Comparing the evolvability of an ancestrally reconstructed and modern adenylate kinase

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Abstract

Directed evolution revolutionized the field of protein engineering by establishing a highly customizable framework to produce enzymes with enhanced catalytic power for a wide range of functions. However, modern enzymes subjected to directed evolution frequently plateau in improvement due to entrapment in local maxima on their fitness landscapes. Ancestral enzymes have been proposed as superior starting points for directed evolution due to their increased thermostability. Here we propose and experimentally test an alternative foundation that is independent of ancestral thermostability. We posit that the enhanced evolvability of ancestrally reconstructed sequences is due to their inference from the surviving evolutionary trajectories that led to modern-day sequences. All other unsuccessful trajectories from less evolvable ancestors were lost by extinction. Using thermophilic ancestral and modern adenylate kinases with matching thermostability, we performed independent *in vivo* and *in vitro* single-round selection experiments for enzyme activity. In both settings, the ancestral enzyme tolerates a larger number of mutations, resulting in more viable and genetically diverse variants than its modern descendants. As mutational robustness drives evolvability, we demonstrate an intrinsic evolvability of reconstructed ancestral sequences that makes them superior starting points for directed evolution endeavors.

Introduction

Ancestral sequence reconstruction (ASR) has emerged as a fundamental approach in understanding the molecular principles of protein evolution[1]. This technique has been essential in illuminating central evolutionary questions spanning proton pumps[2], bacterial carbon fixation[3], evolution of allostery[4], and thermo-adaptation of enzymes[5]. Besides their role in fundamental research, ancestral proteins have accelerated protein engineering efforts in biomedicine and biotechnology[6], including the engineering of biosensors[7], terpene cyclases[8], and dehalogenases[9], among others[10,11]. This impact stems from

49 improved expression levels, often increased (thermo)stability, and substrate promiscuity
50 rendering these ancestrally resurrected proteins into superior scaffolds for enzyme
51 engineering efforts[12,13]. Importantly, these features are hallmarks of highly evolvable
52 sequences[14], leading many to hypothesize that ancestral sequences are more evolvable
53 relative to their modern counterparts[6,12,14–16].

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Ancestors have indeed served as starting points for successful directed evolution (DE)
campaigns and rational protein design endeavors[17–19]. Despite these advantages and
hypotheses, direct experimental evidence comparing the evolvability of ancestral and
extant proteins remains limited[17]. Understanding the molecular basis for enhanced
evolvability is particularly important[20], as protein engineers routinely invest considerable
effort to impart mutational robustness onto less evolvable starting points through
approaches such as extensive library screening[21], neutral drift[22,23], chaperone
overexpression[24], or computational stability enhancement[25,26].

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Given that phenotypic robustness (a capacity to tolerate mutations) is a known driver of
evolvability[27] and that thermostability enhances robustness[28], it has been generally
assumed that the enhanced thermostability often found in ancestrally resurrected proteins
underlies their increased evolvability[13,16,20,21,29–31]. If thermostability is the reason for
better evolvability of ancestral proteins, one could simply use modern thermophilic
proteins as starting points. Here we propose an alternative explanation: Ancestrally
reconstructed sequences display higher evolvability because they are back-calculated
based on only modern variants arising from evolutionary selection of the most evolvable
sequences. The vast majority of sequences went extinct because of their lower
robustness.

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To test our hypothesis, we compared the evolvability of a thermophilic modern adenylate
kinase (Adk) and its thermophilic ancestrally reconstructed counterpart[5] by assessing the
clonal and mutational diversity that emerged after a single round of mutation and
selection. We indeed observed that the ancestral enzyme tolerates a much larger number
of viable variants, which also displays a higher degree of sequence diversity (mutations
per gene) than the modern enzyme. Since both Adks are thermophilic, these results
support our hypothesis that improved evolvability of ancestrally reconstructed sequences
is an inherent property that stems from the evolutionary selection uncovered by ASR
rather than thermostability.

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Results
A weak-link selection platform couples adenylate kinase activity to *E. coli* fitness
We reasoned that, if ancestral Adks were more evolvable than their modern counterparts,
an ancestral Adk would, due to mutational robustness, tolerate a greater depth of clonal
and sequence diversity, effectively resulting in a larger number of viable variants (Fig.
1A). Since *adk* is an essential gene and its activity has been shown to correlate with
organismal fitness[32,33], we used *adk* as a "weak link"[32] for organismal fitness of *E. coli*
strains expressing primordial and modern *adk*s and used their doubling times as a proxy
for Adk activity. To accomplish this, we employed a λ red recombination and
complementation placeholder plasmid (pKOCOMP-*adk*)[34] to knock out genomic Ec*adk*

and rescue Adk activity in *Escherichia coli* BW25113 with thermophilic Adks: namely
ancestor 1 (ANC1) and Adk from *Caldanaerobacter subterraneus* (CsAdk), respectively
(first step in scheme shown in Supplementary Fig. 1). Doubling time measurements
between 10 ºC and 35 ºC showed that below 25 ºC, both strains complemented with
ANC1 or CsAdk on the placeholder plasmid grew more slowly than their parent *E. coli*
strain (Fig. 1B). This slower growth rate parallels their decreased k_{cat} values at these
temperatures when compared to EcAdk (Fig. 1B), highlighting that Adk activity determines
cellular fitness between 10 ºC and 20 ºC. Seeking to verify that this fitness loss originated
from lower Adk activity and not from the process of genetic manipulation, we repeated the
doubling time measurement of an *adk* knockout *E. coli* strain harboring Ec*adk* on the
plasmid. Indeed, the recorded doubling time was within error of WT *E. coli*. Notably, at
25 ºC and above, no significant difference in growth rate is observed, implying that the
speed of Adk (EcAdk: $k_{cat,40 ºC}$: 673.4 s^{-1}, CsAdk: $k_{cat,40 ºC}$: 80.2 s^{-1}, ANC1: $k_{cat,40 ºC}$: 189.1 s^{-1}
^{1}) is no longer the bottleneck (weak link) for growth at these temperatures.
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Emboldened by these results, we set out to produce an "acceptor strain" (AS) which could
be readily transformed with high efficiency, thus being easily rescued by any sufficiently
active *adk* (either a WT plasmid or a plasmid library of *adk* mutants) in a directed evolution
experiment. We produced this AS using the previously created Ec*adk* KO strain
(BW25113 *adk*::Cm [pKOCOMP-Cs*adk*]) which was further transformed with the ancillary
plasmid (pI-SceI). Since the placeholder plasmid we had used for genomic Ec*adk*
knockout encodes CsAdk, the AS can survive on CsAdk activity, until the strain is further
transformed by the desired *adk*. The placeholder could then be removed from the
resulting strain by rapid and conditional self-depletion to ensure that cell survival is solely
dependent on the *adk* of interest, thereby avoiding an advantage of insufficiently active
adks[34]. This comprehensive self-depletion is facilitated by two indispensable features of
the placeholder: a heat-sensitive origin of replication, enabling plasmid curing at 42 ºC,
and a recognition site for the inducible restriction endonuclease, I-*Sce*I, which is encoded
on an auxiliary plasmid pI-SceI (Supplementary Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table 1). To
verify this method, we first transformed the AS with plasmids holding the ancestral or
modern *adks* and confirmed that the doubling times of these "knock-in" strains were
strongly correlated with their corresponding k_{cat} at 20 ºC (Pearson r = -0.87; Fig. 1C).
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Most importantly, this strain engineering allowed selection experiments using libraries of
ancestral and modern Adks. We transformed the AS with libraries of either ANC2 or one
of two modern Adks, *Bacillus subtilis* (BsAdk) and *Geobacillus stearothermophilus*
(GsAdk), then grew the cells at 18 ºC after confirming successful removal of the
placeholder plasmid. The expectation is that (i) only cells expressing active Adk variants
can grow and (ii) higher-activity Adk variants will outcompete slower ones and enrich in
the culture. Sanger sequencing colonies of the selected ANC2 library indeed showed the
greatest population diversity at both 42 ºC and 18 ºC compared to the modern Adks
(Supplementary Fig. 2), indicative of the ancestral sequence being more robust. However,
these first experiments had two limitations. 1) Comparisons were convoluted by
differences in k_{cat} and thermostability (T_m) among parental Adks: GsAdk is thermophilic
but ~8x slower at low temperatures than ANC2, while BsAdk is mesophilic and ~3x slower
than ANC2 (Fig. 1D). These discrepancies likely influenced the relative response to

selective pressures during the necessary 42 ºC placeholder curing and at 18 ºC selection
for BsAdk and GsAdk library strains. 2) Sanger sequencing limited the depth (number of
variants) that we could identify, thereby impeding highly quantitative comparisons of
population diversity. Below we describe how we overcame these two limitations.
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We endeavored to find the most similar ancestor/extant pair with respect to k_{cat} and T_m
values. After extensive search, we identified Adk from *Anoxybacillus flavithermus* (AfAdk)
as the best match to ANC2 with only a 1.8-fold lower k_{cat} and a 9 ºC lower T_m (Fig. 1D).
Sequence differences between the two Adks (72.4% sequence identity) are globally
distributed (Fig. 1E and Supplementary Fig. 3). Notwithstanding those small differences
in k_{cat} and T_m, the ANC2 and AfAdk WT knock-ins unveil similar fitness at 20 ºC, as
demonstrated by their doubling times, which are much greater (slower growth) than those
exhibited at 37 ºC and 42 ºC where Adk activity is no longer rate-limiting for *E. coli* growth
(Fig. 1F). To confirm that both enzymes are poorly adapted to 20 ºC, we used a
discontinuous high-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) assay to measure the
temperature dependence of ANC2 and AfAdk k_{cat} values between 10 ºC and 90 ºC. We
found they have maximal activities at 70 ºC and 60 ºC, respectively, with ANC2 having a
much steeper increase in activity with temperature which is in agreement with other
ancestral Adks[5], but importantly show similar activities at low temperatures (Fig. 1G).
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Long-term survival selection demonstrates enhanced evolvability of ancestral over
modern adenylate kinase
Aiming to assess Adk evolvability more quantitatively, we returned to selection
experiments utilizing error-prone PCR libraries of our newly identified pair, ANC2 and
AfAdk. In addition to baffled culture flasks, we grew both libraries in a turbidostat[35], which
served as a suitable, automated alternative allowing for temperature regulation with
continuous recording and control of optical density at 650 nm (Fig. 2A). Second, we
employed nanopore sequencing adapted from Karst *et al.*[36], to quantitatively compare
population composition of flasks against turbidostat cultures with much higher sequencing
depth than Sanger sequencing (Supplementary Fig. 4 and Supplementary Table 1-3). We
found no differences in the survivable sequences identified from selection experiments
done in flasks versus in the turbidostat (Supplementary Fig. 5). We next performed long-
term selection experiments in the turbidostat, where we could continuously record
doubling times, quantify population diversity via next-generation sequencing, and assess
enzymatic activities of enriched individual Adks (Fig. 2A).
176
To ensure that selection experiment outcomes were not impacted by library diversity, we
sequenced ANC2 and AfAdk libraries and quantified their diversity to be on the order of
10^4 unique sequences. Notably, AfAdk library was slightly more diverse than the ANC2
library (Supplementary Fig. 6). After 8 days of selection AS-ANC2lib exhibited higher
fitness than AS-AfAdklib as judged by doubling times of 180 and 230 min, respectively
(Fig. 2B and Supplementary Fig. 7A; Kolmogorov-Smirnov p = 1.9 x 10^{-31}).
Characterization of population diversity implicated ANC2 as more robust, revealed by a
broader distribution of the number of mutations per *adk* gene at all timepoints and
temperatures (Fig. 2C). Further analysis of the nanopore sequencing revealed that not
only did ANC2 tolerate more mutations per gene than AfAdk, but more importantly AS-

ANC2lib displayed a larger number of viable Adks than AS-AfAdklib during all timepoints
(Fig. 2D-E and Supplementary Fig. 7B-D). The degree of enrichment of highly abundant
Adks mirrors the trajectories of doubling time stabilization by each library strain. The most
substantial changes in variant abundances occurred during an initial ~2-day growth
adaptation, followed by a slow stabilization during the remainder of selection (Fig. 2B, D,
E and Supplementary Fig. 7). Strikingly, after 8 days of selection, AS-ANC2lib contained
813 variants, 807 of which still accounted for ~23% of the population (Fig. 2D and
Supplementary Fig. 7B). In stark contrast, AS-AfAdk population was composed of 293
different variants but dominated by the single mutant AfAdk-V4M (~80%, Fig. 2E and
Supplementary Fig. 7C), despite starting from a 10^4 variant library that was even slightly
larger than for ANC2. Not only was AfAdk-V4M the dominant winner of the AfAdk library
selection at 20 ºC, but it also served as a compensatory mutation for almost all other low-
abundance AfAdk variants in that selection (Fig. 2F). The large discrepancy in population
diversities of ancestral and extant library strains was reproducible between biological
replicates (Supplementary Fig. 8).
202
Catalytic activities of purified variants correlate with enrichment during selection
Overall, we observed that mutations in ANC2 were distributed globally throughout the Adk
structure. Contrarily, position V4 acts as a hotspot in modern Adks based on its
reproducible augmentation in modern library strains (Fig. 3A and Supplementary Fig. 2,
5, and 7). While the sequencing results convincingly exhibited greater robustness of
ANC2 over AfAdk, we asked whether this trend extended to activity as well. To answer
this, we used a colorimetric coupled assay to measure the ADK-catalyzed conversion
from ADP to ATP and AMP of enriched ANC2 and AfAdk variants and determined that
AfAdk-V4M displayed a 1.3-fold increased k_{cat} over WT AfAdk. This small increase in
activity translates into a minute 0.28 kcal/mol difference in activation free energy, which
is challenging to rationalize structurally. A plausible hypothesis is a difference in hinge
dynamics affecting lid opening[37], which has been demonstrated to be the rate-limiting
step[38]. These differences could be the result of alternative hinge 4 packing. In AfAdk-
V4M, residue L72 (part of hinge 4) is now part of the second shell of the mutated residue
4, which resembles the arrangement in the faster ANC2 (judged by AlphaFold 3
prediction; Supplementary Fig. 9). Catalytic improvements within the AS-ANC2lib were
more modest, with E166V exhibiting the greatest activity improvement of 1.1-fold over
WT ANC2 (Fig. 3B, Supplementary Table 4). Despite these slight improvements, the
enrichment of each highly abundant ANC2 variant was strongly correlated with its k_{cat} at
20 ºC (Pearson r = 0.87), confirming our prediction that *E. coli* expressing faster Adks
would outcompete bacteria encoding for slower Adks (Fig. 3C).
224
Regulatory mutations reveal expression-mediated fitness effects during *in vivo*
selection
Interestingly, we discovered that inadvertent mutations (unpreventably introduced during
epPCR library preparation) in the 5′ untranslated region (5′ UTR) were selected for in
ANC2 WT clones during library selection, with a deletion of cytosine 9 in the ribosomal
binding site being most abundant (RBS$^{\Delta C9}$; Fig. 3D and Supplementary Fig. 10A, B, and
H). Closer inspection of the other highly abundant ANC2 sequences revealed that all but
one (ANC2-I4N:M6I) contained other enriched 5′ UTR mutations (Fig. 3E and

Supplementary Fig. 10C-H). Two of those enriched mutants (E166V and E23Q:K79I)
contained the same RBS$^{\Delta C9}$ mutation selected for in WT (Fig. 3E and
Supplementary Fig. 10E-F and H). This enrichment could possibly be caused by an
elevated in-cell Adk concentration, leading to an increase in cellular Adk activity. Indeed,
when we tested in-cell Adk concentration, we found that an ANC2 strain harboring a
mutant RBS$^{\Delta C9}$ in its 5` UTR displayed a higher in-cell ANC2 concentration than its WT
strain and consequently effectuated a faster doubling time (Fig. 3F-G). These results
agree with previous work showing that selective pressure can act on enzyme
concentration rather than function to ensure survival[39–41]. While we note that AS-AfAdklib
WT also possessed two off-target mutations in the promoter, we found that it was
outcompeted by V4M, which did not contain any off-target mutations (Supplementary
Fig. 11).
245
To further rationalize the apparent accumulation of high-abundance variants, we
measured k_{cat} values of low-abundance sequences that were viable but were not enriched
above 2% during selection. On average, these lowly populated Adks had k_{cat} values that
were similar to or lower than WT, with one exception in ancestral (ANC2-G104R: 1.2x WT
activity) and extant (AfAdk-V4M:N142D: 1.2x WT activity) libraries. Furthermore, there
was no detectable relationship between their k_{cat} values and their abundance after 8 days
of selection (Supplementary Fig. 12). Most of these variants did not contain off-target
mutations. We discovered a further complication in the interpretation of the *in vivo*
selection, a high degree of plasmid multimerization in biological samples (Supplementary
Fig. 13). Multimerized plasmids encoded multiple origins of replication, which may allow
for increased Adk expression. Alternatively, recombination of inactive Adks with active
ones on the same plasmid would convolute population diversity.
258
Orthogonal *in vitro* selection corroborates increased evolvability of reconstructed
ancestral adenylate kinase
Despite these additional effects we found in our *in vivo* selection experiments (that are
inherent to such experiments), the data robustly reveal that the ancestral enzyme is more
evolvable than its modern counterpart. Nevertheless, to further buttress this key result,
we sought to employ an orthogonal approach and turned towards traditional *in vitro* DE.
To screen Adk variant activity, we used the coupled assay on lysates of *E. coli* BL21 (DE3)
overexpressing epPCR variants of ANC2 or AfAdk (library diversity: 10^4 and
Supplementary Fig. 14). To test that the coupled assay (which measures production of
ATP) accurately measured ATP production by Adk, we used the addition of the Adk
inhibitor AP5A as baseline and compared the ATP production of this inhibited lysate to
lysate with added $Mg^{2+} \cdot ADP$.
271
The distributions of lysate Adk velocities for BL21-ANC2lib and BL21-AfAdklib (Fig. 4A)
were significantly different (Kolmogorov-Smirnov p = 7.79 x 10^{-6}), with BL21-ANC2lib
generally exhibiting higher activities than BL21-AfAdklib (Kolmogorov-Smirnov p = 3.90 x
10^{-6}). While the mean velocities of these two distributions are similar (BL21-
ANC2lib$_{mean}$ = 0.48, BL21-AfAdklib$_{mean}$ = 0.42), their medians are strikingly different
(BL21-ANC2lib$_{median}$ = 0.34, BL21-AfAdklib$_{median}$ = 0.13), reflective of this shift of BL21-
ANC2lib toward higher activity. As a testament to higher ANC2 robustness, we not only

observed fewer inactive BL21-ANC2lib Adks, but importantly also observed a higher
number of variants with increased activity when compared to BL21-AfAdklib.
Furthermore, BL21-AfAdklib variants exhibited a higher fraction with inactive and near-
WT activities than BL21-ANC2lib.

These starkly different features of ancestral and modern activity profiles mirrored our *in
vivo* findings and are in full agreement with our initial hypothesis that ancestral Adks would
be more evolvable. We consequently expressed and purified variants with the highest
lysate velocities (~1.5-fold improved over WT) to measure k_{cat} values (Fig. 4B, and
Supplementary Tables 5, 6). Intriguingly, we discovered another highly favored mutation
site for AfAdk: residue V204, found as single mutation and in combination with other
mutations (Fig. 4C and Supplementary Fig. 15A). Similarly to our *in vivo* selection
experiments we found that ancestral variants harbored more mutations per gene than
extant ones (Fig. 4C, D and Supplementary Fig. 15A). Overall, we observed very little
perturbation in T_m values of ANC2 and AfAdk variants but did notice that several ANC2
variants displayed slightly improved thermostabilities up to 3 ºC greater than WT in
contrast to only one AfAdk variant with a 1 ºC increase in T_m (Fig. 4E). Taken together,
these results suggest that ANC2 is more robust to varying amino acid changes than
AfAdk.

Similarly to our *in vivo* selection, we could not find evidence that the superior robustness
of ANC2 was accompanied by major catalytic improvements. There was a significant
correlation between k_{cat} and lysate velocity for both libraries (Pearson r_{ANC2} = 0.45,
p_{ANC2} = 0.02; Pearson r_{AfAdk} = 0.73, p_{AfAdk} = 5.46 x 10^{-4}), confirming that lysate activity
generally reports on k_{cat} (Supplementary Fig. 15B). The weaker correlation for ANC2
variants could be rationalized by determining Adk concentrations in screened cell lysates
(using their k_{cat} values) and correlating these with the respective lysate velocities
(Supplementary Fig. 15C). This revealed a moderate, but significant, correlation between
lysate velocity and Adk concentration for ANC2 variants (Pearson r_{ANC2} = 0.55,
p_{ANC2} = 0.002), but not for AfAdk variants (Pearson r_{AfAdk} = 0.39, p_{AfAdk} = 0.11). This
suggests that mutations in ANC2 increased lysate activity in several cases by increasing
cellular concentrations of folded Adk. This interpretation was further supported by
comparing cellular Adk concentrations of ANC2 and AfAdk variants (Fig. 4F) which
revealed a significant difference in their distributions (Kolmogorov-Smirnov p = 0.025),
with the ancestral distribution shifted higher cellular Adk concentration than the modern
distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov p = 0.013). This finding is unsurprising, since our
applied selective pressure acts on total cellular Adk activity, which is the product of the
enzymatic rate and total active enzyme concentration in the cell. Not only does this align
with our *in vivo* selection experiments but is also in agreement with studies from Shamoo
and others that have demonstrated that enzyme concentration is an easily tunable
parameter when adapting to selective pressures on energy metabolism[32,33,41,42].

Discussion
Enzymes are remarkably facile catalysts promising ever-adapting solutions to emerging
fields of technology, such as synthetic biology and biocatalysis. Key to unlocking these
potentials are successful DE campaigns[43]. However, often DE is plagued by premature

optimization plateaus[16]. Thermostability can drastically enhance the evolvability of folded
proteins by providing an elevated degree of mutational robustness to the evolving
protein[28]. Specifically, this is caused by an increased tolerance towards neutral, yet
destabilizing mutations, limiting the detrimental unfolding of the mutated scaffold, thus
aiding the evasion of local fitness maxima, which can entrap evolutionary
trajectories[16,27,44–47]. In consequence, such neutral networks open a larger and more
diverse set of trajectories to traverse the fitness landscape more freely[27]. It has been
proposed that such thermostability-driven robustness underpins the evolvability of
ancestrally reconstructed sequences observed in many successful DE efforts[13,16,20,21,29–
31]. If that were true, one could simply use thermostable modern sequences, which are
more easily accessible than ancestors, as the best DE starting points.
336
Moreover, the proposed causal link between ancestral thermostability and robustness
lacks conclusive experimental evidence. Alcalde *et al.* commented on this question when
they sought to evolve type II RuBisCOs toward higher thermostability, starting from
ancestrally reconstructed and bacterial (modern) starting sequences[17]. They concluded
that ancestral RuBisCO (MRPro) was more tolerant towards mutations than the modern
enzyme RubRr from *Rhodospirillum rubrum*, since a larger number of ancestrally derived
clones were active in their high-throughput lysate screen. It is worth noting, however, that
the data concerning populations and sequence diversity of ancestral and extant starting
libraries were not comprehensively reported. On the other hand, Dickinson *et al.* used a
phage-assisted continuous evolution (PACE) platform to probe the evolution of substrate
specificity in the B-cell lymphoma-2 protein family, using extant and ancestral starting
points, yet reported no observable difference in sequence diversity or evolvability.
However, it is unclear if their Illumina (fragment-based) sequencing approach could
deconvolute potential differences in clonal population diversity[46].
351
Given these conflicting results, we sought to systematically address this question: Is
thermostability the driver of elevated evolvability found in ancestrally reconstructed
sequences? Across two independent *in vivo* and *in vitro* evolution experiments initiated
from thermophilic ancestral and modern Adks, we consistently observed greater
population and sequence diversity for the ancestral Adk. This elevated mutational
robustness is clearly uncoupled from ancestral thermostability. Furthermore, we observed
increased ancestral robustness at 42 °C (Fig. 2D-E), a temperature where Adk activity is
no longer growth rate-limiting (Fig. 1B and F). This accentuates the effect this ancestral
robustness has on the outcome of laboratory evolution.
361
362 Additionally, our ancestral variants selected for *in vitro* exhibited unchanged or even
363 improved thermostability (Fig. 4E). This is generally advantageous for long term evolution
364 (i.e. further rounds of DE), since it allows for accumulation of cryptic mutations. Such
365 mutations invite epistasis, a highly desirable feature, especially when addressing
366 particularly challenging enzyme engineering problems[30,45,47–49].
367
368 Our work speaks to a central question in the field of protein evolution, whether ancestral
369 thermostability and robustness are a bias of ASR stemming from evolutionary model
370 violation and erroneous introduction of consensus mutations[31,50–52] or rather an accurate

reflection of ancient environmental factors[5,53,54]. Given this ongoing debate and our results presented here which uncouple ancestral mutational robustness from thermostability, we propose an alternative framework on evolutionary survivorship: Since modern sequences used for ancestral reconstruction are by definition descendants of surviving sequences, accurate ASR is more likely to infer highly evolvable ancestral sequences. After all, their lineage persisted over evolutionary time, while less fit sequences went extinct. Critically, this does not imply that all ancestral sequences present billions of years ago were highly evolvable, but rather that the lineages we reconstruct by ASR had sufficient evolvability to adapt and survive. Thus, ASR reconstructs the highly evolvable "needle in the haystack" of historically explored sequence space, taking advantage of billions of years of selection. Therefore, the reconstructed sequence with the highest posterior probability was likely not the most probable back in time, but a highly evolvable one.

We acknowledge that our exploratory attempts to understand the phenomenon of ancestral evolvability fall short of gaining mechanistic insights into the biophysical and molecular underpinnings. For that, larger improvements in catalytic rates by many rounds of DE would be necessary, which was not the goal of this work. However, this study can provide a suitable starting point for such mechanistic endeavors, which should further aid the engineering of highly specific and powerful biomolecules.

Our findings and proposed framework highlight the unique place ancestrally reconstructed sequences occupy within the toolkit of DE methodology. Their computational accessibility combined with their enhanced evolvability, which allows for a more thorough exploration of sequence space, make these sequences more promising and economical DE starting points than extant sequences. Furthermore, using ASR as a first-choice approach does not sacrifice the opportunity to employ additional DE strategies, should the posed protein engineering problem prove challenging.

Methods

Data visualization and analysis
Data visualization and statistical analysis were performed using Python (https://www.python.org). Data manipulation and analysis were performed using Pandas, NumPy, and SciPy[55–57]. Matplotlib was used for data visualization[58]. AlphaFold 3 was used to predict the ligand-bound (2ADP, Mg^{2+}, Zn^{2+}) structures of Adks[59]. Crystal structures and AlphaFold 3 models of Adks were visualized with ChimeraX[60].

Construction of error-prone PCR libraries
Error-prone PCR libraries were prepared using the GeneMorph II EZ-Clone Domain Mutagenesis kit (Agilent) following modified manufacturer's instructions, unless stated otherwise. DpnI digest of the EZClone reaction was performed for 2 h at 37 ºC, followed by 16 h at 25 ºC, and was stored at 4-10 ºC until transformation (~4-8 h). To achieve a high mutation rate, 1 ng of plasmid (~ 0.15 ng of target) was amplified (35 cycles) using *adk*-flanking primers (Supplementary Table 1). XL10-Gold Ultracompetent *E. coli* cells (Agilent) were transformed with DpnI-treated library according to the manufacturer's

instructions. 50 μl of the recovered culture were plated on LB agar (50 μg/mL kanamycin
or 100 μg/mL ampicillin for *in vivo* and *in vitro* libraries, respectively). The remaining
volume was used to inoculate a 50 mL culture of LB (respective antibiotics) and was
grown overnight at 37 ºC in a shaking incubator (Infors HT Multitron AJ125) at 220 rpm.
Libraries were miniprepped (Qiagen) in 10X volume. DNA from 10-20 clones was Sanger
sequenced (Azenta) to estimate mutation rate and confirm correct annealing to the parent
plasmid. Libraries were stored at -20 ºC.
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Construction of adk knockout strains
All knockout strains were made in *E. coli* (BW25113) using an adapted protocol from
Billerbeck & Panke (Supplementary. S1)[34]. BW25113 *E. coli* were made chemically
competent with the Hanahan method[61] and transformed with pKOCOMP encoding *adk*
from *Caldanaerobacter subterraneus* (Cs*adk*). Cell cultures were hereafter grown at
30 ºC unless otherwise stated. λ red recombination[62] was induced with 10 mM L-
arabinose, and induced cells were made electrocompetent and electroporated with a
chloramphenicol resistance cassette. Correct incorporation of the cassette was confirmed
by colony PCR using primers flanking the knocked out genomic *Ecadk* gene, and aliquots
of isolated clones from the resultant knockout strain were stored at -80 ºC as 20% (v/v)
glycerol stocks.
436
Cells from a frozen aliquot of the knockout strain were used to inoculate a culture of LB
with Cm + Amp and were made chemically competent[61] for transformation with pI-SceI.
The resultant strain BW25113 *adk::Cm* [pKOCOMP-Cs*adk*; pI-*SceI*] was hereafter
referred to as the "acceptor strain" (AS). Isolated clones from the AS were tested for
temperature and rhamnose sensitivity (for I-SceI induction) before storage as 20% (v/v)
glycerol stocks at -80 ºC.
443
A culture of 50 mL LB media was inoculated with cells from an AS glycerol stock (+ Cm,
Ap & Gm), supplemented with and 1% (w/v) glucose to prevent leaky I-*Sce*I expression.
The culture was grown to an OD_{600} of 0.5-0.6. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at
2,500 rcf for 10-15 min at room temperature, then washed twice in 20 mL of LB (+ Cm &
Gm). The culture was resuspended in 10 mL of LB (+ Cm & Gm) and used to inoculate
new 100 mL cultures of LB (+ Cm & Gm) to an OD_{600} of ~0.05. One culture was also
supplemented with ampicillin to serve as an uninduced control.
451
I-*Sce*I expression was induced by addition of 10 mM rhamnose to + Cm & Gm cultures
when they reached an OD_{600} between 0.1 and 0.15. The induced cultures were grown
until their growth started to slow relative to the uninduced control. Induced cultures were
then chilled on ice for 30-60 min. All following centrifugation steps were performed at 4 ºC
and cells were kept on ice. All solutions for washing were pre-chilled on wet ice. Cells
were pelleted by centrifugation for 10 min at 2,500 rcf and washed twice with 20 mL of
water (per 50 mL of culture). Cells were then resuspended and washed in 1 mL of water,
followed by 1 mL of 10% (v/v) glycerol, then resuspended in 200 μL of 10% (v/v) glycerol
per electroporation (typical OD_{600} ~30).
461

Electroporation was carried out in 2 mm gap cuvettes (Thermo Scientific #5520) pre-chilled on ice and with 500 ng DNA (either a homogeneous sample of WT *adk* or a heterogeneous sample of epPCR library). Cells were electroporated using a BioRad MicroPulser electroporator (EC2 setting) and immediately recovered with 800 µL of SOC media (New England Biolabs #B9020S). Qualitative pKOCOMP cleavage and negative controls were included by electroporating 2 µL of sterile water, each. Cultures were recovered in round-bottom tubes (Greiner Bio-One #187262) at 42 ºC with shaking at 220 rpm for 1.5 h. After recovery, the entire volume was used to inoculate 50 mL of LB (+ Cm, Gm, & glucose) in addition to 50 µg/mL kanamycin (+ Km), except for the pKOCOMP control culture, which was grown in the presence of 100 µg/mL ampicillin (+ Cm, Gm, Ap & glucose). Cultures were grown at 42 ºC with shaking at 220 rpm until reaching log phase. To check for pKOCOMP-positive clones, cultures were split to an OD_{600} of 0.2 into "+/- Ap media" (LB + Cm, Gm, Km, glucose, & +/- Ap). pKOCOMP depletion was deemed successful after a maximum of two splits. Resulting cultures were stored at -80 ºC as 15% (w/v) glycerol stocks. If the pKOCOMP-depleted culture was transformed with a WT *adk* it was plated at 42 ºC, and single clones were isolated and stored at -80 ºC as 15% (w/v) glycerol stocks. If the culture was transformed with an epPCR library, it was immediately used to inoculate a selection experiment.

In vivo selection experiments

In vivo selection experiments were performed in a Chi.Bio turbidostat (LABmaker, Berlin, Germany) with default settings unless otherwise stated[35]. Intrinsic turbidostat temperature control was aided by placing it in a Binder KB 115-UL incubator. All consumables (glass vials, stir bars, tubing, etc.) were purchased according to manufacturer's instructions (https://chi.bio/hardware/). Before use, chamber vials and stir bars were sterilized by autoclaving, and 3-port chamber caps with O-rings were sterilized with 70% (v/v) ethanol. Filled chambers were left to equilibrate to the selection temperature before blank measurements or inoculation. The medium for selection experiments was LB (+ Cm, Gm, Km & glucose) with the addition of 25 µg/mL nystatin as an antifungal. Chambers were inoculated to an OD_{600} of ~0.2 (OD_{650} ~0.35-0.5). Cultures were kept in mid log phase using OD_{650} regulation dithering between OD_{650} of 0.6 and 0.8 (set point 0.7). OD_{650} was measured every minute, and intervals between dilutions were fit to a single exponential using LMFIT[63] to calculate growth rate ($y = y_0 e^{rt}$ where y is OD_{600}, y_0 is initial OD_{600}, r is the growth rate, and t is time), then converted to a doubling time (DT) with the equation $DT = \frac{\ln(2)}{r}$. If the chamber vial was inoculated with a library, the remainder of that inoculation culture was miniprepped (Qiagen) and stored as a "42 ºC", or "pre-turbidostat" timepoint. Samples (6 mL) for genotyping were taken at least once per day and subsequently miniprepped and stored at -20 ºC. For flask experiments, cultures were inoculated to an OD_{600} of 0.2 and maintained at the selection temperature in an incubator (Infors HT Multitron AJ125) with shaking at 220 rpm. Cultures were maintained in log phase (OD_{600} 0.2-0.8) manually.

Nanopore sequencing

Sample preparation and data analysis for nanopore sequencing was adapted from Karst *et al*. using the longread_umi pipeline[36]. All primer sequences are included in

507 Supplementary Table 1. All PCR steps were performed using Invitrogen SuperFi DNA
508 Polymerase (Invitrogen #12351010) and Invitrogen dNTP mix (Invitrogen #18427088).
509
1 ng of DNA was amplified in triplicate in a 50 µL PCR reaction to obtain a linear fragment
starting 86 bp upstream of the promoter and ending 79 bp downstream of the *adk* gene.
Reaction components: 1X SuperFi buffer, 1 mM dNTPs, 100 nM forward primer
(pSFOXB15_ont_for), 100 nM reverse primer (pSFOXB15_ont_rev), 1 ng template DNA,
0.04 units/µL SuperFi Polymerase. PCR protocol: (1) initial denaturation for 30 sec at
98 °C (2) 25 cycles of: (i) 98 °C denaturation for 10 sec, (ii) 54 °C annealing for 30 sec,
(iii) 72 °C extension for 35 sec, (3) 5 min final 72 °C extension, (4) hold 10 °C. All DNA
purification steps were performed with a 0.5X volume ratio of AMPure resin (Beckman
Coulter #A63881). Purified fragments were eluted in 30 µL of nuclease-free water
(Invitrogen #AM9939). DNA concentration was quantified using Invitrogen Quant-iT
dsDNA assay kits (Thermo Scientific #Q33130 and #Q33120), according to
manufacturer's instructions, in opaque fluorescence 96-well plates (Corning 3993) with a
SpectraMax i3x Microplate reader (Molecular Devices) or a BioTek Cytation5 Reader
(Agilent). Next, each fragment was diluted to 50,000 molecules/µL (for timepoints) or
250,000 molecules/µL (for unselected libraries) and barcoded on both ends with unique
molecular identifiers (UMIs) in a 50 µL PCR reaction. Reaction components: 1X SuperFi
buffer, 1 mM dNTPs, 500 nM forward primer (ont_ss_dumi_for), 500 nM reverse primer
(ont_ss_dumi_rev), 50,000-250,000 molecules template DNA, 0.04 units/µL SuperFi
Polymerase. PCR protocol: (1) initial denaturation for 30 sec at 98 °C, (2) 2 cycles of
(i) 98 °C denaturation for 10 sec, (ii) 55 °C annealing for 30 sec, (iii) 72 °C extension for
35 sec, (3) hold at 10 °C. Tagged fragments were purified and eluted in 20 µL of nuclease-
free water. The entire eluate was used as the template in a 100 µL PCR reaction. Reaction
components: 1X SuperFi buffer, 1 mM dNTPs, 250 nM forward primer, 250 nM reverse
primer, 1 ng template DNA, 0.04 units/µL SuperFi Polymerase. PCR protocol: (1) initial
denaturation for 30 sec at 98 °C, (2) 25 cycles of (i) 98 °C denaturation for 10 sec,
(ii) 60 °C annealing for 30 sec, (iii) 72 °C extension for 35 sec, (3) 5 min final 72 °C
extension, (4) hold 10 °C. 2 ng of the purified PCR product was re-amplified via the same
PCR protocol to obtain sufficient yield for long-read sequencing.
538
Custom Sequencing was performed by Plasmidsaurus using Oxford Nanopore
Technology to a target depth of 33X with custom analysis and annotation. The basecalled
fastq files were analyzed using the longread_umi pipeline[36]. The output list of consensus
sequences was filtered for a depth of ≥ 15X and the remaining sequences were aligned
to the WT sequence using MAFFT command line wrapper [64] module in Biopython [65] with
settings auto=True, inputorder=True, jtt=1, tm=2, op=1.53, ep-0.123, quiet=False. This
alignment was used to extract regions from each amplicon (*e.g.,* promoter, 5′ UTR, KSD,
adk, 5′ UTR) for easy comparison. The *adk* region of each variant was then translated
using Biopython and pairwise aligned to the WT sequence for naming variants in the
format w#m (w=WT ID, #=residue number, m=mutation ID). Contaminating Adk
sequences were identified and removed by string comparison using RapidFuzz.[66]
Frequency of each unique Adk variant on the amino acid level was calculated by dividing
the abundance of each variant by the total number of variants.
552

Adk large scale expression

All *adk* overexpression constructs were designed with a C-terminal tobacco etch virus (TEV) protease cleavage/recognition site and octahistidine tag (*adk-TEV-His$_8$*). Sequences were codon optimized for expression in *E. coli*, synthesized, and cloned into pET-17b by GenScript using restriction sites HindIII and KpnI. A pilot culture of LB supplemented with 100 µg/mL ampicillin was inoculated with 1 colony of BL21 (DE3) Competent *E. coli* (New England Biolabs) transformed with pET-17b-*adk-TEV-His$_8$* and grown at 37 ℃ overnight with shaking at 220 rpm. 1-6 L of LB supplemented with 100 µg/mL ampicillin were inoculated with 20 mL/L of pilot culture and grown at 37 ℃ with shaking at 220 rpm until an OD_{600} of 0.6-0.8 at which point *adk-TEV-His$_8$* expression was induced with 1 mM isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) for 4 h at 37 ℃. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4,000 rpm for 15-20 min in a JLA-8.1000 rotor (Beckman Coulter) and stored at -20 ℃ until purification.

Adk 96-well plate expression

BL21 (DE3) Competent *E. coli* (New England Biolabs) were transformed with 50 ng of pET-17b epPCR library according to manufacturer's instructions. Alongside the libraries, two additional BL21 aliquots were transformed with 50 ng of pET-17b encoding WT *adk-TEV-His$_8$* or a catalytically inactive variant, *adkR88K-TEV-His$_8$*. 10-50 µL of recovered transformation were plated on LB agar plates (100 µg/mL ampicillin) to obtain well-isolated colonies. All cell growth was done in Thermo Scientific™ Nunc™ Edge™ 96-well, nunclon delta-treated flat-bottomed microplates (Thermo Scientific #167542) with 200 µL of LB supplemented with 100 µg/mL ampicillin. Wells were covered with CELLTREAT breathable sealing film and incubated in a MB-100 thermo-shaker. A pilot culture 96-well plate was inoculated with 1 colony per well (84 library variants, 6 WT, and 6 R88K) with controls distributed randomly across each plate. The pilot plate was grown overnight at 37 ℃ with shaking at 600 rpm. The next day, an expression plate was inoculated with 5 µL of pilot culture. Remaining pilot cultures were preserved as ~10% (v/v) glycerol stocks at -80 ℃. The expression plate was grown at 37 ℃ with shaking at 600 rpm until the average plate OD_{600} reached 0.8. All OD_{600} measurements were performed using a BioTek Cytation5 Reader (Agilent). Expression was induced in every well with 1 mM isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) for 4 h at 37 ℃. OD_{600} of 5-fold diluted wells was measured to correct for cell content during data analysis. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 1,500 rcf for 10-15 min and stored at -20 ℃.

Purification of Adk large-scale expressions

All purification steps took place at 4 ℃. Cell pellets from *adk-TEV-His$_8$* overexpression were resuspended in ~20 mL of lysis buffer per gram of cell pellet. Lysis buffer was Buffer A (50 mM Tris, 300 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, pH 7.5) supplemented with 1X Halt Protease inhibitor cocktail, deoxyribonuclease, and lysozyme. Resuspended cells were lysed by sonication for 10 min (20 sec on, 40 sec off, power output ≤ 40 W) and cleared by centrifugation in a JA-20 rotor (Beckman Coulter) pre-chilled to 4 ℃ at 18,000 rpm for 30-45 min.

The His-tagged Adk was purified via nickel-affinity chromatography on an Äkta Start. Lysate was loaded at 1-2 mL/minute on a HisTrap column (Cytiva) pre-equilibrated in

Buffer A and the column was washed with Buffer A until the UV (280 nm) baselined.
Subsequent wash steps were performed at 4 mL/min. To remove bound nucleotides, the
column was washed with 10 column volumes (CV) of Buffer B (50 mM Tris, 1 M NaCl,
2.5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, pH 7.5). Nonspecifically bound contaminants were removed
by washing with 5-10 CV of Buffer C (50 mM Tris, 300 mM NaCl, 25 mM imidazole,
2.5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, pH 7.5). His-tagged Adk was eluted with Buffer D (50 mM
Tris, 300 mM NaCl, 500 mM imidazole, 2.5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, pH 7.5). His-tagged
TEV protease[67] was added to the eluate in a 1:30 TEV:total protein ratio and the sample
was dialyzed overnight against 2 L of Buffer A per 30 mL of eluate in a 10 kDa MWCO
Slide-A-Lyzer G2 dialysis cassette (Thermo Scientific).

The dialysate was filtered through a Whatman 0.2 µm PES membrane and loaded back
onto the HisTrap column to separate cleaved Adk from the tag and TEV protease.
Cleaved Adk was collected in the flow-through. Purity of Adk fractions and confirmation
of successful tag cleavage by TEV protease was assessed by SDS PAGE. Adk was
further purified via gel filtration on a Superdex S75 pg 16/60 or 16/600 (Cytiva) connected
to an Äkta Pure and equilibrated in Buffer E (40 mM MOPS, 50 mM NaCl, 2 mM TCEP,
pH 7.0). Purified fractions containing Adk were combined and concentrated, if necessary,
in an Amicon Ultra-15 10 kDa MWCO centrifugal filter to a concentration < 1 mM.
Samples were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 ºC.

Batch purification of Adk small-scale expressions
Cell pellets from 1 L *adk-TEV-His$_8$* expressions were resuspended in 20 mL of Buffer A
(40 mM MOPS, 300 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, pH 7) supplemented with 1X
Halt protease inhibitor cocktail, deoxyribonuclease, and lysozyme. Resuspended cells
were lysed by sonication using a microtip for 2 min (20 sec on, 40 sec off, power output
≤ 21 W). Lysate was cleared by centrifugation in a JA-14.5 rotor (Beckman Coulter) pre-
chilled to 4 ºC for 1 h at 8,000 rpm. His-tagged Adk was purified in batch by cobalt affinity.
Cleared lysate was filtered directly onto 5 mL of TALON affinity resin (Takara Bio) pre-
equilibrated in Buffer A, then incubated for 1 h with gentle agitation at 80 rpm in a shaking
incubator (Infors HT Multitron AJ125) at 15 ºC or on a rotating platform at room
temperature.

All centrifugation steps were performed for 5-10 min at 3,000 rcf and 10 ºC. After
decanting the supernatant, the resin was washed in > 10 CV of Buffer B (40 mM MOPS,
1 M NaCl, 2.5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, pH 7.0) to remove bound nucleotides.
Nonspecifically bound proteins were washed with > 10 CV of Buffer C (40 mM MOPS,
300 mM NaCl, 5 mM imidazole, 2.5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, pH 7.0). The resin was
washed then with > 10 CV of Buffer A to remove all imidazole, resuspended in 1 mL of
Buffer A, and an on-resin tag cleavage was initiated by adding 300 µg of His-tagged TEV
protease[67]. Cleavage proceeded at 4 ºC overnight with gentle agitation on a rotating
platform.

Cleavage and purity were assessed via SDS-PAGE. Samples were always ≥ 95% pure
(data not shown). The samples were then filtered with a Whatman 0.2 µm PES membrane
to remove residual resin and slowly mixed with a concentrated stock of TCEP (250-

500 mM) in Buffer A to preserve reducing agent in the samples. The samples were
concentrated in Amicon Ultra-0.5 10 kDa MWCO centrifugal filters (Millipore Sigma) to
concentrations ranging from 200-500 μM. Precipitated debris was removed by
centrifuging each sample at 10 ºC for 10 min at 14,000 rcf and transferring the
supernatant into a new tube. Batch-purified Adks occasionally had high 260/280 values
when measured by NanoDrop (Thermo Scientific NanoDrop One Microvolume UV-Vis
Spectrophotometer or NanoDrop 2000c), thereby making A_{280} readings inaccurate, so a
Bradford assay (Thermo Scientific #A55866) was used to quantify protein concentration
for these samples. The purified samples were then assayed immediately, after which they
were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 ºC.

655
Coupled assay of purified Adk
Enzymatic activity of Adks was measured in triplicate using a spectroscopic assay
coupled to the reduction of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate ($NADP^+$ to
NADPH). NADPH formation was measured at 340 nm using either a SpectraMax i3x
Microplate Reader (Molecular Devices) or a BioTek Cytation5 Reader (Agilent). Assay
buffer was 40 mM MOPS, 80 mM KCl, pH 7.0. Assays were performed in a 100 μL volume
containing 10 units of hexokinase from yeast (Millipore Sigma), 10 units of glucose-6-
phosphate dehydrogenase from *Leuconostoc mesenteroides* (Fisher Scientific), 0.5 mM
$NADP^+$, 5 mM glucose, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 5 mM adenosine diphosphate (ADP), 0.3 mg/mL
bovine serum albumin (BSA), and 1-5 nM Adk in assay buffer. A master mix containing
assay buffer, hexokinase, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase, $NADP^+$, and BSA was
incubated in a covered microplate (Corning 3994) at the assay temperature for ≥ 15 min.
After incubation, glucose and then Mg^{2+}•ADP were added to each well. All reagents were
also incubated at the assay temperature for ≥ 15 min. Between addition of each reagent
there was an additional incubation period of 5 min, during which a baseline A_{340}
measurement was recorded. The reaction was initiated with Adk and measured for
30 min. Background reactions were "initiated" with buffer instead of Adk and subtracted
from + Adk data. The linear portion of each reaction was used to calculate a slope of
NADPH formation vs. time using the correction coefficient 0.0032 or 0.0031 $\mu M^{-1} cm^{-1}$ for
the SpectraMax and Cytation5 plate readers, respectively, and divided by Adk
concentration to calculate a k_{cat}.

677
Coupled assay of acceptor strain expressing Adk variants
Triplicate samples containing 5×10^7 cells were pelleted by centrifugation for 5 min at
5,000 rcf (4 ºC). Pellets were resuspended in 1 mL of assay buffer and sonicated for
20 sec using a microtip (10 sec on, 20 sec off, power output ≤ 15 W) then cleared by
centrifugation at 4 ºC for 30 min at 16,900 rcf. 40 μL of lysate per reaction was used in
the assay. The coupled assay was performed similarly as to what was described for
purified Adks, but with 1 mM $NADP^+$, and lysate was incubated with the master mix and
so the reaction was initiated by addition of Mg^{2+}•ADP. 500 μM of the Adk inhibitor P^1,P^5-
Di(adenosine-5′) pentaphosphate (Ap5A) was also included for lysates as a negative
control for basal lysate activity. The linear portion of each reaction was used to calculate
a slope of NADPH formation vs. time using the correction coefficient 0.0032 or 0.0031 $\mu M^{-1} cm^{-1}$
for the SpectraMax and Cytation5 plate readers, respectively, and background-
corrected slopes were divided by the k_{cat} to calculate in-cell Adk concentration.

691
Coupled assay for *in vitro* lysate screen
693 To prepare *in vitro* lysates, each sample was resuspended in 40 µL of 1X BugBuster
694 (Millipore Sigma) diluted in assay buffer and incubated at room temperature with shaking
695 in a MB-100 thermo-shaker at 600 rpm for 1 h. The lysate was cleared by centrifugation
696 at 1,500 rcf (4 ºC) for 10-15 min and 10 µL of 1/4,900-fold diluted lysate was used in
697 activity assays.
698
The coupled assay was performed similarly as to what was described for purified Adks,
but with 1 mM $NADP^+$, and lysate was incubated with the master mix and so the reaction
was initiated by addition of Mg^{2+}•ADP. Wells expressing the catalytically dead R88K
variant were used as negative controls for basal lysate activity. The linear portion of each
reaction was used to calculate a slope of NADPH formation vs. time using the correction
coefficient 0.0032 or 0.0031 $µM^{-1}cm^{-1}$ for the SpectraMax and Cytation5 plate readers,
respectively, and background-corrected slopes were divided by the final measured OD_{600}
to correct for cell content per well. All velocities were normalized to WT activity. Only wells
that were induced at OD_{600} between 0.2-1 were analyzed to reduce false negatives from
variants that did not express well due to being induced at an OD_{600} that was too low or
too high. For wells that were genotyped, Adk concentrations were calculated by dividing
the velocities by k_{cat}.
711
Discontinuous HPLC assay
High-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) assays to assess activity-temperature
profiles were performed from 10-90 ºC (10 ºC increments). Adk was pre-incubated for
15 min at target temperature before reaction initiation with 5 mM Mg^{2+}•ADP. Between 10-
40 ºC, 10 nM and 20 nM of ANC2 and AfAdk, respectively, were used and between 50-
90 ºC 5 nM and 10 nM of ANC2 and AfAdk, respectively. 10 µL timepoints (20, 40, 60, 90,
and 120 s) at each temperature were collected and quenched with 10% (v/v) TCA (10 µL)
and cleared by centrifuging in a Spin-X centrifugal tube filter (Costar #8160) for 10 min at
5,000 rpm. The pH was neutralized by addition of 20 µL of 1.5 mM HEPES, pH 8.0.
Samples were stored at -20 ºC until analysis.
722
Nucleotide amounts in each sample were analyzed using an HPLC system (Agilent
Infinity 1260) with an analytical HPLC column (ACE; EXL-129-2502U, i.d. 2.1 mm, length
250 mm, C18-AR, 5 Å pore size). Isocratic elution with a 100 mM potassium phosphate,
pH 6.0 mobile phase was used for nucleotide separation. ATP, ADP, and AMP were
individually integrated (ChemStation) and their ratios were used to calculate nominal
concentration considering a total of 5 mM of nucleotides. The reaction velocity at each
temperature was determined by linear regression (Prism 10.1.1 GraphPad Software) of
ATP production over time and k_{cat} was calculated by dividing velocity by enzyme
concentration. Depicted errors are the propagated standard error of the slope obtained
from linear regression. Control experiments using only buffer or Mg^{2+}•ADP were
performed to examine residual contaminants.
734
735 **Determination of melting temperatures**

Melting temperatures were determined using a thermal shift assay conducted in a QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) according to manufacturer's instructions. 5-20 µM of Adk was combined with 5X SYPRO Orange (Invitrogen #S6650) in assay buffer (20 µL total volume) in a MicroAmp Optical 96-well reaction plate (Applied Biosystems #N8010560). Melt curves were generated by measuring fluorescence intensity from 20-95 ºC. The inflection point of the melting curve was used to determine the melting temperature.

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Data Availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding
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Therapeutics. H. L. and D.K. are listed as inventors on Patent PCT/US2025/021803

WO2025207918A1 related to the methods described in this manuscript. The remaining authors declare no competing interests.

Author contributions:
M.P., H.L., C.W., D.R.W., C.K., D.L.T., and D.K. contributed to the design and conceptualization of the project. M.P., H.L., C.W., D.R.W., and C.K. made knockout and WT knock-in cell strains. M.P., H.L., D.R.W., C.K., and J.I. measured WT acceptor strain doubling times. M.P. made error-prone PCR libraries. M.P. and H.L. performed *in vivo* experiments. M.P. prepared and analyzed all nanopore sequencing data. M.P. performed *in vitro* selection experiments. M.P., H.L., C.K., and A.U. expressed, purified, and measured enzymatic activity and thermostability WT and variant Adks. M.P., H.L., C.K., and A.U. expressed, purified, and measured enzymatic activity and thermostability WT and variant Adks. H.L. performed the HPLC assay of Adks. M.P., H.L., and D.K. wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

Fig. 1: ANC2 and AfAdk are the most comparable ancestral/extant pair for *in vivo* directed evolution at low temperature. A Collapsed phylogenetic tree taken from Nguyen *et al.* (2017)[5] is shown annotated with ancestral and modern Adks used in this study (Ancestor 1: ANC1, Ancestor 2: ANC2, *Caldanaerobacter subterraneus*: CsAdk, *Anoxybacillus flavithermus*: AfAdk, *Geobacillus stearothermophilus*: GsAdk, *Bacillus subtilis*: BsAdk). The hypothesized relationship between evolvability and robustness is illustrated. **B** Doubling times of *Escherichia coli* Adk (EcAdk) knockout *E. coli* BW25113 strains supplemented with indicated Adk variants on a placeholder plasmid at different temperatures. **C** Doubling times at 20 °C of knockout strains rescued with different *adks* strongly correlate with the k_{cat} of the rescue Adk (Pearson r = -0.87) indicating that Adk activity is rate-limiting for *E. coli* growth. **D** k_{cat} of Adk-catalyzed ATP production from 5 mM Mg^{2+}•2ADP measured at 20 °C, via coupled assay (mean ± s.d. of n ≥ 3 replicates) and respective melting temperature T_m (indicated above the bar) show ANC2 and AfAdk as closest-matching ancestor-extant pair. **E** AlphaFold 3 prediction of AfAdk (cartoon) bound to Mg^{2+}•ADP colored by the sequence conservation score of Adks found in the phylogenetic tree. Sequence differences between AfAdk and ANC2 are displayed as blue spheres (sequence ID 72.4%). Mg^{2+} (slate) and Zn^{2+} (light blue) are depicted as small spheres and ADP (black) as black sticks. **F** Temperature dependence of doubling times of the acceptor strain (AS; mean ± s.e. of n ≥ 3 replicates) rescued with WT ANC2 or AfAdk at different temperatures (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, $p_{20°C}$ = 0.03, $p_{37°C}$ = 0.001, $p_{42°C}$ = 0.8; *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, n.s.: not significant). **G** k_{cat} of ATP production from Mg^{2+}•2ADP at different temperatures measured via high-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC). All k_{cat} values are the average of n ≥ 3 replicate measurements ± s.e.

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Fig. 2: ANC2 is more robust to mutation than AfAdk at 20 ºC *in vivo*. A Scheme of
the experimental setup for *in vivo* selection of acceptor strains rescued with ancestral or
modern epPCR libraries, ensuring continuous bacterial growth in log phase and
continuous doubling time measurement using the Chi.Bio turbidostat[35]. Readouts for
robustness are the number of viable variants, and two methods used to measure k_{cat} for
winners are shown. **B** Doubling times of AS-ANC2lib and AS-AfAdklib strains throughout
8 days of selection at 20 ºC in turbidostat, revealing a significantly faster growth of the
ancestral libraries than modern libraries (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, p = 1.9 x 10⁻³¹), with
an initial 2-day adaptation phase. **C** Histograms display significantly larger genetic
diversity (mutations/gene) in ancestors than moderns before (at 42 ºC) and after 8 days
of selection at 20 ºC (Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests: p_{ANC2} = 1.04 x 10⁻⁵, p_{AfAdk} = 7.04 x 10⁻
¹⁶, $p_{ANC2,AfAdk,42ºC}$ = 2.11 x 10⁻³⁸, $p_{ANC2,AfAdk,day8}$ = 5.62 x 10⁻¹⁵; ****: p < 0.001; MAD = mean
absolute deviation around the median). **D-E** Throughout selection, ancestral bacterial
populations are more diverse than extant ones, as measured by nanopore sequencing of

AS-ANC2lib and AS-AfAdklib timepoints at 42 ºC and subsequent timepoints of 20 ºC selection. Numbers on top identify the total number of variants detected. **F** Sequence logo of low-abundance AS-AfAdklib variants at residues 3-5. Populations in (**D**) and (**E**) are represented as mean ± s.d. of n = 3 replicates and the average number of unique amino acid variants is indicated above each bar. Data for each replicate are provided in Supplementary Tables 2 and 3.

Fig. 3: Selection *in vivo* acts on Adk activity and expression levels. A Mutations for
each highly abundant variant after 8 days of selection are plotted onto AlphaFold 3
predictions (as colored spheres) of ANC2 or AfAdk (grey cartoon, depicted as in **Fig. 1E**).
B k_{cat} of Adk-catalyzed ATP production from 5 mM $Mg^{2+}\cdot 2ADP$ by ANC2 and AfAdk
variants enriched by selection measured via coupled assay (20 ºC, mean ± s.d. of n ≥ 3
replicates, Supplementary Table 4) and melting temperature (T_m; above bar). **C** Relative
abundance of each highly abundant ANC2 variant after 8 days of selection at 20 ºC plotted
against its k_{cat} (Pearson r = 0.87) indeed shows enrichment of the fastest variants after
selection. **D-E** Mutations in the 5′ UTR (5′ untranslated region) in regions 277-353 and
the ribosomal binding site (RBS) are enriched in both the WT (**D**) and 3 of the 4 highly
abundant ANC2 variants (**E**). Parent = wild-type vector sequence). Populations are
represented as mean ± s.d. of n = 3 replicates. **F** A mutant ANC2 strain harboring the

1049 most common RBS variant, RBS$^{\Delta C9}$ (RBS numbering, see Supplementary Fig. 10H),
1050 grows faster at 20 ºC than the ANC2 WT strain (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: $p = 0.03$, *: p
1051 < 0.05). **G** In-cell ANC2 concentration was determined in WT and RBS$^{\Delta C9}$ ANC2 strains
1052 (grown at 30 ºC) by measuring ATP production in lysate via coupled assay at 20 ºC (mean
1053 ± s.d. of $n = 3$; see Methods).

Fig. 4: ANC2 is more robust to mutation than AfAdk in *in vitro* screening. A Histograms of lysate Adk activity (ATP production, coupled assay at 20 ºC) show a significantly different ancestral distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: $p = 7.79 \times 10^{-6}$), with ANC2 lysates generally being more active than AfAdk lysates (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: $p = 3.90 \times 10^{-6}$), reflecting an increased mutational robustness in ANC2 over AfAdk ($\text{ANC2}_{mean} = 0.48$, $\text{ANC2}_{median} = 0.34$, $\text{AfAdk}_{mean} = 0.42$, $\text{AfAdk}_{median} = 0.13$). **B** Catalytic rates of ATP production by highly active Adk variants measured at 20 ºC, via coupled assay (mean ± s.d. of n ≥ 2 replicates). **C** Mutations for each assayed variant are plotted using the same color as in B onto AlphaFold 3 predictions of ANC2 or AfAdk (grey cartoon, depicted as in **Fig. 1E**, mutations are labeled in Supplementary Fig. 15A). Mutations that appear in more than one variant are colored as black spheres. **D-E** k_{cat} of assayed variants at 20 ºC plotted against number of mutations per gene (**D**) and T_m (**E**) for ANC2 and AfAdk variants. **F** Histogram showing that cellular Adk concentrations of assayed

1109   variants are significantly different (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: $p = 0.025$), with ANC2
1110   expression levels being generally higher (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: $p = 0.013$; MAD =
1111   mean absolute deviation around the median, ****: $p < 0.001$).