis performed in this study confirmed that the APEC

pathotype is genetically variable, with phylogroups B2, C and G being the dominant lineages

[4, 5, 45]. The resulting genome scale metabolic profile of the 114 APEC isolates (Figure 3,

Supplementary Material 2, Table S9) showed strong conservation in central metabolism

involved in energy production, with the ratio of core metabolism versus accessory

metabolism higher than in previous studies, where multiple *E. coli* pathotypes and

commensal isolates were involved [9, 46]. The major metabolic variances between isolates

are associated with metabolism of carbohydrates and amino acids, as well as

exchange/transport reactions. This was confirmed using Biolog metabolic analysis performed

in this study. As shown in Figure 3 and Supplementary Material 2, Table S9, the phylogroup

B2 isolates showed distinct metabolic features (mostly missing metabolic reactions)

compared to others, which was previously also observed [36, 47, 48]. This is consistent with

the view that loss and acquisition of genes during evolution differentiates isolates into

different lineage with unique metabolic profiles and adaptation to specific niches.

When comparing the predictions of the APEC model with the Biolog phenotypic

measurements, the association between APEC GEM prediction and phenotypic observations

was moderately positive (r^2 values between 0.5 and 0.6). The vast numbers of reactions and

genes encompassed within metabolic models potentially leads to a high risk of gaps or errors

within the metabolic network. Furthermore, the reconstruction of GEMs is severely limited

by the paucity of verified metabolic pathways that are specific to APEC and current

knowledge in our database, including errors introduced by automatic annotation of genome

sequences in the respective databases. From the perspective of APEC diversity, the pan-

genome scale metabolic model is too extensive to represent the differences and specifics of

certain APEC lineages. Notably, in this study, we used the Biolog platform as the indicator of

biomass formation of APEC isolates in response to different nutrient sources, while this assay

is based on the measurement of microbial respiration and reflected by dye changes. These

two different measurements may lead to false-positive or -negative results during the

coefficient relationship analysis. This was addressed by changing the function from biomass

production to indicator dye reduction used in the Biolog plates, which leads to a significantly

decrease in false negative results [8]. Alternatively, a comprehensive screening of isolates

using different nutrient sources by M9 minimal medium may provide more direct observation

for model validation. Typically, the phenotype of the Keio collection was used in model

validation of *i*JO1366 [14]. However, this was not appropriate for our study due to the

significant differences between the laboratory strain K-12 and the APEC pathotype.

Moreover, the APEC pathotype has a diverse metabolic profile and construction of a single

gene knockout library representing the APEC pathotype is not possible, which made it

difficult to apply the APEC metabolic model for the pathotype. However, the APEC

metabolic model provides a comprehensive database of metabolic capabilities for a diverse

panel of APEC, and as such can be used for initial predictions, and can be used as the basis

for the construction of lineage-based strain sub-models, as performed here for the dominant

phylogroups B2, C and G.

Although no significant improvement in the association strength between computational

prediction of sub-models and the phenotypic measurement of the corresponding APEC

isolates were observed, the APEC model showed its potential and plasticity as a pan model

used for the construction of phylogroup B2, C and G sub-models. The phenotypic difference

in catabolism of 3-HPAA in phylogroup B2, C and G were successfully predicted by those

phylogroup based sub-models as a proof of principle. Interestingly, 3- hydroxyphenylacetate

and 4-hydroxyphenylacetate are the main phenolic acids derived from flavonoid quercetin

(which is commonly added to poultry feed) in the colorectum [49, 50]. Therefore, these

compounds are likely to accumulate in the avian intestine and its utilisation could be a

hypothetical nutrient advantage in the intestinal microbial community. The phylogroup C

sub-models not only predicted the growth of phylogroup C APEC isolates using 3-

hydroxyphenylacetate as sole carbon source, but also reflected the biomass increases

alongside the enhancing lower bound setting of 3- hydroxyphenylacetate (Figure 8,

Supplementary Material 1, Figure S4).

The models generated in this study can be further exploited for the identification of

additional pathways that are unique to APEC lineages. Although APEC are extraintestinal

pathogens, potential APEC isolates are present in the intestinal *E. coli* population [7], and

may form a reservoir for future infections within flocks. These models may inform the

targeted suppression of such APEC populations thereby benefitting avian health and welfare

in the long term. The approach taken may also be applicable for other genetically diverse

intestinal or extraintestinal pathogens dispersed over multiple lineages. Furthermore, in the

future, the rapid progress in software development (e.g. Bactabolize [51]), availability of

APEC genome sequences and associated repositories may expedite the generation of genome

scale metabolic models to revisit or improve existing metabolic models for APEC and other

E. coli pathotypes.

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LEGENDS TO FIGURES

Figure 1. APEC population structure for the isolates selected for GEM construction in this

study assigned with phylogroup (n=114). Colour code of phylogroups: A = Yellow, B1 =

Green, B2 = Red, C = Orange, D = Purple, E = Blue, F = Light blue, G = Black. The

distribution of dominant serogroups is shown in the outer ring. The colour code of serogroup:

O78 = Black, O2 = Blue, O18ac = Grey, O1 = Green. The distribution of dominant Sequence

types (STs) is shown in the middle ring. The colour code for sequence types: ST-117 =

Purple, ST-23 = Red, ST-95 = Black, ST-93 = Blue, ST-101 = Grey, ST-140 = Yellow. The

three representative APEC isolates from phylogroup B2, C and G used for Biolog phenotype

assays are highlighted with a red triangle symbol.

Figure 2. The distribution of annotated metabolic reactions screened by ModelSEED in 114

APEC isolates. This figure illustrates the core (Grey) and pan (Blue) metabolic content of the

114 APEC isolates used in this study. The core and pan content were defined by the extent of

content shared among all isolates. The percentage shown represents the core reactions of the

total.

Figure 3. Distribution of accessory metabolic reactions in APEC (n=114) among different

phylogenetic groups, clustered using a tree based on single nucleotide polymorphisms.

Colour code of phylogroups (from top to bottom): Yellow = A; Green = B1; Orange = C;

Dark blue = E; Purple = D; Light blue = F; Red = B2; Pink = G. Presence of metabolic

reactions is represented using a filled square, absence of the reaction by an open square. Only

the 209 accessory reactions of the total of 1,848 reactions (pan) are shown here; a full

overview of reactions and distribution in the 114 APEC is provided in Supplementary

Material 2, Table S9. The functional categories of accessory reactions is also shown here.

Colour code of functional categories of reactions (from left to right): Black = Amino acid

metabolism; Blue = Carbohydrate metabolism; Red = Cell wall/ membrane/ envelope

metabolism; Orange = Cofactor and prosthetic group metabolism; Dark blue = Energy

production and conversion; Light blue = Inorganic ion transport and metabolism; Beige =

Lipid metabolism; Green = Nucleotide metabolism; Gray = Other; Purple =

Transport/exchange reaction; Dark pink = unassigned (* Unassigned reactions were not

involved in reconstruction of APEC GEM or phylogroup-specific Sub-GEMs, as determined

as dead-end reactions by gap-filling).

Figure 4. The distribution of the final defined reactions (Grey) in the APEC model after gap-

filling and manual curation compared to the annotated metabolic reactions (Blue) screened by

ModelSEED in 114 APEC isolates. The percentage shown represents the fraction of reactions

retained in the model.

Figure 5. The computational growth prediction (Left) and phenotypic observation (Right) of

wildtype and single gene knockout isolates under constrained nutrient input. Figure 5A shows

the effect of inactivation of *lysA* with/without medium supplementation with lysine; an

asterisk indicates lack of growth demonstrating the essential role of the *lysA* gene. Figure 5B

shows the effect of inactivation of *potE* with/without medium supplementation with

putrescine, which had no effect as the gene is not essential. The computational prediction is

generated by APEC GEM and data is measured by flux unit (mmol gDW^{-1} h^{-1}); The

phenotypic observation is measured using M9 minimal medium and the optical density is

recorded after 24 hour incubation (37 °C) at a wavelength of 600 nm in 96-well plate. The

error bar shows standard deviation (SD) of the mean of 3 biological replicates. Asterisks

indicate an absence of growth.

Figure 6. Scatter plots comparing computational predictions from the *E. coli* K-12 *i*JO1366

model and the APEC model for three APEC isolates representing phylogroups B2, C and G,

with Biolog phenotypic observations with single nutrient source utilisation. The APEC

isolates used are from phylogroup C (SAP0009), G (SAP0545) and B2 (SAP0474). The

scatter plots show the model prediction (X-axis) using *i*JO1366b (Left) and APEC model

(Right) and phenotypic observation using Biolog measurement (Y-axis). The correlation

value shown above graphs is the Pearson correlation coefficient r^2 value.

Figure 7. Scatter plots comparing computational predictions from the APEC phylogroup-

specific sub-models for phylogroups B2, C and G with the general APEC model for three

APEC isolates representing phylogroups B2, C and G, with Biolog phenotypic observations

with single nutrient source utilisation. The APEC isolates used are from phylogroup C

(SAP0009), G (SAP0545) and B2 (SAP0474). The scatter plots show the model prediction

(X-axis) using *i*JO1366b (Left) and APEC model (Right) and phenotypic observation using

Biolog measurement (Y-axis). The correlation value shown above graphs is the Pearson

correlation coefficient r^2 value.

Figure 8. The comparison between *in silico* prediction and M9 minimal medium

measurements of different phylogroup APEC isolates on utilisation of different concentration

of 3-hydroxyphenoylacetic acid (3-HPAA). The left figures show the *in silico* prediction

using phylogroup-based sub-model (C, G and B2) under the constrain of 3-HPAA exchange

reaction lower bound adjusted to 0, -10 (low), -100 (medium) and -1000 (high), respectively

(-1000 refers to unlimited uptake of inputs). The right figures show the phenotypic

measurements in M9 minimal media with supplement of 0 mM (zero), 0.5 mM (low), 0.75

mM (medium), and 1 mM (high) 3-hydroxyphenoylacetic acid as sole carbon source. The

measurements indicate the mean of three biological endpoint (t=18h) readings. More detailed

growth curves are provided in Supplementary Material 1, Figures S4 and S5. Asterisks

indicate an absence of growth.

Tree scale: 0.0001

Huijun Long et al, Figure 1

Huijun Long et al, Figure 2

APEC isolates

Accessory reactions (n=209 of 1848, 11.3%)

Functional categories of reactions

Amino acid metabolism | Carbohydrate metabolism | Cell wall, membrane, envelope metabolism | Cofactor and prosthetic groups | Energy production & conversion | Inorganic ion transport and metabolism | Lipid metabolism | Nucleotide metabolism | Other | Transport/exchange | Unassigned

Huijun Long et al, Figure 3

Huijun Long et al, Figure 4

A

B

_iJ_O1366b   **APEC model**

Phylogroup Sub-models

APEC model

Huijun Long et al, Figure 7

in silico prediction

M9 minimal media

Phylogroup C

The flux unit
(mmol gDW⁻¹ h⁻¹)

- Zero
- Low
- Medium
- High

input lower bound

Optical density
at 540nm

- Zero
- Low
- Medium
- High

Concentration of 3-HPAA (mM)

Phylogroup B2

The flux unit
(mmol gDW⁻¹ h⁻¹)

- Zero
- Low
- Medium
- High

input lower bound

Optical density
at 540nm

- Zero
- Low
- Medium
- High

Concentration of 3-HPAA (mM)

Phylogroup G

The flux unit
(mmol gDW⁻¹ h⁻¹)

- Zero
- Low
- Medium
- High

input lower bound

Optical density
at 540nm

- Zero
- Low
- Medium
- High

Concentration of 3-HPAA (mM)

Huijun Long et al, Figure 8