Leveraging host metabolism for bisdemethoxycurcumin production in *Pseudomonas putida*

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ABSTRACT

Pseudomonas putida is a saprophytic bacterium with robust metabolisms and strong

solvent tolerance making it an attractive host for metabolic engineering and bioremediation. Due

to its diverse carbon metabolisms, its genome encodes an array of proteins and enzymes that can

be readily applied to produce valuable products. In this work we sought to identify design

principles and bottlenecks in the production of type III polyketide synthase (T3PKS)-derived

compounds in *P. putida*. T3PKS products are widely used as nutraceuticals and medicines and

often require aromatic starter units, such as coumaroyl-CoA, which is also an intermediate in the

native coumarate catabolic pathway of *P. putida*. Using a randomly barcoded transposon mutant

(RB-TnSeq) library, we assayed gene functions for a large portion of aromatic catabolism,

confirmed known pathways, and proposed new annotations for two aromatic transporters. The

1,3,6,8-tetrahydroxynapthalene synthase of *Streptomyces coelicolor* (RppA), a microbial T3PKS,

was then used to rapidly assay growth conditions for increased T3PKS product accumulation.

The feruloyl/coumaroyl CoA synthetase (Fcs) of *P. putida* was used to supply coumaroyl-CoA

for the curcuminoid synthase (CUS) of *Oryza sativa*, a plant T3PKS. We identified that

accumulation of coumaroyl-CoA in this pathway results in extended growth lag times in *P.*

putida. Deletion of the second step in coumarate catabolism, the enoyl-CoA hydratase-lyase

(Ech), resulted in increased production of the type III polyketide bisdemethoxycurcumin.

1 INTRODUCTION

Secondary metabolites of fungi, plants, and bacteria have long been used as medicines

and supplements (Hewlings and Kalman, 2017). Compounds such as naringenin, raspberry

ketone, resveratrol, and curcumin are widely used nutraceuticals and are biosynthesized through

similar pathways (Heller and Hahlbrock, 1980; Katsuyama et al., 2008; Schanz et al., 1992;

Smith, 1996). Commercially, these chemicals are either extracted directly from plants or

produced synthetically, as in the case of raspberry ketone (Smith, 1996). Renewable microbial

production of these compounds will decrease reliance on agriculture and fossil fuel-derived

chemical synthesis. The biosynthesis of these compounds (naringenin, raspberry ketone,

resveratrol, and curcumin) relies on a class of enzymes called type III polyketide synthases

(T3PKSs). T3PKSs carry out iterative Claisen condensation reactions typically with coenzyme A

(CoA)-based starter and extender units (Yu et al., 2012). In the case of the 1,3,6,8-

tetrahydroxynapthalene synthase of *Streptomyces coelicolor* (RppA) the starter and extender

units are simply malonyl-CoA, while in many plant T3PKSs the starter unit is a

phenylpropanoyl-CoA thioester, usually derived from ferulate, coumarate, or cinnamate

(Izumikawa et al., 2003; Wakimoto et al., 2012).

Coumarate and ferulate are components of lignin found in lignocellulosic hydrolysate

(LH), which has been proposed for use as a renewable feedstock for biocatalysis (Jönsson et al.,

2013; Lawther and Sun, 1996). Characteristics such as high solvent tolerance and diverse carbon

metabolisms are essential for microbes to be used in LH valorization. However, these robust

traits are lacking in commonly used model organisms, such as *Escherichia coli*, hindering

progress toward making LH a viable feedstock (Mills et al., 2009). Rather than developing these

characteristics in a microorganism *de novo*, a clear alternative is to source a microbe with the

desirable traits already available to it. The saprophytic bacterium *Pseudomonas putida* has long

been studied for its ability to catabolize aromatic compounds and withstand solvents, making it

an attractive host for LH upcycling (Guarnieri et al., 2017; Linger et al., 2014; Nozaki et al.,

1963).

In this work we sought to leverage the native catabolism of *P. putida* KT2440 for use in

the biosynthesis of a plant T3PKS product from coumarate. RppA of *S. coelicolor* was first

expressed to determine production conditions conducive to T3PKS product accumulation. Using

a randomly barcoded transposon mutant (RB-TnSeq) library of *P. putida*, we assayed for genes

involved in the catabolism of coumarate and seven other related aromatic compounds. We then

found that accumulation of coumaroyl-CoA by the activity of Fcs was toxic to *P. putida*. The

native feruloyl/coumaroyl-CoA synthetase (Fcs) of *P. putida* was then used to produce the

coumaroyl-CoA starter unit to the curcuminoid synthase (CUS) of *Oryza sativa*. Finally, relying

on the native expression levels of *fcs* from the chromosome and plasmid-based expression of

CUS (Figure 1), production of bisdemethoxycurcumin (BDC) from coumarate was achieved.

Figure 1: Diagram of the engineered *P. putida* strain used to produce bisdemethoxycurcumin.
Fcs is the feruloyl/coumaroyl-CoA synthetase native to *P. putida* KT2440. Ech is the native
enoyl-CoA hydratase-lyase which carries out the second step in coumarate catabolism and was
knocked out in our production host. CUS is the curcuminoid synthase from *O. sativa.* BDC is the
final curcuminoid product, bisdemethoxycurcumin.

2 RESULTS

<u>2.1 RppA as a screen for optimal T3PKS production conditions</u>

The tetrahydroxynaphthalene synthase of *Streptoyces coelicolor* was recently applied as a

biosensor for malonyl-CoA concentrations in several hosts including *P. putida* (Yang et al.,

2018). We sought to express this protein from the broad host range pBADT vector to assay

culture conditions for increased product accumulation in *P. putida*. RppA was initially codon

optimized for expression in *P. putida* and cloned into the construct pBADT-*rppA*-OW. We then

constructed two more plasmids, one with the complete *rppA* cloned from the *S. coelicolor*

genome (pBADT-*rppA*-NW) and another with a 3' truncation of 75 base pairs (pBADT-*rppA*-

NT) as this had been described previously to increase enzymatic activity (Izumikawa et al.,

2003).

Figure 2: Flaviolin production as a reference for T3PKS activity. (A) Diagram of the pathway to
the red pigment, flaviolin, from RppA and subsequent spontaneous oxidation. (B) Absorbance
measurements at 340 nm of supernatants from cells expressing RppA variants in LB containing
different concentrations of glucose. Error bars indicate the standard deviation of three trials.
RppA-NW contains natural *S. coelicolor* codons, RppA-NT is the same as RppA-NW but with a
C-terminal truncation of 25 amino acids, and RppA-OW is translated from a transcript that was
codon optimized for *P. putida*. (C) RppA expression profile as determined by mass spectrometry
from lysates of cultures producing the RppA variants. The No RppA sample was extracted from

P. putida KT2440 carrying pBADT-RFP. Error bars indicate the standard deviation of three
replicates.
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116   Since the product of RppA, 1,3,6,8-tetrahydroxynaphthalene, spontaneously oxidizes to

the red pigment flaviolin, we used a colorimetric assay to determine how glucose concentrations

affect the production of T3PKS products (Figure 2A). Concentrations of glucose ranging from 0

- 400 mM supplemented into LB medium were tested, and the production of flaviolin was

measured by absorbance at 340 nm, as previously reported (Yang et al., 2018). Unexpectedly,

the *rppA* expression vectors using the native *S. coelicolor* codons produced more flaviolin than

the *P. putida* codon optimized variant (Figure 2B). In all three constructs tested, there was an

increase in the accumulation of flaviolin in cultures containing greater than 25 mM glucose and

accumulation of flaviolin appeared to plateau at ~100 mM glucose (Figures 2B and S4). To

validate the observed red compound was flaviolin, we extracted, purified, and obtained an [1]H-

NMR spectrum for the red product using established methods (Figure S5A and S5B) (Gross et

al., 2006; Soga, 1982). The final yield from 100 mL of culture was ~6.5 mg.

128   Following this result, we sought to identify if increased protein abundance was the cause

129 for increased flaviolin production. When RppA was quantified using LC-MS, we observed an

130 increase in its relative abundance for all variants when 100 mM glucose was supplemented to the

131 medium. The abundance of RppA also was highest in the strains expressing the native genomic

132 sequence of *rppA* (Figure 2C).

Figure 3: Overview of aromatic catabolism in *P. putida* KT2440. The colored and labelled compounds depicted were fed as sole carbon sources to the barcoded transposon library. Fitness values for each gene are the average of 2 replicate RB-TnSeq assays, and are colored corresponding to the carbon source (gray: benzoate, red: coumarate, blue: 4-hydroxybenzoate, light green: ferulate, dark green: vanillate, purple: vanillin, yellow: protocatechuate, pink: phenylacetate). For reactions where multiple genes are necessary, i.e. enzyme complexes, the fitness values for each gene involved in the reaction were averaged. *The t-score for *pcaC* was insignificant ($|t_{score}| < 4.0$) and was excluded from our analysis. **Fitness values for these genes were mild (fitness > -2.0) and excluded. ***Fitness value corresponds to *paaJ*.

2.2 Functional genomics to validate aromatic catabolisms of *P. putida*

While aromatic catabolism has been extensively studied in *P. putida*, essential genes

implicated in these pathways have been described as recently as 2019 (Price et al., 2019). The

genes involved in the first steps of coumarate catabolism reside in an operon with a putative

acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (*PP_3354*) and a putative beta-ketothiolase (*PP_3355*), which have

been proposed to be involved in an alternative catabolic pathway (Overhage et al., 1999). As

functional redundancy in coumarate catabolism could result in loss of the type III polyketide

precursor, coumaroyl-CoA, we sought to identify any pathways that could potentially impact

product titers. To assay for genes involved in coumarate and related aromatic metabolisms, we

grew a randomly barcoded transposon mutant (RB-TnSeq) library of *P. putida* KT2440 in

minimal medium with a variety of different aromatic compounds often found in LH (p-

coumarate, ferulate, benzoate, p-hydroxybenzoate, protocatechuate, vanillin, vanillate,

phenylacetate) and glucose as sole carbon sources. The fitness of each gene was calculated by

comparing the abundance of barcodes before versus after growth selection, using barcode

sequencing (BarSeq) (Rand et al., 2017; Wetmore et al., 2015). Negative values indicate that the

gene was important for growth in that condition.

The results of the RB-TnSeq assay validated that the primary route for ferulate and

coumarate catabolism is through the feruloyl/coumaroyl-CoA synthetase (Fcs) and the enoyl-

CoA hydratase lyase (Ech) (Figure 3 and Figure S1). The genes in the proposed secondary

pathway of coumarate and ferulate catabolism, *PP_3354* and *PP_3355*, had no significant fitness

phenotype, indicating that these genes are likely not necessary for coumarate or ferulate

catabolism (Plaggenborg et al., 2003).

Of all the known reactions depicted in the map of aromatic catabolism (Figure 3), we

observed significant negative fitness values for all but three of their corresponding genes: *catA-1*,

catA-2, and *pcaC*. Even though the fitness score was higher than our cutoff at -1.4, *catA-1* had a

significant |t-score| of 6.2 when grown on benzoate. This reflects previous work demonstrating

CatA-I is the preferred catechol 1,2-dioxygenase, while CatA-II acts as a "safety valve" to

handle high intracellular concentrations of catechol. It was also demonstrated that both catA-I

and catA-II need to be deleted to abolish growth on benzoate, and this likely explains why the

fitness value for catA-I was above our cut-off (Jiménez et al., 2014). In the case of *pcaC*, we

noticed that there was a strong phenotype (fitness < -2.0), but the significance fell below our

cutoff in all conditions tested ($|t_{score}| < 4.0$). This is likely due to the low frequency of transposon

insertions into this gene in the library (n=4).

While our results heavily support the current models of aromatic metabolism in *P. putida*,

our data also indicated that some gene annotations should be revised. *PP_3272* is currently

annotated as encoding an acetate permease (Kanehisa, 2019; Kanehisa et al., 2019; Kanehisa and

Goto, 2000). We observed that *PP_3272* had a significant phenotype when grown on

phenylacetate (Figure 3). Given these data and previously described homology to other systems

(Jiménez et al., 2002), *PP_3272* should be reannotated as the phenylacetate transporter (phaJ).

The *PP_1376* gene is annotated as encoding a 4-hydroxybenzoate transporter (Kanehisa, 2019;

Kanehisa et al., 2019; Kanehisa and Goto, 2000); however, we only observed a fitness detriment

for this gene with protocatechuate as the sole carbon source (Figure 3). Because of this, *PP_1376*

should be reannotated as a protocatechuate transporter.

2.3 Accumulation of coumaroyl-CoA is toxic to *P. putida*

The first step in the biosynthetic pathway for bisdemethoxycurcumin is the activation of

coumarate with coenzyme A (CoASH) (Figure 1). Because *Pseudomonas putida* KT2440

natively produces coumaroyl-CoA during coumarate catabolism, we knocked out the subsequent

gene in the native catabolic pathway, *ech*, to prevent *P. putida* from consuming this necessary

precursor (Figure 1) (Jiménez et al., 2002). Initial production experiments in Δ*ech* strains

overexpressing *fcs* and *CUS* from a synthetic operon resulted in an extended lag phase (data not

shown). To determine the cause, we overexpressed *fcs* alone under control of the arabinose-

inducible *araBAD* promoter (P_{BAD}) in the presence and absence of coumarate. Increasing the

inducer concentration resulted in increased lag times only when coumarate was present in the

medium (Figures 4A and S6). This suggested that the coumaroyl-CoA intermediate is toxic to *P.*

putida.

To determine if coumaroyl-CoA concentrations are elevated in cultures expressing *fcs*,

cultures carrying pBADT-*fcs* were induced with L-arabinose. After a 7-hour growth period, 5

mM coumarate was supplemented to the medium. Following supplementation, growth was

stunted and remained relatively constant over the course of 11 hours. The concentration of

coumaroyl-CoA was highest in samples one hour after coumarate was supplemented into the

medium; this was observed regardless of the *ech* genotype (Figure 4B). We therefore sought to

minimize the burden of this intermediate by relying on the native chromosomal expression of *fcs*

in future experiments.

Figure 4: Production of coumaroyl-CoA inhibits growth of *P. putida*. (A) 24 hour growth curves of KT2440 Δ*ech* carrying pBADT-*fcs* in LB induced with varying concentrations of arabinose and no added coumarate (left), or 5 mM coumarate (right). Error bars are +/- the standard deviation of three replicates. (B) Growth curve (left) and normalized abundance of coumaroyl-CoA (right) in KT2440 (WT) and KT2440 Δ*ech* (Δ*ech*). Cultures expressing *fcs* were supplemented with 0 or 5 mM coumarate at hour 7 (marked with dashed line). Coumaroyl-CoA concentrations were normalized by OD_{600}. Error bars are +/- the standard deviation of three replicates.

2.4 Production of bisdemethoxycurcumin

In order to produce bisdemethoxycurcumin in *P. putida*, we constructed the biochemical

pathway outlined in Figure 1. Exogenously added coumarate is activated by the native

feruloyl/coumaroyl-CoA synthetase of *P. putida* (Fcs), then two resultant coumaroyl-CoA

molecules are condensed with malonyl-CoA by the curcuminoid synthase of *O. sativa* (CUS) to

yield bisdemethoxycurcumin (Katsuyama et al., 2007b). The CoA synthetase, *fcs*, was expressed

from its native chromosomal locus, while *CUS* was expressed from the pBADT plasmid and

induced with L-arabinose (Bi et al., 2013).

Our initial production strategy was to induce *CUS* until the cultures reached stationary

phase. Then the cultures were pelleted and resuspended in fresh LB medium supplemented with

5 mM coumarate. These samples were then incubated for another 72 hours. A similar approach

had been used successfully in *E. coli* (Katsuyama et al., 2007a); however, our titers were less

than 0.5 mg/L (Figure S2). Given that bisdemethoxycurcumin is insoluble in water (Javeri and

Chand, 2016), a 10 % v/v oleyl alcohol overlay was used to extract the product as the

fermentation progressed. Production levels were low (approximately 0.1 mg/L) in *P. putida* Δ*ech*

when the medium was supplemented with 10 mM coumarate, likely due to the toxicity of

coumaroyl-CoA (Figure 5). Supplementation with 5 mM coumarate resulted in a ~5-fold

increase in bisdemethoxycurcumin titers in the *P. putida* Δ*ech* strain relative to wild-type (Figure

5).

Figure 5: Bisdemethoxycurcumin titers in *P. putida* KT2440 Δ*ech* and in wildtype KT2440
harboring pBADT-CUS. *CUS* was induced with 2 % w/v L-arabinose. Error bars are +/- the
standard deviation of three biological replicates.

3. DISCUSSION

Pseudomonas putida is among the most well studied saprophytic bacteria. Its diverse

metabolisms enable it to catabolize a wide variety of complex carbon sources, including

lignocellulosic hydrolysate (Wang et al., 2019). The robust catabolic pathways of *P. putida*,

while useful for producing valuable molecules from diverse carbon sources, can also serve as an

obstacle to achieving high product titers as it can often metabolize the desired products (Mitchell

G Thompson et al., 2019). Given recent advances in gene editing techniques (Aparicio et al.,

2019, 2018; Cook et al., 2018; Martínez-García and de Lorenzo, 2011; Wirth et al., 2019) and

our ability to rapidly assay for gene function with transposon site sequencing (Price et al., 2018;

Rand et al., 2017; Wetmore et al., 2015), engineering non-model hosts like *P. putida* for

industrial applications has become less challenging.

Using RB-TnSeq mutant fitness assays we were able to rapidly confirm entire pathways

of aromatic catabolism (Figure 3 and S1). The genes downstream of *fcs*, *PP_3354* and *PP_3355*

previously described as a possible alternative route for coumarate/ferulate catabolism (Jiménez et

al., 2002; Overhage et al., 1999; Priefert et al., 2001), showed no significant fitness detriment on

any of the carbon sources tested. These genes may be structural remnants of a β-oxidation

pathway that eventually evolved into the coumarate/ferulate pathway requiring *fcs*, *ech*, and *vdh*

(Jiménez et al., 2002; Overhage et al., 1999; Priefert et al., 2001). We then proposed revised

annotations of two genes required for transport of the aromatic compounds, phenylacetate

(*PP_3272*) and protocatechuate (*PP_1376*), an important plant hormone and lignin metabolite

respectively (Wightman and Lighty, 1982). There is a large amount of information in these data

encompassing regulatory and structural genetic elements that could be useful to engineers and

biologists.

Heterologous expression of bacterial T3PKSs, including the tetrahydroxynapthalene

synthase of *S. coelicolor* (RppA), has previously been demonstrated in *P. putida* KT2440 (Gross

et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2018). Using variants of *rppA*, we were able to rapidly screen type III

polyketide production conditions. Expressing the codon optimized variant we created in this

study, *rppA*-OW, resulted in less flaviolin production and less protein production than the native

codon variants *rppA*-NW and *rppA*-NT. It is possible that there are some factors affecting

heterologous protein expression that are not sufficiently accounted for in current codon

optimization algorithms (Cambray et al., 2018). However, we demonstrated in all our constructs

that increasing the glucose concentration had a considerable effect on the production of flaviolin

(Figure 2 and S4).

Higher flaviolin accumulation with increased glucose concentrations could be due to

increased flux to malonyl-CoA, a known limiting reactant to the biosynthesis of plant T3PKS

products (Katsuyama et al., 2008; Zang et al., 2019), or due to increased functional protein

expression. As the relative abundance of RppA increased when the culture was grown in the

presence of 100 mM glucose, we hypothesize this likely contributed to the increased flaviolin

titer observed in this condition (Figure 2B and 2C). The exact cause for the increase in protein

abundance requires more detailed investigation. These T3PKS "sensors" have broad utility in

both rapidly assaying culture conditions, as described here, and as high-throughput screens of

genetic libraries for increased malonyl-CoA accumulation (Yang et al., 2018). Future work

could employ these sensors to screen for increased intracellular malonyl-CoA concentrations

from a complex growth medium like LH.

To provide the coumaroyl-CoA substrate for the bisdemethoxycurucumin T3PKS, CUS,

we sought to use the native CoA synthetase (Fcs) of *P. putida*. Plasmid-based induction of *fcs*

expression in the presence of coumarate, however, resulted in an increase in lag times due to the

build-up of the toxic coumaroyl-CoA intermediate (Figures 4A, 4B, and S6). Neither the

accumulation of coumaroyl-CoA nor the resultant growth inhibition seemed to be significantly

affected by the genetic presence of *ech* (Figure 4B). The reduction in intracellular coumaroyl-

CoA concentrations following the addition of coumarate was also not dependent on the presence

of *ech* (Figure 4B). This reduction in thioester concentrations may be the result of nonspecific

thioesterase activity, or spontaneous hydrolysis of coumaroyl-CoA.

The toxicity of hydroxycinnamate thioesters has been reported in *Acinetobacter baylyi*

following disruptions in the gene encoding its enoyl-CoA hydratase lyase, and it was observed in

E. coli expressing the *A. baylyi fcs* homolog in the presence of coumarate (Parke and Ornston,

2004). This toxicity could have been limiting other systems using bacterial coumaroyl-CoA

synthetases, but the defective growth phenotype may not have been observed due to differences

in experimental design (Park et al., 2009; Santos et al., 2011). The exact cause for coumaroyl-

CoA toxicity remains unclear and will be the subject of future investigations.

To engineer *P. putida* for bisdemethoxycurcumin production, we deleted the native

enoyl-CoA hydratase lyase (*ech*) responsible for the conversion of coumaroyl-CoA to acetyl-

CoA and p-hydroxybenzaldehyde. In order to relieve some of the observed coumaroyl-CoA

toxicity, we relied on the native genomic copy of *fcs* instead of a plasmid-based system. We

demonstrated that native expression of *fcs* generates sufficient coumaroyl-CoA for curcuminoid

synthase (CUS). Extraction of the product during growth using an oleyl alcohol overlay also

significantly enhanced titers (Figure S2 and 5). In the final *P. putida* production strain, we

achieved production of bisdemethoxycurcumin at titers of 2.15 mg/L (Figure 5).

This work is a significant first step towards the production of plant T3PKS-derived

compounds in *P. putida*, but several issues remain to be addressed. In particular, our final

bisdemthoxycurcumin titer of 2.15 mg/L is far lower than the 91.3 mg/l titer first described in *E.*

coli (Katsuyama et al., 2008). Several methods have been proposed to enhance the production of

curcuminoids and similar T3PKS derived compounds in microbial hosts. In one such approach,

the metabolic burden of product, protein, and plasmid DNA synthesis was spread across several

microbial strains in a synthetic co-culture (Fang et al., 2018). Since phenylpropanoid

overproducing strains of *P. putida* have been described (Nijkamp et al., 2007, 2005), a co-culture

method could be explored for the biosynthesis of plant T3PKS products in this host. It is also

quite clear that more extensive pathway balancing will be required to mitigate the intermediate

toxicity we have observed. As we continue to understand more about the metabolism of *P.*

putida and learn to engineer it more effectively, this host will become an increasingly attractive

chassis for renewable chemical biosynthesis.

4. METHODS

<u>4.1 Media, chemicals, and culture conditions</u>

General *E. coli* cultures were grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) Miller medium (BD

Biosciences, USA) at 37 °C, while *P. putida* was grown at 30 °C. MOPS minimal medium was

used where indicated and comprised of the following: 32.5 μM $CaCl_2$, 0.29 mM K_2SO_4, 1.32 mM

K_2HPO_4, 8 μM $FeCl_2$, 40 mM MOPS, 4 mM tricine, 0.01 mM $FeSO_4$, 9.52 mM NH_4Cl, 0.52 mM

$MgCl_2$, 50 mM NaCl, 0.03 μM $(NH_4)_6Mo_7O_{24}$, 4 μM H_3BO_3, 0.3 μM $CoCl_2$, 0.1 μM $CuSO_4$,

0.8 μM $MnCl_2$, and 0.1 μM $ZnSO_4$ (LaBauve and Wargo, 2012). Cultures were supplemented

with kanamycin (50 mg/L, Sigma Aldrich, USA) when indicated. Technical grade oleyl alcohol

was acquired from Alfa Aesar (Alfa Aesar, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Coenzyme A (lithium

salt) was purchased from CoALA Biosciences (CoALA Biosciences, USA). All other

compounds were purchased through Sigma Aldrich (Sigma Aldrich, USA). Construction of *P.*

putida deletion mutants was performed as described previously (Thompson et al., 2019).

4.2 Strains and plasmids

Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this work are listed in Table 1. All strains and

plasmids created in this work are available through the public instance of the JBEI registry

https://public-registry.jbei.org. All plasmids were designed using Device Editor and Vector

Editor software, while all primers used for the construction of plasmids were designed using j5

software (Chen et al., 2012; Ham et al., 2012; Hillson et al., 2012). Plasmids were assembled via

Gibson Assembly using standard protocols (Gibson et al., 2009), or Golden Gate Assembly using

standard protocols (Engler et al., 2008). Plasmids were routinely isolated using the Qiaprep Spin

Miniprep kit (Qiagen, USA), and all primers were purchased from Integrated DNA Technologies

(IDT, Coralville, IA).

Table 1: Strains and plasmids used in this study

Strain	**JBEI Part ID**	**Reference**
E. coli DH10B		(Grant et al., 1990)
E. coli BL21(DE3)		Novagen
P. putida KT2440		ATCC 47054
P. putida KT2440 Δ*ech*		
Plasmids		
pET28		Novagen
pBADT		(Bi et al., 2013)
pBADT-*CUS*	JBx_134311	This work
pBADT-*rppA*-NT	JBx_134312	This work
pBADT-*rppA*-NW	JBx_134313	This work
pBADT-*rppA*-OW	JBx_134314	This work

pBADT-*fcs*	JBx_134315	This work
pBADT-*fcs-CUS*	JBx_134316	This work
pMQ30		(Shanks et al., 2009)
pMQ30-*PP_3358*		(Park et al., 2019)

4.3 Plate based growth assays

Growth studies of bacterial strains were conducted using microplate reader kinetic assays.

Overnight cultures were inoculated into 10 mL of LB medium from single colonies, and grown

at 30 °C. These cultures were then diluted 1:100 into 500 μL of LB medium with appropriate

concentrations of arabinose and p-coumarate in 48-well plates (Falcon, 353072). Plates were

sealed with a gas-permeable microplate adhesive film (VWR, USA), and optical density and

fluorescence were monitored for 48 hours in a Biotek Synergy 4 plate reader (BioTek, USA) at

30 °C with fast continuous shaking. Optical density was measured at 600 nm. The amount of

time necessary for the culture to reach an OD_{600} of 0.16 was defined as the lag time.

4.4 HPLC detection of bisdemethoxycurcumin

HPLC analysis was performed on an Agilent Technologies 1200 series liquid

chromatography instrument coupled to a Diode Array Detector (Agilent Technologies, USA).

Compounds were separated at a constant flow rate of 0.4 mL/min over a Kinetex C18 column

(2.6 μm diameter, 100Å particle size, dimensions 100 x 3.00 mm, Phenomenex, USA) held at 50

°C. The mobile phase consisted of H_2O + 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid (A) and acetonitrile + 0.1%

trifluoroacetic acid (B). Separation was performed using the following gradient method: 0-3

minutes 95% A, 3-15 minutes 95-5% A, 15-17 minutes 5% A, 17-17.5 minutes 5-95% A, 17.5-

20 minutes 95% A. The presence of bisdemethoxycurcumin was monitored and quantified at 440

nm.

4.5 RB-TnSeq experiments and analysis

BarSeq-based experiments utilized the *P. putida* RB-TnSeq library, JBEI-1, which has

been described previously (Thompson et al., 2019). An aliquot of JBEI-1 was thawed on ice,

diluted into 25 mL of LB medium supplemented with kanamycin and grown to an OD_{600} of 0.5 at

30 °C. Three 1 mL aliquots of the library were pelleted and stored at -80 °C to later serve as the

t_0 of gene abundance. Libraries were then washed in MOPS minimal medium and diluted 1:50 in

MOPS minimal medium with 10 mM p-coumarate, ferulate, benzoate, p-hydroxybenzoate,

protocatechuate, vanillin, vanillate, phenylacetate, or D-glucose. Cells were grown in 600 μL of

medium in 96-well deep well plates (VWR). Plates were sealed with a gas-permeable microplate

adhesive film (VWR, USA), and then grown at 30 °C in an INFORS HT Multitron (Infors USA

Inc.), with shaking at 700 rpm. Two 600-μL samples were combined, pelleted, and stored at -

80 °C until analysis by BarSeq, which was performed as previously described (Rand et al., 2017;

Wetmore et al., 2015). All fitness data are publicly available at http://fit.genomics.lbl.gov.

4.5 Curcuminoid production

For production of bisdemthoxycurcumin without an overlay, an overnight culture of *P.*

putida KT2440 Δ*ech* + pBADT-CUS was diluted 1:100 into 5 mL of LB supplemented with 50

mg/L kanamycin, 1 % w/v L-arabinose, and 100 mM glucose. The culture was grown to

stationary phase over 12 hours then pelleted in a centrifuge at 5000 xg for 5 minutes. The cell

pellets were resuspended in 2 mL of fresh LB with 50 mg/L kanamycin, 0.5 % L-arabinose, 100

mM glucose, and 5 mM coumarate. The culture was allowed to proceed for 72 hours.

For experiments employing an overlay, overnights of *P. putida* harboring pBADT-CUS

were diluted 1:100 into 25 mL of fresh LB supplemented with 50 mg/L kanamycin, and 100 mM

glucose. Arabinose and coumarate were added at the beginning of the fermentation at

concentrations indicated. A 2.5 mL overlay of oleyl alcohol was added to extract the

bisdemethoxycurcumin during growth. The fermentation was allowed to proceed for 72 hours.

4.6 Curcuminoid extraction

For cultures lacking an overlay, 0.5 mL of culture was acidified to pH 3 with 3 N HCl.

Bisdemethoxycurcumin was then extracted with an equal volume of ethyl acetate. 250 µL of the

ethyl acetate layer was removed and the solvent was allowed to evaporate overnight. The dried

samples were then resuspended in 50 µL of acetonitrile for analysis with HPLC-DAD.

For cultures with an overlay, the cultures were acidified to pH 3 with 3 N HCl. Acidified

cultures were then pelleted in a centrifuge and the oleyl alcohol overlays were removed. To

quantify bisdemethoxycurcumin, 100 µL of the extracted overlays were added to a black, clear

bottom 96-well plate and absorbance was measured at 425 nm in a Biotek Synergy 4 plate reader

(BioTek, USA). A standard curve was made with bisdemethoxycurcumin standards dissolved in

oleyl alcohol (Figure S3)

4.7 Flaviolin production and targeted proteomic analysis

Colonies of *P. putida* KT2440 strains carrying pBADT-*rppA*-NW, pBADT-*rppA*-NT,

and pBADT-*rppA*-OW were used to inoculate LB or MOPS minimal medium with 50 mg/L

kanamycin and cultured overnight. The overnight culture was then diluted 1/100 into fresh

medium with 0.2 % w/v L-arabinose, 50 mg/L kanamycin, and 400, 200, 100, 50, 25, 12.5, 6.25

or 0 mM glucose. Cultures were conducted in 24-well deep-well plates and allowed to proceed

for 48 hours. Cultures were then pelleted in a centrifuge at 5000 xg for 5 minutes. Supernatants

were removed, aliquoted into a 96-well black clear bottom plate, and the absorbance was

measured at 340 nm in a Biotek Synergy 4 plate reader (BioTek, USA). For cultures expressing

rppA variants in LB, the supernatants were too opaque with red product and needed to be diluted

1:5 in fresh LB for accurate absorbance measurements. Supernatants of strains cultured in

minimal medium were not diluted before absorbance measurements.

Samples for intracellular targeted proteomic analysis were grown for 48 hours in 5 mL

LB supplemented with 0 mM or 100 mM glucose. Then, 2 mL of the culture were then pelleted

by centrifugation, the supernatant was decanted, and the pellets were stored at -80 °C. Proteins

were extracted and analyzed using a variation of a previously-described workflow (Chen et al.,

2019).

4.8 Flaviolin purification

An overnight culture of *P. putida* KT2440 carrying pBADT-rppA-NT was diluted 1:100

into 100 mL of LB supplemented with 25 mg/L kanamycin, 0.2% *w/v* *L*-arabinose, and 100 mM

glucose. The culture was shaken for 48 hours at 30 °C in a 500 mL baffled Erlenmeyer flask.

Following fermentation, the red supernatant was removed, acidified with 10 mL 10 *N* HCl, and

extracted twice with equal volumes of ethyl acetate. The combined organic phase was evaporated

leaving a black solid, which was then dissolved in ethyl acetate and methanol (7:3). The extract

components were then separated using preparative thin layer chromatography (TLC, silica gel).

The red band was isolated from the TLC plate, extracted with methanol, and filtered. The

methanol was evaporated *in vacuo* leaving dark red solid with a yield of ~6.5 mg. The identity of

the flaviolin was then validated with ^{1}H-NMR. ^{1}H-NMR (400 MHz, CD$_3$OD) δ 6.99 (s, 1 H),

6.47 (s, 1 H), 5.58 (s, 1 H) (Figure S5A and S5B).

4.9 Synthesis of coumaroyl-CoA standard

Scheme 1

Coumaroyl-Coenzyme A (**2**) was synthesized in two steps according to Scheme 1. *S*-

phenyl (*E*)-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)prop-2-enethioate (**1**) was synthesized according to previous

literature (Hori et al., 2012). 1-(3-Dimethylaminopropyl)-3-ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride

(WSCD·HCl, 1.48 g, 7.3 mmol), 1-hydroxybenzotriazole (HOBt, 1.12 g, 7.3 mmol), and 4-

hydroxycinnamic acid (1 g, 6.1 mmol) were dissolved in DMF (100 mL) and stirred for 1 h at

room temperature. Thiophenol (0.610 mL, 6.1 mmol) was subsequently added to the mixture and

stirred overnight at room temperature. After the solvent was removed *in vacuo*, water and

dichloromethane (DCM) were added to the mixture. The organic layers were combined, dried

over Na_2SO_4, and evaporated. The product was purified with silica-gel column chromatography

and eluted with DCM to yield *S*-phenyl (*E*)-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)prop-2-enethioate as a white

solid (**1**, 468 mg, 30%).

To synthesize coumaroyl-CoA (**2**), coenzyme A lithium salt (7.7 mg, 10 μmol) was

dissolved in a solution of saturated sodium bicarbonate (750 μL) which had been pre-chilled to 4

°C. *S*-phenyl (*E*)-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)prop-2-enethioate (30 mg, 117 μmol) was added to the

solution. The solution was mixed for 16 hours at 4 °C then quenched via the addition of 6M HCl

to bring the pH of the solution to ~2. The mixture was extracted with ethyl acetate (2 x 2 mL),

then coumaroyl-CoA was purified from the remaining aqueous phase via preparatory HPLC.

Coumaroyl-CoA was purified using an Agilent 1260 series preparatory HPLC system

equipped with a 900 μL sample loop and a UV detector coupled to a fraction collector.

Compounds were separated over an Agilent Zorbax SB-C18 preparatory column (9.4 x 50 mm, 5

μm particle size) using a mobile phase composed of 10 mM ammonium formate, pH 4.5 (solvent

A) and methanol (solvent B) using the following method:

Time (min)	%A	%B	Flow rate (mL/min)
0	95	5	10
1	95	5	10
8	5	95	10
10	5	95	10
11	95	5	10
16	95	5	10

The fraction collector was programmed to collect peaks absorbing at a wavelength of 260

nm and that eluted between 3.6 and 4.6 minutes. The fractions containing coumaroyl-CoA were

identified by direct infusion onto an Applied Biosystems 4000 QTRAP mass spectrometer

system operating with the following parameters: Q1 MS mode, scan range 100-1000 m/z,

declustering potential: 70, entrance potential: 10, curtain gas: 10, IonSpray Voltage: 4800,

Temperature: 300, Ion Source Gases: 40. Fractions containing coumaroyl-CoA were combined

and lyophilized, yielding coumaroyl-CoA as a white powder (6 mg,

4.10 LC-MS/MS analysis of intracellular Coenzyme A esters

P. putida KT2440 and *P. putida* Δ*ech* cells carrying pBADT-*fcs* were cultured overnight.

Cultures were inoculated 1:100 into 25 mL LB supplemented with 100 mM glucose and 0.2%

w/v L-arabinose. Cells were cultured at 30 °C for 7 hours then coumarate was added to a final

concentration of 5 mM. 10 mL of culture were taken at hours 8, 11, and 19 and pelleted in a

centrifuge. Cell pellets were resuspended in 1 mL ice cold methanol and stored at -80 °C until

workup.

Coenzyme A esters were extracted as follows: to the 1 mL methanol resuspensions, 0.5

mL of ice cold LC grade water and 0.25 mL ice cold LC chloroform. Samples were vortexed to

mix after each addition. Samples were then centrifuged at maximum speed for 2 minutes to

promote phase separation, after which 0.5 mL of the top aqueous phase was removed and

transferred to an Amicon 3 kDa molecular weight cutoff centrifuge filter (Sigma Aldrich, USA).

Extracts were filtered by spinning in a benchtop centrifuge at 4 °C for 90 minutes at 13000g. The

flow through was lyophilized for 24 hours to concentrate the sample. Lyophilized fractions were

resuspended in 0.1 mL of ice cold 60:40 (v/v) LC grade acetonitrile: LC grade water, and 35 µL

of the aqueous layer was removed for LC-MS/MS analysis.

CoA extracts were analyzed using an Applied Biosystems 4000 QTRAP mass

spectrometer coupled to an Aglient 1100-1200 series HPLC. Compounds were separated over a

Phenomenex Kinetex XB-C18 column (100 x 3 mm, 100 Å, 2.6 µm particle size) held at 50 °C.

The mobile phase was composed of 10 mM ammonium formate, pH 4.5 (solvent A) and

acetonitrile (solvent B) the following LC method was used:

Time (min)	%A	%B	Flow rate (µL/min)
0	98	2	400
2	98	2	400
5.5	2	98	400
8.5	2	98	400
9.5	98	2	400
12.75	98	2	400

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The mass spectrometer was operated in positive ion mode using the following

parameters: Curtain gas: 20 L/min, Collision gas: medium, Ionspray voltage: 4500 V,

Temperature: 250 °C, Ion source gas 1: 20 L/min, Ion source gas 2: 10 L/min, Declustering

potential: 0, Entrance potential: 10, Collision cell exit potential: 10. Coumaroyl-CoA was

detected in multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) mode by monitoring the following transition:

914.16 m/z → 407.16 m/z using a collision energy of 47.8 V. Data was imported into Skyline

targeted mass spectrometry environment (v. 3.7.0 11317) and peaks were integrated using

Skyline's embedded integration function. Coumaroyl-CoA was quantified relative to a standard

curve that was generated by calculating the linear regression of 3 individual injections of each

concentration within the standard curve ($R^2 = 0.9982$).

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Contributions

Conceptualization, M.R.I., M.G.T., J.M.B; Methodology, M.R.I., M.G.T., J.M.B.,Y.L.,C.J.P.;

Investigation, M.R.I., M.G.T., J.M.B., Y.L., M.S., A.N.P., J.W.G.; Writing – Original Draft,

M.R.I.; Writing – Review and Editing, All authors.; Resources and supervision, C.J.P, A.M.D.,

J.D.K.

Competing Interests

J.D.K. has financial interests in Amyris, Lygos, Demetrix, Napigen and Maple Bio

Supplementary Figures

Figure S1: Heatmap of RB-TnSeq mutant fitness data. Genes shown have fitness defects (-$\log_2$

< -2) and with statistical significance ($|t_{score}| > 4$) in at least one tested condition which show no

significant fitness defects when grown on glucose.

Fitness ($-\log_2$)

Gene	Vanillate_1	Vanillate_2	Vanillin_1	Vanillin_2	Ferulate_1	Ferulate_2	Coumarate_1	Coumarate_2	p-Hydroxybenzoate_1	p-Hydroxybenzoate_2	Benzoate_1	Benzoate_2	Protocatechuate_1	Protocatechuate_2	Phenylacetate_1	Phenylacetate_2	Glucose_1	Glucose_2	Description
PP_0120	-1.4	-1.7	-2.2	-1.7	-1.8	-1.6	-0.68	-0.66	-0.33	-0.16	-0.25	-0.5	-0.69	-0.57	-0.44	-0.41	-0.45	-0.16	putative zinc ABC transporter
PP_0368	-1.8	-1.9	-3.4	-3.5	-1.1	-1	-1.8	-1.7	-1	-0.84	-1.4	-1.3	-1.7	-1.7	-1.6	-1.7	-0.31	0.06	putative Acyl-CoA dehydrogenase
PP_1292	-0.87	-0.8	-3.2	-3.8	-1.1	-1.1	-0.69	-0.75	-0.11	-0.64	-0.22	-0.33	-0.65	-0.44	-0.46	-0.88	-0.26	-0.35	Cyclic pyranopterin monophosphate synthase accessory protein
PP_1294	-0.6	-0.39	-2.4	-3.4	-0.78	-0.95	-0.47	-0.47	-0.53	-0.31	-0.72	-0.32	-0.12	-0.88	-0.59	-0.53	-0.23	-0.11	molybdopterin synthase large subunit
PP_1375	-5.1	-7	-4.7	-6.2	-5.4	-5.1	-5.4	-5.2	-5.8	-4.8	-6.8	-6.7	-6.5	-6	-0.09	-0.12	-0.02	0.1	transcription regulatory protein (pca regulon)
PP_1376	-0.51	-0.58	-0.37	-0.41	-0.07	-0.29	-0.75	-0.48	-0.43	-0.31	0.12	-0.26	-3.5	-3.5	-0.06	-0.19	-0.23	0.02	4-hydroxybenzoate transporter
PP_1377	-5.7	-6.6	-5.6	-7.5	-6.5	-7.7	-7.3	-7.6	-5.3	-6.5	-6.3	-6.6	-5.7	-6.4	-0.11	-0.31	-0.15	0.23	beta-ketoadipyl-CoA thiolase
PP_1379	-6	-7.6	-5.4	-7.5	-6	-6.1	-6.9	-6.6	-6.8	-5.7	-0.91	-0.85	-7	-6.7	-0.19	-0.31	-0.15	0.03	3-carboxy-cis,cis-muconate cycloisomerase
PP_1380	-4.9	-5.3	-4.9	-7.1	-5.7	-4.5	-5.9	-6	-6.2	-5.3	-6.4	-5.5	-5.5	-5.9	-0.04	-0.22	-0.23	0.18	3-oxoadipate enol-lactonase 2
PP_1615	-2.2	-2	-2.1	-2.2	-2.8	-2.3	-0.28	0.01	0.14	-0.23	-0.03	-0.13	0.06	0.04	-0.16	-0.15	-0.1	-0.18	Transcriptional regulator, LysR family
PP_1616	-3.2	-4.2	-4.9	-4.6	-4.2	-4.5	-0.37	-0.65	-0.48	-0.46	-0.88	-0.57	-0.52	-0.51	-0.49	-0.6	-0.28	-0.07	formaldehyde dehydrogenase, glutathione-dependent
PP_2123	-0.58	-0.76	-2.9	-3.8	-1.1	-0.99	-0.85	-0.51	-0.18	-0.31	-0.47	-0.61	-0.55	-0.71	-0.72	-0.78	-0.18	-0.38	molybdenum::molybdopterin ligase
PP_2136	-1.4	-1.2	-1.6	-2.2	-1.2	-1.4	-2	-1.5	-0.63	-0.82	-0.78	-1.6	-0.47	-0.47	-2.5	-1.1	-0.08	-0.48	enoyl-CoA hydratase/3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase
PP_2354	-1.3	-1.4	-1.9	-1.7	-1.5	-1.5	-1.5	-1.4	-1.4	-1.5	-1.6	-1.6	-1.6	-1.2	-1.5	-2	-0.05	-0.09	Sensory box histidine kinase/response regulator
PP_2356	-1.5	-1.7	-2.2	-2.1	-2.1	-2.2	-1.9	-1.9	-1.5	-1.7	-2	-1.9	-1.5	-2	-2.6	-2.9	-0.31	-0.09	putative Phytochrome family protein
PP_3159	-0.11	-0.04	-0.06	-0.25	-0.09	0.02	0.07	-0.01	0.06	-0.15	-3.2	-3	-0.01	0.08	0.06	-0.09	-0.04	-0.1	BenABC operon transcriptional activator
PP_3161	-0.24	0	-0.23	-0.16	-0.16	-0	-0.01	0.02	-0.06	-0.11	-2.9	-2.9	-0.05	0.02	0.09	0.02	-0.11	0.11	benzoate 1,2-dioxygenase subunit alpha
PP_3162	0.21	-0.11	0.02	-0.02	-0.09	-0.16	-0.28	-0.13	0.03	-0.29	-2.7	-4	0.07	0.21	-0.21	0.16	-0.01	-0.08	benzoate 1,2-dioxygenase subunit beta
PP_3163	0.09	0.02	-0.07	-0.16	-0.32	-0.11	0.02	-0.21	0.07	-0.02	-3.7	-3.5	-0.45	-0.32	0.02	0.06	-0.16	-0.18	benzoate 1,2-dioxygenase electron transfer component
PP_3164	-0.49	-0.48	-0.29	0	-0.4	-0.28	-0.49	0.34	0.21	-0.1	-7.9	-7.8	0.05	0.08	-0.41	0.17	0.02	0.17	1,6-dihydroxycyclohexa-2,4-diene-1-carboxylate dehydrogenase
PP_3270	-0.04	0.02	0.08	-0.07	0.1	0.18	0.03	-0.04	-0.06	-0.04	0.09	-0.15	-0.02	0	-4.8	-6.2	0	0.09	oxepin-CoA hydrolase/3-oxo-5,6-dehydrosuberyl-CoA semialdehyde dehydrogenase
PP_3271	-0.14	0.06	0.01	0.07	-0.11	0.02	0	-0.01	-0.14	-0.1	-0.13	-0.22	-0.07	0.07	-1.8	-2.1	-0.13	0.05	phenylacetic acid-specific porin
PP_3272	-0	-0.07	0.06	0.07	-0.07	-0.02	0.12	0.11	0.1	0.01	0.04	0.03	-0.01	-0.02	-3.5	-6.5	0.04	-0	acetate permease
PP_3273	-0.15	-0.12	0.14	-0.17	0.14	0.01	0.31	0.11	0.07	0.29	-0.03	0.18	-0.01	0.08	-3.5	-3.8	0.22	0.22	conserved protein of unknown function
PP_3274	-0.13	-0.15	-0.14	-0.2	-0.23	-0.07	0.17	0.03	-0.05	0.01	-0.11	-0.26	-0.05	-0.05	-4.2	-6	-0.16	-0.12	ring 1,2-phenylacetyl-CoA epoxidase, reductase subunit
PP_3276	0.05	0.17	-0.09	0.18	-0.18	0.1	-0.19	-0.45	-0.34	-0.01	-0.23	-0.15	-0.04	0.09	-4.5	-7.3	0.1	0.03	ring 1,2-phenylacetyl-CoA epoxidase beta subunit
PP_3277	0.17	0.11	-0.03	0.02	0.04	-0.34	-0.25	-0.13	0.24	-0.26	-0.32	-0.32	-0.22	-0.12	-5.2	-6.1	-0.28	-0.36	ring 1,2-phenylacetyl-CoA epoxidase regulatory subunit
PP_3278	0.04	-0.1	-0.07	0.27	0.06	0.2	-0	0.01	-0.01	-0.3	-0.15	-0.05	0.16	-0.1	-3.5	-5.8	0.02	0.03	ring 1,2-phenylacetyl-CoA epoxidase alpha subunit
PP_3279	-0.05	0.13	0.17	0.05	0.29	0.03	0.05	0.04	-0.08	-0.02	-0.03	-0.05	-0.24	0.06	-4.8	-7.2	0.08	0.02	phenylacetate-CoA ligase
PP_3280	0.14	0.23	0.15	0.48	0.13	-0.36	0.41	0.12	-0.05	-0.29	0.35	-0.32	0.18	-0.53	-3.7	-6.4	-0.22	-0.19	3-oxoadipyl-CoA/3-oxo-5,6-dehydrosuberyl-CoA thiolase
PP_3281	-0.16	0.31	-0.18	-0.19	0.14	0.01	0.09	-0.03	-0.25	-0.08	-0	0.15	0.17	-0.11	-2.5	-3.2	-0.04	0.08	hydroxyphenylacetyl-CoA thioesterase
PP_3282	-0.05	-0.01	-0.04	-0.09	-0.03	-0.04	0.09	0.09	-0.06	-0.05	0.14	-0.15	-0.04	-0.14	-4.5	-7.6	0.07	0.11	3-hydroxyadipyl-CoA dehydrogenase
PP_3283	-0.03	-0.07	-0.21	0.24	0.15	-0.19	-0.17	0.08	-0.02	0.09	0.16	-0.11	-0.25	0.22	-4.8	-6.4	-0.09	-0.27	1,2-epoxyphenylacetyl-CoA isomerase
PP_3284	-0.02	0.34	0.26	0.1	0.22	0.27	-0.32	-0.04	-0.18	0.03	-0.01	-0.24	0.31	-0.01	-4.7	-7.8	-0.14	-0.15	enoyl-CoA hydratase-isomerase
PP_3285	0.19	0.09	0.1	0.09	-0.43	0.21	0.01	0.42	-0.04	0.07	-0.11	0.41	-0.04	-0.28	-4.6	-7.4	0.03	-0.03	detoxifying thioesterase of the phenylacetate degradation pathway
PP_3356	0.02	0.16	-0.05	-0.11	-3.3	-4	-4.2	-3.6	-0.05	-0.06	-0	0.05	0.1	-0.03	0.08	-0.03	0.15	-0.06	feruloyl-CoA-synthetase
PP_3357	0.12	-0.1	0.18	0.06	-3.6	-2.5	-5.2	-4.2	0.24	-0.1	-0.04	-0.06	-0.03	0.23	0.09	0.17	0.14	0.13	vanillin dehydrogenase
PP_3358	0.09	0.12	0.05	0.2	-2.9	-2.5	-3.1	-3.8	0.17	0.07	-0	0.23	0.03	-0.02	-0.01	0.08	0.04	0.02	hydroxycinnamoyl-CoA hydratase-lyase
PP_3493	-1.4	-1	-1.5	-1.5	0.11	0.14	0.06	-0.05	0.16	-0.23	-1.7	-1.8	0.02	0.04	-2.7	-3.8	0.01	0.07	Transcriptional regulator, LysR family
PP_3494	-1.5	-0.93	-1.4	-1.1	0.01	-0.01	0	-0.15	-0.18	-0.16	-0.77	-0.95	-0.22	0.04	-3.5	-3.2	0.01	-0.19	conserved exported protein of unknown function
PP_3537	0.09	0.21	-0.05	-0.04	0.11	-0.11	-4.6	-4.8	-3.2	-3.6	0.02	-0.02	0.1	-0.02	0.15	-0.03	-0.05	-0.02	p-hydroxybenzoate hydroxylase
PP_3538	0.2	0.14	0.14	0.12	0.04	0.06	-4.6	-4.7	-3	-3.8	-0	0.05	0.04	0.16	0.09	0.06	0.04		transcriptional regulator
PP_3590	-3	-3.2	-1.8	-2	-3.6	-2.9	-2.1	-1.8	-2.7	-3.5	-3.4	-3.3	-1.2	-1.6	-1.6	-2	-0.19	-0.08	D-lysine aminotransferase
PP_3603	-1.4	-1.3	-1.7	-2.2	-0.79	-1.2	-0.47	-0.76	-0.49	-1.2	-0.62	-0.55	-0.79	-0.44	-1.1	-1	-0.4	-0.32	Transcriptional regulator, GntR family
PP_3621	-0.36	-0.23	-1.7	-2.4	-0.15	-0.25	-0.35	-0.15	-0.26	0.12	-0.07	-0.53	-0.12	-0.28	-0.02	0.36	0.18	-0.07	isoquinoline 1-oxidoreductase subunit alpha
PP_3622	-0.11	-0.18	-1.9	-2.3	0.09	-0.04	-0.19	-0.24	0.03	0.01	0.08	0.03	-0.15	0.02	0.07	-0.03	0.02		putative Isoquinoline 1-oxidoreductase, beta subunit
PP_3662	-1.5	-1.4	-1.8	-1.6	-1.1	-1.3	-0.5	-0.6	-1.1	-0.89	-1.9	-1.4	-0.72	-0.73	-1.7	-2.7	-0.41	-0.11	conserved protein of unknown function
PP_3714	0.19	0.34	-0.38	0.23	-0.38	-0.08	-0.03	-0.11	-0.09	0	-6.7	-5.6	-0.26	-0.51	-0.31	0.02	-0.47	-0.14	Muconolactone Delta-isomerase
PP_3715	0.18	0.75	-0.08	0.12	-0.18	0.11	-0.24	-0.13	0.06	0.28	-5.7	-6.9	-0.27	-0.28	0.34	-0.01	0.14	0.31	Muconate cycloisomerase 1
PP_3716	-0.15	-0.13	-0.1	-0.05	-0.1	-0.02	-0.02	-0.09	-0.04	-0.04	-5.6	-6	-0.2	-0.07	-0.06	-0.31	0	0.07	HTH-type transcriptional regulator
PP_3736	-5.8	-6.4	-4.3	-7.2	-5.2	-6.2	-0.09	0.01	-0.03	0.08	-0.09	-0.32	0.14	0.25	0.12	0.02	0.08	-0.02	vanillate O-demethylase oxygenase subunit
PP_3737	-4.8	-6	-4.5	-6	-4.4	-4.2	-0.04	0.14	-0.04	-0.07	-0.01	-0.04	-0.01	0.18	0.11	-0.05	-0.24	0.03	vanillate O-demethylase oxidoreductase
PP_3828	-0.45	-0.54	-2.5	-3.9	-0.71	-0.35	-0.48	-0.64	-0.38	-0.24	-0.24	-0.33	-0.36	-0.28	-0.28	-0.52	-0.37	-0.07	Molybdate-binding periplasmic protein
PP_3829	-0.5	-0.45	-3.1	-3.3	-0.76	-0.75	-0.47	-0.69	-0.23	-0.19	-0.42	-0.01	-0.59	-0.27	-0.23	-0.43	-0.12		Molybdenum transport system permease protein ModB
PP_3830	-0.09	-0.3	-1.7	-2.2	-0.29	-0.66	-0.32	-0.28	-0.17	-0.2	-0.2	-0.16	-0.29	-0.29	-0.23	-0.51	-0.1	-0	Molybdenum import ATP-binding protein ModC
PP_3951	-5.2	-7.3	-3.7	-6.4	-7.2	-7.1	-7.8	-8.1	-5.5	-5.6	-5.1	-8.1	-8	-7.9	-0.23	0.03	-0.25	0.21	3-oxoadipate CoA-transferase subunit A
PP_3952	-6.4	-6.6	-4.6	-8.2	-6.8	-7	-7.3	-7.6	-6.8	-6	-6	-8	-7.1	-7.4	0.12	-0.38	-0.23	-0.08	3-oxoadipate CoA-transferase subunit A
PP_4008	-0.74	-0.11	-0.78	-1.1	-1.1	-0.99	-0.81	-0.68	-0.43	-1	-0.46	-0.44	-0.48	-0.28	-1.2	-2.2	-0.25	0.1	ATP-dependent serine protease
PP_4058	-1.9	-2.2	-2.3	-1.9	-1.5	-1.6	-0.5	-0.3	-0.7	-0.6	-0.15	-0.06	-0.5	-0.51	-3.1	-3.6	-0.19	-0.03	1,4-alpha-glucan branching enzyme
PP_4098	-1.2	-1.7	-0.98	-0.7	-1.3	-0.43	-3.4	-0.57	-0.19	0.09	-1.1	-0.79	-2.5	-0.48	-0.48	0.01	-0.29		UvrABC system protein C
PP_4231	0.02	0.08	-1.9	-2.5	-0.01	-0.03	-0.3	0.17	-0.19	0.09	-0.08	-0.08	0.04	-0.13	-0.09	0.1	0.01	-0.12	putative Xanthine dehydrogenase accessory factor
PP_4597	-0.4	-0.46	-1.9	-2.9	-0.16	-0.73	-0.31	-0.03	-0.41	-0.06	0	-0.5	0.07	-0.31	-0.51	-0.21	-0.33	-0.08	Cyclic pyranopterin monophosphate synthase
PP_4622	-0.99	-0.99	-2.1	-1.1	-0.18	-0.17	-0.13	-0.12	-0.23	0.17	-0.06	-0.19	-0.49	-0.17	-0.81	-0.91	-0.04	-0.07	Hmg transcriptional repressor
PP_4655	-4	-5.1	-4.9	-6.5	-4.9	-5	-4.2	-4.9	-5.2	-3.9	0.1	0.19	-6.3	-5.1	0.23	0.02	0.03	0.05	protocatechuate 3,4-dioxygenase alpha chain
PP_4656	-3.9	-6.8	-5.4	-8	-5.1	-6.1	-6.8	-6	-4.5	-4.6	0.11	0.27	-6.5	-6.4	-0.32	-0.14	-0.31	0.04	protocatechuate 3,4-dioxygenase beta chain
PP_5085	-1.3	-1.3	-1.6	-0.85	-0.81	-0.63	-2.3	-2.5	-4.5	-4.4	-0.83	-0.57	-0.75	-0.54	-1.3	-1.3	0.34	0.27	malic enzyme B
PP_5331	0.9	0.62	0.34	0.91	0.47	0.51	-0.44	-0.69	-2	-2	-0.95	-1.6	0.22	0.26	-1.2	-0.52	-0.21	-0.41	Long-chain acyl-CoA thioester hydrolase

550 **Figure S2:** HPLC trace of curcumin extracted from *P. putida* KT2440 Δ*ech* + pBADT-CUS
551 overlaid with a 3.125 mg/L standard
552

553
554 **Figure S3:** Standard curve of bisdemethoxycurcumin. Absorbance measurements at 425 nm
555 from 50 to 0 mg/L of bisdemethoxycurcumin dissolved in oleyl alcohol.

Figure S4: Production of flaviolin in *P. putida* KT2440 measured with absorbance at 340 nm.
Glucose concentrations were varied from 0 mM to 400 mM in MOPS minimal medium.

Figure S5: ^{1}H-NMR spectrum of flaviolin isolated from *P. putida* KT2440 expressing *rppA*-NT
from the plasmid pBADT-*rppA*-NT. A) ^{1}H-NMR spectrum from flaviolin freshly resuspended in
CD$_3$OD. B) ^{1}H-NMR spectrum from flaviolin resuspended in CD$_3$OD and incubated at room
temperature overnight. The signal at 5.58 (s, 1 H) is absent in the overnight treatment due to
proton exchange with CD$_3$OD (Snyder et al., 2009).

584 **Figure S6:** Calculated lagtimes for cultures expressing *fcs* in the presence of 5 mM coumarate.

585   The *fcs* gene was expressed with 0, 0.05, 0.1, or 0.2% w/v L-arabinose. The lagtimes and their
586   standard deviations are included in the table (right). Lag time is defined here as the amount of
587   time required for the culture to reach $OD_{600} = 0.16$. Standard deviation was calculated from 3
588   replicates

[L-arabinose] (w/v)	Lag Time +/− s.d. (hrs)
0%	3.77 +/− 0.10
0.05%	8.50 +/− 0.44
0.10%	17.10 +/− 1.23
0.20%	20.49 +/− 1.33

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