# **1** Horizontal transfer of a pathway for coumarate catabolism unexpectedly

## 2 inhibits purine nucleotide biosynthesis

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#### 27 Abstract:

Metabolic pathways are frequently transferred between bacterial strains in the environment 28 29 through horizontal gene transfer (HGT), yet laboratory engineering to introduce new metabolic pathways often fails. Successful use of a pathway requires co-evolution of both pathway and 30 host, and these interactions may be disrupted upon transfer to a new host. Here we show that two 31 different pathways for catabolism of coumarate failed to function when initially transferred into 32 Escherichia coli. Using laboratory evolution, we elucidated the factors limiting activity of the 33 newly-acquired pathways and the modifications required to overcome these limitations. Both 34 pathways required mutations to the host to enable effective growth with coumarate, but the 35 necessary mutations differed depending on the chemistry and intermediates of the pathways. In 36 one case, an intermediate inhibited purine nucleotide biosynthesis, and this inhibition was 37 relieved by single amino acid mutations to IMP dehydrogenase. A strain that natively contains 38 this coumarate catabolism pathway, Acinetobacter baumannii, is already resistant to inhibition 39 by the relevant intermediate, suggesting that natural pathway transfers have faced and overcome 40 similar challenges. These discoveries will aid in our understanding of HGT and ability to 41 42 predictably engineer metabolism. 43

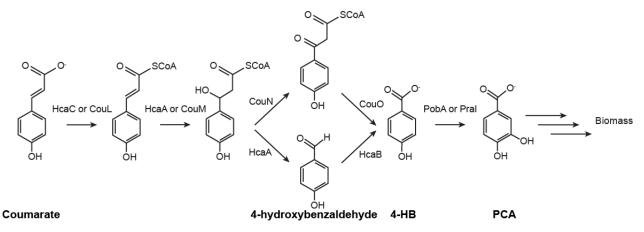
#### 45 Introduction

Microbes have the ability to use a wide variety of compounds as carbon and energy sources. 46 Expanding the breadth of compounds that a strain can catabolize can be highly beneficial, both to 47 access to new environmental niches and for engineered microbes that can use new feedstocks. 48 Correspondingly, the catabolic pathways responsible for these abilities are frequently transferred 49 between strains, either in nature through horizontal gene transfer (HGT) or in the laboratory 50 through metabolic engineering (Nielsen and Keasling, 2016; Pál et al., 2005). However, 51 depending on the precise chemistry involved, new pathways often fail to function effectively in 52 their new host (Porse et al., 2018). In these cases, productive use of a new pathway may require 53 post-transfer refinement to optimize expression and minimize deleterious interactions (Clark et 54 al., 2015; Michener et al., 2014). The pathway activity immediately following transfer may be 55 very different from the potential activity after optimization, complicating predictions about 56 engineering or HGT. 57

Pathway selection and optimization is particularly important for the conversion of lignin-58 derived aromatic compounds, such as the phenylpropanoid coumarate. Use of lignocellulosic 59 60 biomass as a feedstock for biofuel production yields a substantial lignin byproduct stream, which can be thermochemically depolymerized to yield complex mixtures containing multiple 61 62 phenylpropanoid derivatives (Rodriguez et al., 2017). Many of these phenylpropanoids also occur naturally during lignocellulose decay and, as a result, microbes have evolved the ability to 63 64 consume them as sources of carbon and energy (Bomble et al., 2017; Bugg et al., 2011). The efficient biological conversion of lignin-derived aromatic compounds into fuels and chemicals 65 66 will be a key factor in making biofuel production cost-effective (Linger et al., 2014; Ragauskas et al., 2014). Successful use of the diverse mixtures of compounds produced from lignin 67 68 depolymerization will require the ability to tailor a metabolic network to the particular substrate mixture. Facile assembly of a metabolic network from individual pathways will, in turn, require 69 the elimination of any inhibitory interactions between pathways and the host. 70

We have explored these issues using pathways for catabolism of a natural phenylpropanoid,
coumarate, transferred into the non-native host *E. coli*. There are two known oxidative routes for
phenylpropanoid catabolism, differing in their specific reaction chemistry and resulting
intermediates (Figure 1). These pathways are exemplified by the *hca* pathway from *Acinetobacter* sp. ADP1 (Parke and Ornston, 2003) and the *cou* pathway from *Rhodococcus*

- *jostii* (Otani et al., 2014). Both pathways begin by deacetylating the phenylpropanoid substrate.
- 77 The *hca* pathway then uses a retro-aldol reaction to produce an intermediate benzaldehyde
- derivative, while the *cou* pathway uses a hydrolytic retro-Claisen reaction to directly produce the
- 79 benzoate derivative.



**Figure 1:** Two routes, exemplified by the *hcaABC* pathway from *Acinetobacter* sp. ADP1 and

the *couLMNO* pathway from *R. jostii*, deacetylate the phenylpropanoid coumarate to 4-

- 83 hydroxybenzoate. For simplicity, cofactors and the resulting acetyl-CoA are not shown.
- 84

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However, biochemical pathways do not function in isolation, but instead are embedded in a 85 complex network of metabolic and regulatory interactions. Transfer into a new host will disrupt 86 these interactions, potentially interfering with either activity of the heterologous pathway or the 87 88 host's native processes. Since these two phenylpropanoid pathways use different biochemistry and intermediates, their interactions with the host may also differ substantially (Kim and Copley, 89 2012). Identifying the likeliest pairing of host and pathway, either for engineering or HGT, will 90 depend on understanding the specific challenges imposed by each potential pathway and the 91 92 mechanisms to overcome these challenges available to the host.

In this work, we used a combination of engineering and evolution to construct and optimize two pathways for phenylpropanoid catabolism in the common host, *E. coli*. We show that, after optimization, both the *hca* and *cou* pathways are capable of supporting growth with coumarate. However, due to differences in pathway biochemistry, the mutations required for efficient growth differ between the two pathways. The *hca* pathway produces a unique metabolite that inhibits a key enzyme in nucleotide biosynthesis, and mutations to the host are necessary to alleviate this inhibition and allow growth. Beneficial mutations to the *cou* pathway occurred

100 through different mechanisms, including mutations to an enzyme involved in cofactor salvage.

101 Understanding these types of interactions between an engineered metabolic pathway and its

102 heterologous host is key to building flexible metabolic networks that can easily be tailored to

103 specific feedstocks.

104

## 105 Results

106 Combining engineering and evolution enabled coumarate catabolism

We designed and synthesized two pathways for phenylpropanoid import and degradation, each of which converts coumarate into 4-hydroxybenzoate (4-HB) (Figure 1 and Figure S1). Each pathway was introduced into *E. coli* strains, JME38 and JME50, that had previously been engineered to grow with 4-HB (Standaert et al., 2018). None of the engineered strains acquired the immediate ability to grow with coumarate as the sole source of carbon and energy (Figure S2).

To understand the factors preventing pathway function, we used experimental evolution to select for strains with the ability to catabolize coumarate. Three replicate cultures of each engineered strain were propagated in minimal medium containing 1 g/L coumarate. After 300 generations, individual mutants were isolated from each population and characterized for growth with protocatechuate (PCA), 4-HB, coumarate, and caffeate. Representative isolates were chosen for each replicate population for further characterization. All isolates could grow with PCA and coumarate, though growth with caffeate and 4-HB varied between replicates (Figure S2).

120

121 <u>Genome resequencing and reconstruction identified causal mutations</u>

The genomes of the selected isolates were resequenced to identify new mutations (Table S1). 122 123 Several of the mutations have previously been described for their effects on catabolism of 4-HB, such as silent mutations to the gene encoding the 4-hydroxybenzoate monooxygenase *pobA* 124 (Standaert et al., 2018). Among the strains with the *hca* pathway, five of the six isolates had 125 additional mutations to the native gene guaB, encoding inosine monophosphate (IMP) 126 dehydrogenase (IMPDH), and to the intergenic region between *hcaB* and *hcaC* in the engineered 127 pathway. The exception was JME96, which had a mutation to *rpoS* that is expected to be highly 128 pleiotropic (Saxer et al., 2014). 129

In the strains with the *cou* pathway, the acquired mutations were less consistent across replicates, with several mutations to genes that are expected to be pleiotropic. However, parallel mutations were observed in JME106 and JME109, with mutations to both *couL* and *nadR*. The mutations to *couL*, which encodes the CoA ligase, were coding mutations, L192R and S134Y. One of the mutations to *nadR* led to a frameshift that precisely removed the C-terminal ribosylnicotinamide kinase (RNK) domain and the second *nadR* mutation also occurred in the RNK domain (Kurnasov et al., 2002).

To test the causality of the identified mutations, we reconstructed representative mutations in the engineered parental strains. Two mutations, to *pobA* and *hcaABCK*, were necessary for growth with coumarate in JME64, while a third mutation to *guaB* significantly increased growth (Figure 2A). Similarly, mutations to *pobA*, *couLHTMNO*, and *nadR* were all required for growth with coumarate using the *cou* pathway in JME65 (Figure 2B).

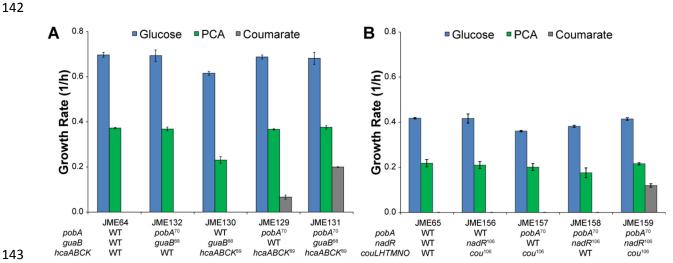


Figure 2: Reconstruction identifies causal mutations. (A) For the *hca* pathway, a triple mutant,
containing mutations to *pobA*, *guaB*, and *hcaABCK*, and the three double mutants were grown in
minimal medium with 1 g/L of the indicated substrate as the sole source of carbon and energy.

(B) As in A, except using the *cou* pathway and mutations to *pobA*, *nadR*, and *couHLTMNO*.

148 Error bars show one standard deviation, calculated from three biological replicates. For complex

149 mutations, allele superscripts indicate the evolved strain from which that allele was taken.

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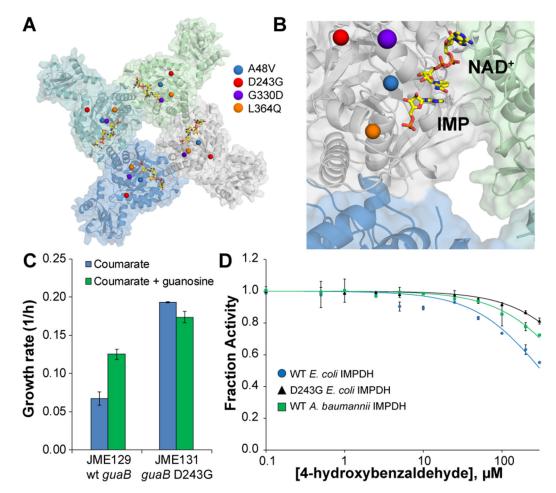
151 The *pobA* mutation has previously been shown to increase expression of PobA by

destabilizing secondary structures in the mRNA (Standaert et al., 2018). To understand the effect

of the intergenic mutations upstream of *hcaC*, we measured protein expression levels in the

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engineered strains. As expected, the mutation to *pobA* increased expression of PobA by 154 155 approximately 9-fold, while the *hcaC* mutation increased expression of both HcaB and HcaC by roughly 2-fold (Figure S3A). The intergenic mutation before *hcaC* is predicted to increase the 156 translation rates by approximately 10-fold (Espah Borujeni et al., 2014). 157 Parallelism of mutations within replicates of a pathway, but divergence between pathways, 158 strongly suggests that the mutations are specific to a particular pathway. To test this hypothesis, 159 we replaced the *hca* pathway in JME131 with either the wild-type or evolved *cou* pathways. 160 Neither strain was able to growth with coumarate as the sole source of carbon and energy. 161 162 Inhibitory cross-talk between engineered and native pathways 163 A mutation to guaB was necessary for growth with coumarate using the hca pathway. 164 IMPDH, encoded by guaB, converts inosine monophosphate (IMP) to xanthosine 165 monophosphate (XMP) during purine nucleotide biosynthesis (Hedstrom, 2009). Five 166 independent mutations to IMPDH were identified: A48V, D243G, G330D, L364O, and P482L. 167 168 We generated a model of the E. coli IMPDH, using multiple IMPDH crystal structures as templates and mapped the positions of mutations onto the model (Figure 3A). The mutations are 169 170 scattered around the structure, with no evident common mechanism to affect the active site (Figure 3B). 171 172



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Figure 3: Accumulation of 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde inhibits IMPDH. (A) Positions of mutated 174 residues in a model of the E. coli IMPDH. P482 was not included in the model and is not shown. 175 Each subunit of the IMPDH tetramer is shown in a different color. (B) A detailed view of the 176 active side of the model. IMP and NAD<sup>+</sup> are shown docked in the active site. Mutated residues 177 are as in A. (C) Strains with wildtype and mutant versions of IMPDH were grown in medium 178 containing 1 g/L coumarate with and without the addition of 5 mg/L guanosine. No growth was 179 seen with guanosine alone. Error bars show the standard deviation, calculated from three 180 biological replicates. (D) Enzyme variants were purified and assayed in vitro for inhibition by 4-181 hydroxybenzaldehyde. Curves show a model fit, using the calculated inhibition constants. Error 182 bars show the standard deviation, calculated from three biological replicates. 183 184

To understand the consequences of these mutations, we measured metabolite levels in the parent and engineered strains during growth with coumarate. Compared to the D243G *guaB*  187 mutant, the strain with wild-type *guaB* showed higher levels of AMP (Figure S4).

188 Concentrations of GMP and IMP were below the limit of detection of our assay. These results189 suggested that growth with coumarate perturbed the purine nucleotide pools.

We hypothesized that growth with coumarate led to inhibition of IMPDH and depletion of guanine nucleotides, and that this inhibition was relieved in the *guaB* mutants. To determine whether guanine nucleotide depletion inhibited growth with coumarate, we supplemented the growth medium with guanosine. Addition of guanosine increased growth with coumarate in a strain with the wildtype IMPDH, but not the mutant (Figure 3C).

195 Mutations to IMPDH improved growth with the *hca* pathway but not with the *cou* pathway.

196 The *hca* pathway produces an intermediate, 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde, that is not present in the

197 *cou* pathway (Figure 1). To test whether this intermediate was responsible for the inhibition of

198 IMPDH, we purified WT and mutant IMPDH and measured inhibition *in vitro* with 4-

hydroxybenzaldehyde. This compound is a weak inhibitor of WT *Ec*IMPDH, with a  $K_{i,app}$  of 320

 $\pm 20 \ \mu$ M (Figure 3C). Introduction of the D243G mutation had little effect on catalytic activity

201 (Table S5) but increased the  $K_{i,app}$  to  $1250 \pm 50 \mu$ M, indicating a substantial reduction of

inhibition in the mutant. The *hca* pathway that we used came from *Acinetobacter* sp. ADP1, and

203 we hypothesized that the native IMPDH of this strain would have faced similar selective

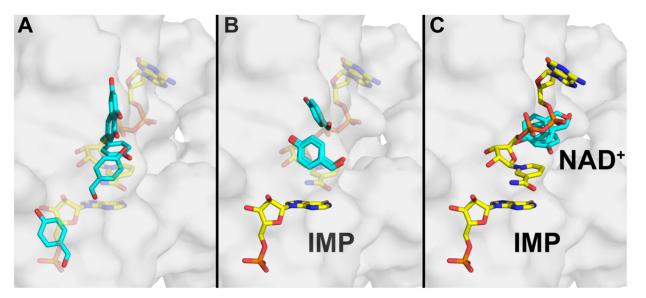
204 pressures to minimize inhibition by 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde. As a surrogate, we tested the

205 IMPDH of *A. baumanii*, which contains a homologous *hca* pathway. As predicted, the *A*.

206 *baumannii* IMPDH has a  $K_{i,app}$  of 720 ± 30  $\mu$ M. Further kinetic characterization of these IMPDH

207 homologs is summarized in Table S5.

In the IMPDH model, the carboxylate side chain of D243 forms hydrogen bonds with the backbone of V220 and the side chain of K87, which would be disrupted in the D243G mutant (Figure S6). K87 is located at the C-terminal end of a long  $\alpha$  helix, and V220 is at the beginning of a  $\beta$  strand. It is not obvious how these local changes might be propagated to the active site to relieve inhibition without affecting catalysis.



#### 214

Figure 4. Predicted docking poses for 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde to IMPDH in various enzyme states. (A) Apoenzyme, (B) IMP-bound, and (C) IMP/NAD+-bound IMPDH. The top five docking poses are shown in each case. 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde carbons are shown in cyan. All other carbons are shown in yellow. Molecules in transparent representation are shown for reference, but were not included in the docking. All hydrogens are omitted for clarity.

220

221 To gain insight into possible mechanisms of inhibition by 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde, we computationally docked 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde to the wild-type IMPDH model in the 222 223 apoenzyme, IMP-bound, and IMP/NAD<sup>+</sup>-bound states (Figure 4). As a test of our modeling and docking approach, we first redocked IMP and NAD<sup>+</sup> into their respective binding sites in the 224 225 apoenzyme and compared the resulting models with relevant template structures containing these molecules. Whereas the top docked pose of NAD<sup>+</sup> deviates slightly (1.1 Å RMSD) from its 226 227 position in the crystal structure, IMP is essentially superimposable (0.3 Å RMSD) with the corresponding crystallographic coordinates of XMP (PDB entry 4X3Z). Thus, we deemed our 228 approach sufficiently accurate to dock 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde to each of the three models. In 229 both the apoenzyme and IMP-bound models, the majority of the top poses of 4-230 hydroxybenzaldehyde occupy the NAD<sup>+</sup> binding site (Table S7). However, the structural 231 232 changes that we predict would occur in the mutant enzymes do not significantly change these 233 binding interactions.

234

235 Discussion

The *hca* pathway shows clear signs of HGT, with highly homologous pathways present in 236 various beta- and gamma-proteobacteria. In this work, we have recapitulated the process of 237 238 HGT, and demonstrated the necessity for host adaptations to accommodate the pathway in both E. coli and A. baumannii. Further HGT of this pathway would require either a host with an 239 IMPDH homolog that is resistant to inhibition by 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde, or post-transfer 240 selection for mutations that relieve inhibition. Understanding these types of limitations on HGT, 241 and the mechanisms by which organisms evolve to avoid them, will aid in our ability to predict 242 and manipulate horizontal gene transfer (Clark et al., 2015; Michener et al., 2014). 243 In combination, our results suggest that introduction of the *hca* pathway did not allow growth 244 with coumarate because accumulation of 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde inhibited the native E. coli 245 IMPDH. This inhibitory cross-talk results in nucleotide starvation and impairs growth and 246 phenylpropanoid catabolism. Mutations to IMPDH prevent inhibition by 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde 247 and allow growth with coumarate. There is no *a priori* reason to expect that a pathway for 248 degradation of an aromatic compound would interact with a native pathway for nucleotide 249 biosynthesis. Phenolic amides such as feruloyl amide have been shown to inhibit a different step 250 251 in nucleotide biosynthesis (Pisithkul et al., 2015), but neither the substrate nor products of coumarate degradation are toxic at the relevant concentrations (Clarkson et al., 2017; Standaert 252 253 et al., 2018). These types of inhibitory cross-talk are likely to be common with introduced metabolic pathways, though they are rarely identified and alleviated (Kim and Copley, 2012; 254 255 Kizer et al., 2008; Michener et al., 2012). As we have shown, relatively subtle changes in pathway structure, such as the differences between the *hca* and *cou* pathways, can dramatically 256 257 change the interactions between a pathway and its host.

Across the replicate populations, many mutations were highly pleiotropic, including large 258 259 insertions and deletions as well as mutations to core transcriptional machinery such as rho and rpoB. Duplications frequently spanned the insertion sites for engineered operons, suggesting that 260 expression of the heterologous genes was limiting. By comparing across replicates, however, we 261 were able to identify a set of point mutations that allowed growth with coumarate as the sole 262 263 source of carbon and energy. However, a reconstructed strain containing these mutations does not grow as quickly with coumarate as the evolved isolates, suggesting that some of the 264 remaining mutations provided additional fitness benefits (Figure 2 and Figure S2). 265

The phenylpropanoid CoA ligases, *couL* and *hcaC*, both required mutations for full 266 heterologous activity. The mutations to *hcaC* increased expression, presumably by modulating 267 268 translation, while the mutations to *couL* decreased expression (Figure S3B). Without direct measurements, we cannot say whether the mutations to CouL also affected the specific activity 269 of the enzyme, or whether the observed change in expression is the sole explanation for the 270 observed benefit. Similarly, it is unclear what role the *nadR* truncation plays in coumarate 271 degradation using the *cou* pathway. The C-terminal ribosylnicotinamide kinase domain is 272 involved in a minor pathway for NAD<sup>+</sup> salvage. This domain may be promiscuously 273 phosphorylating an intermediate in the *cou* pathway. 274

Inhibition of microbial growth by aldehydes is commonly observed, though the mechanisms of toxicity can rarely be traced to a specific interaction (Clarkson et al., 2014; Mills et al., 2009; Yi et al., 2015). Mutations that increase tolerance generally do so either by increasing export of the toxic compound or by performing redox chemistry to remove the aldehyde functionality (Mukhopadhyay, 2015). In this work, we have shown an example of aldehyde toxicity that acts through a single protein and can be relieved by point mutations to that protein. Other examples of nonspecific toxicity may prove to be similarly specific when characterized fully.

We have described the use of experimental evolution to identify and alleviate deleterious 282 283 interactions between engineered metabolic pathways for coumarate catabolism and native pathways for nucleotide biosynthesis and cofactor salvage. Many engineered pathways place a 284 285 substantial burden on the production host, but understanding and accommodating these interactions remains challenging. Evolution can simplify this optimization process by directly 286 287 selecting for mutations that eliminate the inhibition. As we did with guaB, researchers can then work backwards from the evolutionary solutions to understand the factors that were initially 288 289 limiting productivity and the biochemical solutions to overcome those problems. By solving more problems of this sort, we will develop design rules for future forward engineering of 290 decoupled metabolic pathways and better predictions of the likelihood of pathway transfer by 291 HGT. 292

293

#### 294 Materials and Methods

295 Strains and chemicals

Unless otherwise noted, all chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO) 296 or Fisher Scientific (Fairlawn, NJ) and were molecular grade. All oligonucleotides were ordered 297 298 from IDT (Coralville, IA). E. coli strains were routinely cultivated at 37 °C in LB containing the necessary antibiotics (50 mg/L kanamycin or 50 mg/L spectinomycin). Growth assays with 299 aromatic substrates were performed in M9 salts medium containing 300 mg/L thiamine and 1 300 mM isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG). PCA and 4-HB were dissolved in water at 5 301 g/L, filter sterilized, and added at a final concentration of 1 g/L. Coumarate and caffeate were 302 dissolved in DMSO at 100 g/L and added at a final concentration of 1 g/L. The addition of 1% 303 DMSO did not affect growth. The pH of the substrates was not controlled, as PCA oxidation 304 occurred more rapidly at neutral pH. 305 306

307 Plasmid construction

Plasmids pJM219 and pJM223, containing the *cou* and *hca* expression constructs, were 308 synthesized by the Joint Genome Institute. As described previously, the pathway design used 309 synthetic promoters, terminators, and custom ribosome binding sites (Chen et al., 2013; Espah 310 311 Borujeni et al., 2014; Kosuri et al., 2013; Salis et al., 2009). Plasmids expressing sgRNA for chromosomal modifications were constructed as described previously, using an inverse PCR to 312 313 linearize the expression vector followed by assembly with synthesized oligonucleotides (Clarkson et al., 2017). Plasmid pJM303, expressing the D243G mutant of the E. coli IMPDH, 314 315 was constructed by amplifying the mutant guaB allele from JME89 and cloning it into pMCSG7 under the control of a T7 promoter. 316

317

318 Strain construction

Genome modifications were performed as described previously, using the lambda-red recombineering system in combination with Cas9-mediated selection (Clarkson et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2015). Integration cassettes were amplified from synthesized plasmids or the chromosomal DNA of mutant strains, as needed.

323

324 Experimental evolution

Parental strains were streaked to single colonies. Three colonies from each strain were grown to saturation in LB + 1 mM IPTG, then diluted 128-fold into M9 + 1 mM IPTG + 1 g/L

327	coumarate + 50 mg/L PCA and grown at 37 °C. When the cultures reached saturation, typically
328	after two days during the initial stages, they were diluted 128-fold into fresh medium. As the
329	growth became more robust, the PCA concentration was decreased. Cultures derived from
330	JME65 and JME67 required the addition of PCA for 150 generations, and in some cases took
331	two days to reach saturation even after 300 generations. One replicate culture, JME65-C, became
332	contaminated with a different coumarate-degrading strain. This contamination was not
333	discovered until resequencing, and consequently the culture was not restarted.
334	After 300 generations, the evolved cultures were streaked to single colonies. Six isolates
335	from each replicate culture were tested for growth with PCA, 4-HB, coumarate, and caffeate.
336	Representative isolates were selected and validated, followed by genome resequencing.
337	
338	Genome resequencing
339	Genomic DNA was isolated using a Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA), according
340	to the manufacturer's directions. The DNA was then sequenced by the Joint Genome Institute on
341	a MiSeq (Illumina, San Diego, CA) to approximately 75x coverage.
342	
343	Growth rate measurements
344	Growth rates were measured as described previously (Clarkson et al., 2017). Briefly, cultures
345	were grown overnight to saturation in M9 + 1 mM IPTG + 2 g/L glucose. They were then diluted
346	100-fold into fresh M9 + IPTG containing the appropriate carbon source and grown as triplicate
347	100 µL cultures in a Bioscreen C plate reader (Oy Growth Curves Ab Ltd, Helsinki, Finland).
348	Growth rates were calculated using CurveFitter software based on readings of optical density at
349	600 nm (Delaney et al., 2013).
350	
351	Proteomic measurements
352	Engineered <i>E. coli</i> strains were grown to saturation in 5 mL cultures of M9 + 2 g/L glucose +

1 mM IPTG. They were then diluted 100-fold into triplicate 5 mL of the same medium and

grown to mid-log phase. The cells were separated by centrifugation, washed twice with water,

and frozen in  $LN_2$  for later analysis.

Processing for LC-MS/MS analysis was performed as previously described (Clarkson et
al., 2017). Briefly, crude protein lysates were obtained by bead beating cells in sodium

deoxycholate (SDC) lysis buffer (4% SDC, 100 mM ammonium bicarbonate, pH 8.0). Cleared 358 protein lysates were then adjusted to 10 mM dithiothreitol and incubated at 95 °C for 10 min to 359 360 denature and reduce proteins. Cysteines were alkylated/blocked with 30 mM iodoacetamide and 250 µg transferred to a 10-kDa MWCO spin filter (Vivaspin 500, Sartorius) for in situ clean-up 361 and digestion with sequencing-grade trypsin (G-Biosciences). The tryptic peptide solution was 362 then spin-filtered through the MWCO membrane, adjusted to 1% formic acid to precipitate 363 residual SDC, and SDC precipitate removed from the peptide solution with water-saturated ethyl 364 acetate extraction. Peptide samples were then concentrated via SpeedVac (Thermo Fisher) and 365 quantified by BCA assay (Pierce) prior to LC-MS/MS analysis. 366

Peptide samples were analyzed by automated 2D LC-MS/MS analysis using a Vanquish 367 UHPLC plumbed directly in-line with a Q Exactive Plus mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific) 368 outfitted with a triphasic MudPIT back column (RP-SCX-RP) coupled to an in-house pulled 369 nanospray emitter packed with 30 cm of 5 µm Kinetex C18 RP resin (Phenomenex). For each 370 sample, 5 µg of peptides were loaded, desalted, separated and analyzed across two successive 371 salt cuts of ammonium acetate (50 mM and 500 mM), each followed by 105 min organic 372 373 gradient, as previously detailed (Clarkson et al., 2017). Eluting peptides were measured and sequenced by data-dependent acquisition on the Q Exactive MS. 374

375 MS/MS spectra were searched against the E. coli K-12 proteome concatenated with exogenous Pca, Hca, and Cou pathway proteins, common protein contaminants, and decoy 376 377 sequences using MyriMatch v.2.2 (Tabb et al., 2007). Peptide spectrum matches (PSM) were required to be fully tryptic with any number of missed cleavages; a static modification of 378 379 57.0214 Da on cysteine (carbamidomethylated) and a dynamic modification of 15.9949 Da on methionine (oxidized) residues. PSMs were filtered using IDPicker v.3.0 (Ma et al., 2009) with 380 381 an experiment-wide false-discovery rate controlled at < 1% at the peptide-level. Peptide intensities were assessed by chromatographic area-under-the-curve and unique peptide intensities 382 summed to estimate protein-level abundance. Protein abundance distributions were then 383 normalized across samples and missing values imputed to simulate the MS instrument's limit of 384 385 detection. Significant differences in protein abundance were assessed by pairwise T-test. 386

387 Metabolite measurements

Strains were grown to saturation in 5 mL cultures of M9 + 2 g/L glucose + 1 mM IPTG. They were then diluted into 250 mL of M9 + 0.5 g/L glucose + 1 g/L coumarate + 1 mM IPTG and grown for a further 8 hours. The cells were separated by centrifugation, washed twice with water, and frozen in LN<sub>2</sub> for later analysis.

Frozen cell pellets were weighed into centrifuge tubes containing 5 mL of 80% ethanol, and 392 75 µL sorbitol (1 mg/mL) added as an internal standard. Samples were sonicated for 3 min (30 s 393 on, 30 s off with an amplitude of 30%) while being kept cold in a cooling rack that had been 394 chilled with liquid nitrogen. Samples were then centrifuged at 4500 rpm for 20 min, the 395 supernatant decanted and a 1 mL aliquot was dried under a nitrogen stream, dissolved in 0.5 mL 396 397 acetonitrile, and silvlated to generate trimethylsilvl derivatives (Tschaplinski et al., 2012). After 2 days, 1 µL aliquots were injected into an Agilent 5975C inert XL gas chromatograph-mass 398 spectrometer (GC-MS). The standard quadrupole GC-MS was operated in electron impact (70 399 eV) ionization mode, targeting 2.5 full-spectrum (50-650 Da) scans per second (Tschaplinski et 400 al., 2012). 401

Metabolite peaks were extracted using a key selected ion, characteristic m/z fragment to 402 403 minimize integration of co-eluting metabolites. The extracted peaks of known metabolites were scaled back to the total ion current (TIC) using scaling factors previously calculated. Peaks were 404 405 quantified by area integration and normalized to the quantity of internal standard recovered, amount of sample extracted, derivatized, and injected. A large user-created database and the 406 407 Wiley Registry 10th Edition/NIST 2014 Mass Spectral Library was used to identify the metabolites of interest to be quantified. Unidentified metabolites were represented by their 408 409 retention time and key m/z ratios.

410

411 IMPDH expression and purification

<sup>412</sup> NAD<sup>+</sup> was purchased from Roche, IMP and EDTA were purchased from Fisher, MOPS was <sup>413</sup> purchased from Sigma, DTT and IPTG were purchased from GoldBio. EcIMPDH/WT and <sup>414</sup> AbIMPDH were purified as previously described (Makowska-Grzyska et al., 2015). pJM303, <sup>415</sup> expressing EcIMPDH/D243G was transformed into BL21( $\Delta guaB$ ) cells that lack endogenous <sup>416</sup> EcIMPDH (MacPherson et al., 2010). An overnight culture (5 mL) was diluted into 1 L of fresh <sup>417</sup> LB broth containing 100 µg/mL ampicillin and grown at 37 °C. Once the culture reached an <sup>418</sup> OD600 of 0.6-0.8, IPTG was added to a final concentration of 0.25 mM to induce expression of

IMPDH. After 13 h at 30 °C, the cells were collected by centrifugation. All the operations below
were performed at 4 °C. The pellet was resuspended in 50 mL phosphate buffer (pH = 8.0)
containing 1 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and sonicated. The debris was removed by centrifugation
at 10,000 g at 4 °C for 1 h.
The enzyme in the supernatant was purified by nickel affinity chromatography. The Ni-NTA

resin equilibrated with water and phosphate buffer (pH = 8.0). Lysate was loaded onto the 10 mL column with 5 mL resin and washed with 50 mL phosphate buffer (pH = 8.0) then 50 mL phosphate buffer containing 25 mM imidazole. Enzyme was eluted in 25 ml phosphate buffer with 250 mM imidazole. The fractions with IMPDH activity were identified by enzyme activity assays, combined and dialyzed in 25 mM HEPES (pH = 8.0), 1mM DTT and 1 mM EDTA. Protein concentration was determined by Bio-Rad Bradford assay using IgG as a standard. The assay over-estimates the concentration of IMPDH by a factor of 2.6, and protein concentration

- 431 was adjusted accordingly (Wang et al., 1996).
- 432

433 IMPDH enzyme assays

434 The IMPDH reaction was monitored by measuring the rate of NADH production on a Shimadzu UV-1800 Spectrometer at  $\lambda = 340$  nm. MOPS buffer (pH = 7.0) was used to reduce 435 436 the background absorbance of 4HB. The assay buffer was composed by 20 mM MOPS (pH =7.0), 100 mM KCl, 1 mM EDTA and 1 mM DTT. The final volume of each cuvette was 1 mL. 437 438 Kinetic parameters with respect to NAD+ were determined by measuring the initial velocity for varying concentrations of NAD+ at a fixed saturating concentration of IMP (1.2 mM) and 50 439 440 nM of enzyme. Kinetic parameters with respect to IMP were determined by measuring the initial velocity for varying concentrations of IMP at a fixed saturating concentration of NAD+ (2.5 441 442 mM) and 50 nM of enzyme. Initial velocities were plotted against substrate concentrations and the data were fit using SigmaPlot. The values of  $K_{i,app}$  were determined by measuring the initial 443 velocities for the reaction of IMPDH (20 nM) in the presence of varied concentrations (0-300 444  $\mu$ M) of 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde at 12  $\mu$ M of IMP and 500  $\mu$ M of NAD+. The inhibition by 4-445 hydroxybenzaldehyde under physiological concentrations of IMP (270 µM) and NAD+ (2500 446  $\mu$ M) were determined as well (Bennett et al., 2009; Park et al., 2016). 447

448

449 Comparative modeling

HHpred (Zimmermann et al., 2017) was used to search the Protein Databank for suitable 450 structural templates to model IMPDH from *E. coli* (accession number P0ADG7). Five templates 451 452 were chosen on the basis of their similarity to the query sequence, inclusion of cofactors and substrates, or both (Table S6). Whereas all templates include the catalytic  $(\beta/\alpha)_8$  domain, only 453 1ZFJ includes the cystathionine beta synthase (CBS) domain. Only 4X3Z includes the NAD<sup>+</sup> 454 cofactor, but it includes XMP instead of IMP. Thus, these two templates were assigned a higher 455 weight during comparative modeling. The query and template sequences were aligned with 456 MAFFT (L-INS-i) (Katoh and Standley, 2013) (Figure S5), and the wild-type IMPDH sequence 457 was threaded onto each template structure. 458 We then used RosettaCM (Song et al., 2013) to generate comparative models of IMPDH. 459 Fragment files were obtained with the Robetta web server (Gront et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2004). 460 We used an iterative approach in which we first generated 1,000 models with all five templates. 461 We then selected the top model along with the 4X3Z and 1ZFJ templates and generated an 462

additional 1,000 models. Three iterations were carried out to obtain the final model used forligand docking.

465

## 466 Ligand docking

467 Structure files in mol2 format for IMP (ZINC04228242), NAD<sup>+</sup> (ZINC08214766), and 4468 hydroxybenzaldehyde (ZINC00156709) were obtained from <a href="http://zinc.docking.org">http://zinc.docking.org</a> (Irwin et al.,
469 2012) and then converted to Rosetta format. RosettaLigand (Meiler and Baker, 2006) was then
470 used to dock the inhibitor 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde into the active site of IMPDH following a
471 previously described protocol (Combs et al., 2013). Top binding poses were ranked on the basis
472 of their 'interface\_delta\_X' score in Rosetta energy units. Additional details of the comparative
473 modeling and ligand docking are provided in the Supporting Information.

474

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- 490

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- 641

	rains used in this study	
Strain	Genotype	Reference
JME17	BW25113 ompT::pcaHGBDC	Clarkson et al., 2017
	pflB::pcaIJFK	
JME38	JME17 gfcAB::pobA	Standaert, Giannone, and Michener
JME50	JME17 <i>elfC::praI</i>	Clarkson et al., 2017
JME64	JME38 chiA::hcaABCK	This work
JME65	JME38 ybjH::couLHTMNO	This work
JME66	JME50 chiA::hcaABCK	This work
JME67	JME50 ybjH::couLHTMNO	This work
JME82	JME17 gfcAB:: $pobA^{70}$	Standaert, Giannone, and Michener
JME88	Evolved variant of JME64	This work
JME89	Evolved variant of JME64	This work
JME92	Evolved variant of JME64	This work
JME96	Evolved variant of JME66	This work
JME97	Evolved variant of JME66	This work
JME98	Evolved variant of JME66	This work
JME106	Evolved variant of JME65	This work
JME109	Evolved variant of JME65	This work
JME111	Evolved variant of JME67	This work
JME113	Evolved variant of JME67	This work
JME115	Evolved variant of JME67	This work
JME129	JME82 chiA::hcaABCK <sup>89</sup>	This work
JME130	JME38 guaB(D243G) chiA::hcaABCK <sup>89</sup>	This work
JME131	JME82 guaB(D243G) chiA::hcaABCK <sup>89</sup>	This work
JME132	JME82 guaB(D243G) chiA::hcaABCK	This work
JME156	JME38 nadR(Δ326-410)	This work
	ybjH::couLHTMNO <sup>109</sup>	
JME157	JME82 ybjH::couLHTMNO <sup>109</sup>	This work
JME158	JME82 <i>nadR</i> (Δ326-410)	This work
	ybjH::couLHTMNO	
JME159	JME82 <i>nadR</i> (Δ326-410)	This work
	ybjH::couLHTMNO <sup>109</sup>	

643	Table S	51:	Strains	used	in	this	study

Plasmid	Description	Reference
pCas	Expresses Cas9 and λ-RED	Jiang et al., 2015
pTarget	Expresses sgRNA	Jiang et al., 2015
pJM157	Expresses <i>elfC</i> sgRNA	Clarkson et al., 2017
pJM168	Expresses gfcAB sgRNA	Standaert, Giannone, and Michener
pJM187	Expresses <i>yjbH</i> sgRNA	This work
pJM205	Expresses chiA sgRNA	This work
pJM262	Expresses guaB sgRNA	This work
pJM284	Expresses nadR sgRNA	This work
pJM303	pMCSG7 guaB	This work

**Table S2**: Plasmids used in this study

649

## 650 **Table S3**: Primers used in this study

Name	Sequence	Purpose
pTarget FWD	GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGCAAGTTAAA	Inverse PCR of pTarget
P	ATAAG	
pTarget REV	ACTAGTATTATACCTAGGACTGAG	Inverse PCR of pTarget
yjbH N20F1	GCCCATTGGTCCGTCGCAGT	Construction of pJM187
<i>y</i> <b>j</b> 0111( <b>2</b> 011	GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGCAAGTTAAA	
	ATAAGGCTAGTC	
yjbH N20R1	ACTGCGACGGACCAATGGGC	Construction of pJM187
<u> </u>	ACTAGTATTATACCTAGGACTGAGCTAG	
	CTGTCAAGGATC	
chiA N20F1	CTGCATCGCTCTTATTGGGA	Construction of pJM205
	GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGCAAGTTAAA	1
	ATAAGGCTAGTC	
chiA N20R1	TCCCAATAAGAGCGATGCAG	Construction of pJM205
	ACTAGTATTATACCTAGGACTGAGCTAG	1
	CTGTCAAGGATC	
guaB N20F1	CAGCAGAACGTCAACGCCTG	Construction of pJM262
0	GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGCAAGTTAAA	1
	ATAAGGCTAGTC	
guaB N20R1	CAGGCGTTGACGTTCTGCTG	Construction of pJM262
C	ACTAGTATTATACCTAGGACTGAGCTAG	-
	CTGTCAAGGATC	
nadR N20F1	TATGTCTTTTCACACCTCGG	Construction of pJM284
	GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGCAAGTTAAA	_
	ATAAGGCTAGTC	
nadR N20R1	CCGAGGTGTGAAAAGACATA	Construction of pJM284
	ACTAGTATTATACCTAGGACTGAGCTAG	
	CTGTCAAGGATC	
yjbH FWD	CAATCTTGATCCCGATATCGTCC	Amplification of <i>yjbH</i> locus
yjbH REV	CCATTCAGGTGATTCCCAGC	Amplification of <i>yjbH</i> locus
chiA FWD	GCTTACGAGTAAGTCAAAAAACAC	Amplification of <i>chiA</i> locus
chiA REV	GGTTGTTACCCTGATCCACC	Amplification of <i>chiA</i> locus
guaB FWD	GTTTGACGACGTTCTCCTC	Amplification of <i>guaB</i> locus
guaB REV	CTTATTCCGAGGCAAGTGAAAC	Amplification of <i>guaB</i> locus
dnadR	GCTGAAAAAGGGATCCAGCCGGATCTG	Template for <i>nadR</i> truncation
	ATCTACACCTCGGAAGAAGCCGATGCGC	
	CACAGTATATGGAACATCTGGGGATCGA	
	GACGGTGCTGGTCGATCCGAAACGTACC	
	TTTATGAGTATCAGCGGTGCGCAGATCC	
	GCGAAAACCCGTTCCGCTACTGGGATAT	
	ATTCCTACCGAAGTGATGGGGGGGGGGAGCAG	
	AGATAACCGTGATGAAACTGCTCAAAG	
	GCGAGGTATAAAATGAGTTTTTTGATG	
	AGTTGAAAACCTCTCTGGAAGAGGCTGT	

	CGAGATTAAACAAGGTTTGAAAAAACCT GCACGGGTGACCCGCCACGAAATTGAG	
pJM303 FWD	GATGCTAAGGCTGTT TACCGAGAACCTGTACTTCCAATCC CTACGTATCGCTAAAGAAGCTCTGAC	Construction of pJM303
pJM303 REV	GATCCGTTATCCACTTCCAATGTCA GGAGCCCAGACGGTAGTTC	Construction of pJM303
pMCSG7 InvF	TGACATTGGAAGTGGATAACGG	Inverse PCR of pMCSG7
pMCSG7 InvR	GGATTGGAAGTACAGGTTCTCG	Inverse PCR of pMCSG7

653	Table S4: Mutations identified	. All nucleotide references	s are relative to the ap	ppropriate parental
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654 strain.

strain.	Nucleotide Mutation	Notes
JME88	G34,380A	rho R109H
0111200	A247,081C	rpoB H551P
	C1,750,524T	Silent mutation in <i>pobA</i>
	G3,331,225A	guaB P482L
	G4,171,829A	Intergenic region between <i>hcaB</i> and
	- , , ,	hcaC
	Duplication, 3,888,763 to 4,187,739	Contains <i>hcaABCK</i>
JME89	Duplication, 1,276,815 to 1,393,953	Contains <i>pcaHGBDC</i>
	G1,750,827T	Silent mutation in <i>pobA</i>
	T3,331,942C	guaB D243G
	Δ(3,565,666-3,565,671)	6nt deletion in <i>rpoS</i>
	Insertion at 3,979,270	TTCAACA insertion into <i>prlF</i>
	G4,170,364A	Silent mutation in <i>hcaB</i>
	G4,171,829A	Intergenic region between <i>hcaB</i> and
		hcaC
JME92	G1,750,709A	Silent mutation in <i>pobA</i>
	G3,331,711T	guaB A320D
	C4,170,144A	<i>hcaB</i> L6M
	G4,171,829A	Intergenic region between <i>hcaB</i> and
		hcaC
	Duplication, 4,068,491 to 4,181,314	Contains <i>hcaABCK</i>
JME96	A3,570,881T	rpoS I128N
JME97	G3,337,640A	guaB A48V
	Δ(4,176,251-4,176,250)	Intergenic region between <i>hcaB</i> and
		hcaC
JME98	G34,359T	<i>rho</i> (R109L)
	G253,205A	<i>rpoC</i> (E1152K)
	Δ(3,673,353-3,670,054)	7nt deletion in <i>ptsP</i>
JME106	T302,571G	<i>couL</i> (L192R)
	Δ(607,091)	Frameshift in <i>nadR</i>
	A3,570,508G	rpoS(L175P)
JME109	C302,420A	<i>couL</i> (S134Y)
	T697,300G	nadR(L344R)
	Duplication, 1,743,292 to 1,756,987	Contains <i>pobA</i>
	T4,463,784G	selA(Q947P)
JME111	Δ(1,853,703)	Frameshift in rne
	G3,576,757T	<i>rpoS</i> (R421S)
JME113	A328,937C	zur(Y45D)
	Δ(981,416-1,087,723)	Contains <i>lacY</i>
	Duplication, 4,362,839 to 567,227	Contains <i>couLHTMNO</i> . Inserted into
		mnmG

J	ME115	Duplication, 861,438 to 980,777	
		Insertion at 3,986,892	TTCAACA insertion into <i>prlF</i>
		G4,086,003A	sspA(A4V)
		Duplication, 4,362,839 to 567,227	Contains couLHTMNO. Inserted into
			mnmG

# **Table S5**: Kinetic Parameters for *Ec*IMPDH/WT, *Ec*IMPDH/D243G and *Ab*IMPDH. The values

are the average and range of two independent experiments.

659

	EcIMPDH/WT	EcIMPDH/D243G	AbIMPDH
$k_{\rm cat}~({\rm s}^{-1})$	$0.97\pm0.05$	$0.50\pm0.04$	$0.86 \pm 0.02$
$K_{\rm m}({\rm IMP})$ ( $\mu {\rm M}$ )	$21 \pm 3$	$7.9 \pm 1$	$16 \pm 3$
$K_{\rm m}({\rm NAD})~(\mu{\rm M})$	$210 \pm 20$	$210 \pm 40$	$208 \pm 17$
$K_{ii}(NAD)$ ( $\mu M$ )	$4300\pm530$	$3500\pm690$	$10600 \pm 1100$
$K_{i,app}(4HB) (\mu M)$	$320 \pm 30$	$1250 \pm 50$	$720 \pm 30$

660

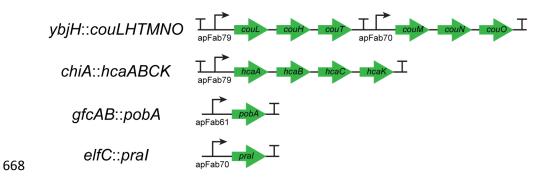
1 able SU. Crystanographic templates used to model num D11 non E. con	662	Table S6: Crystallographic templates used to model IMPDH from <i>E. coli</i>
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PDB	Organism	Resolution	E value	% identity	Cofactors/ligands
entry		(Å)			
4X3Z	Vibrio cholerae	1.62	3.3e-34	86	NAD <sup>+</sup> , XMP
1ZFJ	Streptococcus pyogenes	1.90	9.8e-55	56	IMP
5AHN	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	1.65	4.8e-59	66	IMP
2CU0	Pyrococcus horikoshii	2.10	2.9e-47	49	XMP
1VRD	Thermotoga maritima	2.18	8.3e-47	56	n/a

bound, and IMP/NAD -bound states of IMPDH.					
<i>interface_delta</i> (Rosetta energy units)					
IMP-bound	IMP/NAD <sup>+</sup> -bound				
-12.4	-10.3				
-12.2	-9.4				
-12.1	-9.3				
-12.1	-8.9				
-11.4	-8.7				
	<i>rface_delta</i> (Rosett IMP-bound -12.4 -12.2 -12.1 -12.1				

**Table S7**: Binding energies<sup>a</sup> for the top five poses obtained from docking 4-hydroxybenzaldehyde to the apoenzyme, IMP-bound, and IMP/NAD<sup>+</sup>-bound states of IMPDH.

666 <sup>a</sup> *interface\_delta* 



- 669 Figure S1: Construct designs. Sequences were synthesized *de novo* and inserted into the
- 670 indicated chromosomal locus.



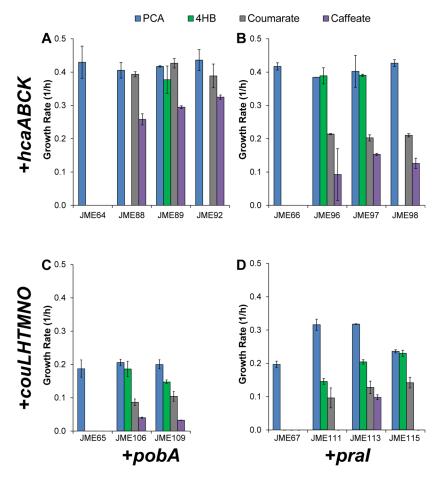
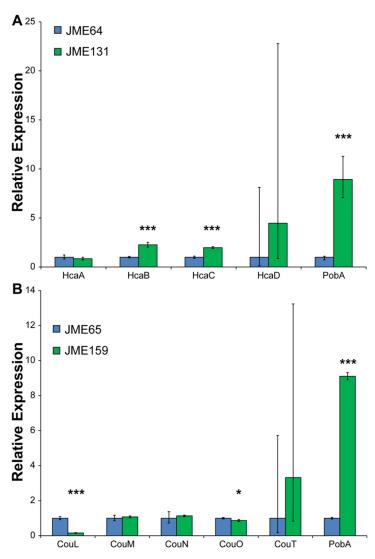
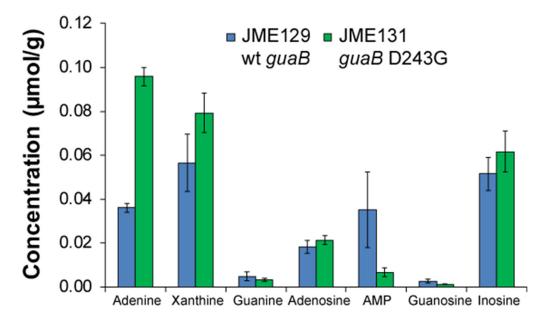


Figure S2: A combination of engineering and evolution are necessary for growth with
coumarate. Engineered strains (JME64, JME65, JME66, and JME67) and their evolved
derivatives were grown in minimal media containing 1 g/L of the indicated substrate. Each panel
represents a different combination of phenylpropanoid pathway (A and B: *hca*, C and D: *cou*)
and 4-HB monooxygenase (A and C: *pobA*, B and D: *praI*). Error bars show one standard
deviation, calculated from three biological replicates.



**Figure S3:** Pathway mutations affect enzyme expression. (A) In strains with the *hca* pathway, an intergenic mutation between *hcaB* and *hcaC* increases expression of both enzymes, while a silent mutation to *pobA* also increases expression of that enzyme. Strain JME64 has the wild-type allele for both constructs, while JME131 has both mutations. Error bars show one standard deviation, calculated from three biological replicates. \*\*\*: p<0.001.



687 688

**Figure S4:** Metabolomics of purine nucleobases and derivatives. Concentrations of GMP, XMP,

and IMP were below the limit of detection. Concentrations are reported in  $\mu$ mol/g fresh weight

sorbitol equivalent. Error bars show one standard deviation, calculated from four biologicalreplicates.

#### 693

Abaumannii_IMPDH/1-490 Ecoli_IMPDH/1-490 4X32_A/1342/1-342 1ZFJ_A/1476/1-476 5AHN_A/1297/1-297 2CU0_B/1355/1-355 1VRD_B/1317/1-317	1 1 1 1 1	M LT IVQEALT FDDVLLLPAY STVLPKDV SLKTRLTRGIYLN IPLV SAAMDTVTE SRMAIAMAQNGGIGILHKNMD IAAQ 79 A M LR IAKEALT FDDVLLVPAHSTVLPNTAD LSTQLTKTIRLN IPMVSASMDTVTE ARLAIALAQEGGIGI HKNMS IERQ 79 O M LR IAKEALT FDDVLLVPAHSTVLPNTAD LRTKLTKNIALN IPMVSASMDTVTE ARLAIALAQEGGIGFI HKNMS IERQ 79 O SNWD - TKFLKKCYT FDDVLLIPAHSTVLPNEVD LKTKLANDLTLN IPIITAAMDTVTE SKMAIAIALARGEGGIGFI HKNMS IE Q 8 WD - TKFLKKCYT FDDVLLIPAS SVLPKDVS SKMAIAIARAGEGGIGFI HKNMS IE Q 8 WD - TKFLKKCYT FDDVLLIPAS SVLPKDVS SKMAIAIARAGEGGIGFI HKNMS IE Q 8 WD - TKFLKKCYT FDDVLLIPAS SVLPKDVS SKMAIAIARAGEGGIGFI HKNMS S 8 WD - TKFLKCYT FDDVLLIPAS SVLPKDVS SKMAIAIARAGEGGIGFI HKNMS S 8 WD - TKFLKCYT FDDVLLIPAS SVLPKDVS SKMAIA S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S	D243G G330D L364Q
Abaumannii_IMPDH/1-490 E_coli_IMPDH/1-490 4X3Z_A/1342/1-342 1ZFJ_A/1476/1-476 5AHN_A/1297/1-297 2CU0_B/1355/1-355 IVRD_B/1317/1-317	80 80 83 80 84	A A E V R R V KK F E A G M V KD P I T V S P E T T V R E L I A I T S A NN I S G V P V KD G K V V G I V T G R D T R F E T N L E Q P V S N I M T G Q D R L V 159 A E E V R R V K K H E S G V V T D P Q T V L P T T T L R E V K E L T E R NG F A G V P V T E E N E L V G I I T G R D V R F V T D L N Q P V S V M T P K E R L V 160 A Q V H Q V V I	
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694 695

**Figure S5:** MAFFT (L-INS-i) multiple sequence alignment of IMPDH from *A. baumannii*, *E.* 

697 *coli*, and multiple template sequences used for structural modeling of the *E. coli* IMPDH.

698 Selected residues (gray) were trimmed at the N- and C-termini and were not included in the 699 models.



701

**Figure S6**: Local environment of D243 in the model of *E. coli* wild-type IMPDH. The

carboxylate side chain of D243 forms hydrogen bonds with the side chain of K87 and the

backbone of V220. K87 is located at the C-terminal end of a long  $\alpha$  helix, and V220 is at the

beginning of a  $\beta$  strand (shown in maroon). Carbons of K87, V220 and D243 are shown in gray,

and carbons of IMP and  $NAD^+$  are shown in yellow.

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