

1 **Layered and multi-input autonomous dynamic control strategies for**  
2 **metabolic engineering**

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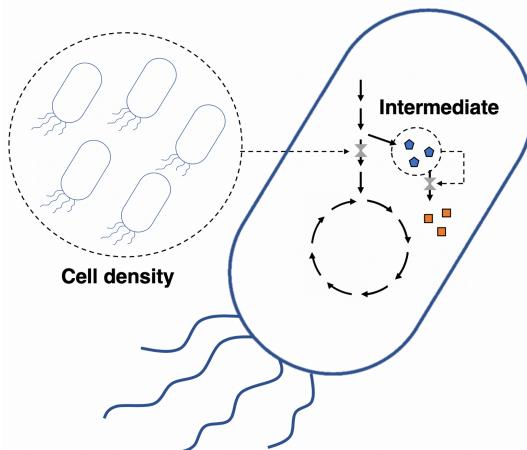
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12 **Abstract**

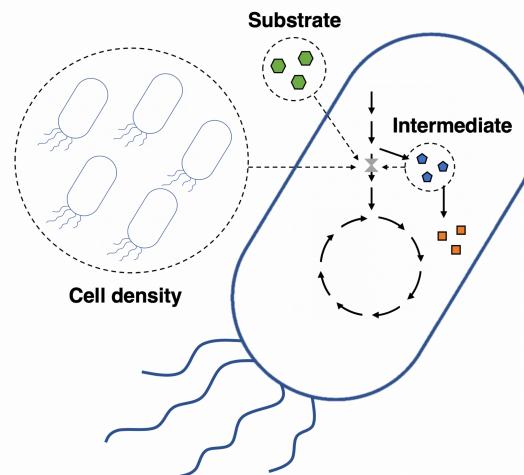
13  
14 Metabolic engineering seeks to reprogram cells to efficiently produce value-added chemicals.  
15 Traditionally, this is achieved by overexpressing the production pathway and/or knocking out  
16 competing endogenous pathways. However, limitations in some pathways are more effectively  
17 addressed through dynamic metabolic flux control to favor different cellular objectives over the  
18 course of the fermentation. Dynamic control circuits can autonomously actuate changes in  
19 metabolic fluxes in response to changing fermentation conditions, cell density, or metabolite  
20 concentrations. In this review, we discuss recent studies focused on multiplexed autonomous  
21 strategies which (1) combine regulatory circuits to control metabolic fluxes at multiple nodes or  
22 (2) respond to more than one input signal. These strategies have the potential to address  
23 challenging pathway scenarios, actuate more complex response profiles, and improve the  
24 specificity in the criteria that actuate the dynamic response.

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**Layered control**



**Multi-input control**



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32 **Highlights**

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34     • Autonomous dynamic control circuits have been developed to balance trade-offs in  
35        microbial synthesis systems in a cost-effective manner.

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37     • Significant improvements in production have resulted from implementing layered  
38        autonomous control strategies that regulate metabolic fluxes at multiple nodes.

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40     • Synthetic biology tools have enabled the construction of multi-input control circuits which  
41        result in more favorable regulation dynamics in some production contexts.

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46 **Introduction**

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48 Metabolic engineering seeks to take advantage of cellular machinery to produce value-added  
49 compounds [1], which can vary widely from biofuels [2,3] to pharmaceuticals [4,5]. Typically,  
50 improvements in the production pathway are realized by increasing pathway enzyme levels and/or  
51 down-regulating competing endogenous pathways [6,7]. However, some pathways are subject to  
52 challenges that are better addressed through dynamically regulating metabolic fluxes [8,9]. For  
53 example, down-regulating essential endogenous pathways may result in poor growth, which can  
54 be restored by delaying pathway down-regulation until there is sufficient biomass accumulation  
55 [10]. This idea of beginning a fermentation with a growth phase before transitioning to a  
56 production phase has been shown to improve production in a number of different pathway contexts  
57 [11–14].

58

59 Transitioning from growth to production phase requires a shift in metabolic fluxes, which typically  
60 results from a change in enzyme levels. Enzyme levels can be regulated using engineered gene  
61 circuits that control transcription, translation, or enzyme degradation rates. This review is focused  
62 on transcriptional control circuits that employ repressor or activator proteins that bind or release  
63 from a promoter sequence in the presence of a small molecule. Until recently, regulation of enzyme  
64 levels was most frequently controlled through circuits responding to exogenous chemical inducers  
65 such as isopropyl- $\beta$ -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG), anhydrotetracycline (aTc), or L-arabinose  
66 [15,16]. While feasible in academic settings, these strategies are not practical in many industrial  
67 processes due to the high cost of inducer molecules. With the goal of developing more industrially  
68 feasible methods of dynamic control, recent studies in this field have explored autonomous control  
69 systems. Instead of responding to an exogenous signal, autonomous control circuits respond to a  
70 stimulus that results from cell metabolism such as substrate depletion [3], pathway precursor or  
71 product generation [3,17–20], or increased cell-density [13,14,21–23]. Application of these  
72 circuits to regulating metabolic fluxes has resulted in significant improvements in a number of  
73 products including glucaric acid [13,18], lycopene [24], and amorphadiene [25].

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75 With the rapid development of synthetic biology tools, it is possible to design, construct, and  
76 characterize more complex control circuits. This has led to a recent focus on (1) “layered”

77 autonomous strategies capable of controlling more than one metabolic flux node [18,22,26] and  
78 (2) “multi-input” autonomous strategies which sense multiple stimuli to influence one metabolic  
79 flux node [27–29]. For single-input autonomous control systems that regulate flux at one metabolic  
80 node, we suggest the excellent reviews by Xu, Shen, Lalwani, and Tan [30–33]. This review will  
81 be focused on more recent studies on layered and multi-input strategies.

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#### 84 **Layered control methods**

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86 Some pathways are subject to limitations at two or more metabolic nodes that can be addressed  
87 through implementing dynamic control. Figure 1A illustrates an example regulation scheme that  
88 uses one regulation module to delay production of an intermediate and a second to increase  
89 availability of an endogenous precursor. In this context, controlling both metabolic nodes may  
90 improve production over a system that only addresses one. To implement this regulation scheme,  
91 recent studies have developed autonomous bifunctional control circuits [18,22,26]. These systems  
92 achieve dual regulation, either by employing one control circuit that regulates expression of  
93 multiple genes, or by employing two control circuits each of which is responsible for regulating  
94 one metabolic node. This section presents three illustrative examples of recent work on layered  
95 dynamic control, highlighting the differences in tunability that result from the module choices.  
96 Studies by Dahl [25], Zhang [17], and Xu [3] are excellent studies that controlled multiple  
97 metabolic fluxes or employed two sensor variants, but will not be discussed here (Table 1).

98

99 When one control circuit is used to regulate metabolic fluxes at both metabolic nodes, the  
100 switching dynamics of these nodes are fully coupled. That is, both regulation modules switch at  
101 the same time. Figure 1C shows that whether Circuit A, B, or C is used to control both reactions,  
102 there are significant areas of the switching time search space that cannot be explored. While this  
103 can be limiting for cases for which production is highly sensitive to the switching time of both  
104 regulated reactions, Yang et al. [26], Soma and Hanai [14], and Williams et al. [23] showed that  
105 this regulation scheme is well-suited to overcoming challenges in certain pathways (Table 1). For  
106 example, Yang et al. aimed to improve muconic acid production by employing a regulation system  
107 that would allow the cells to adapt to the fermentation environment before gradually turning ON

108 the first two steps of the muconic acid pathway and turning OFF carbon flux towards the TCA  
109 cycle. To actuate the switch from the adaptation phase to the production phase, a sensor was  
110 derived from the natural muconic acid response machinery in *Pseudomonas putida*. This sensor  
111 contains a regulatory protein, CatR, which binds to the P<sub>MA</sub> muconic acid-responsive promoter.  
112 CatR underdoes a conformational change in the presence of muconic acid to allow transcription  
113 from the P<sub>MA</sub> promoter [34]. This circuit was used to control expression of the first two pathway  
114 genes [35], along with anti-sense RNA to down-regulate *ppc* expression to achieve a muconic acid  
115 titer of 1.8 g/L, a substantial improvement compared to static and both single-layer controls.

116

117 In some pathway contexts, production is highly dependent on the switching time of both regulation  
118 modules. These situations benefit from regulation schemes that employ orthogonal circuits to  
119 control each module, increasing the accessible area of the switching time search space from a line  
120 to a rectangle (Figure 1E). While implementation of this control scheme adds complexity by  
121 requiring additional regulatory elements, Doong et al. demonstrated the importance of accessing  
122 an expanded search space in achieving efficient production of glucaric acid from glucose [18]. The  
123 first regulation module of this system increased the availability of glucose-6-phosphate for the  
124 production pathway by down-regulating *pfk* expression using a quorum-sensing (QS) circuit [13].  
125 The second module used a biosensor to express the pathway gene, *MIOX*, only in the presence of  
126 its substrate to address enzyme instability (E Shiue, PhD thesis, Massachusetts Institute of  
127 Technology, 2014). The switching dynamics of both modules were tuned by varying the  
128 expression level of key circuit components – the AHL synthase for the QS circuit and the regulator  
129 protein for the biosensor. A combinatorial screen through the switching dynamics of both modules  
130 showed that the switching dynamics of both circuits were key parameters that drastically influence  
131 glucaric acid titers. Implementation of only the *pfk* control layer results a greater than four-fold  
132 titer increase and addition of the *MIOX* control layer led to an additional two-fold increase.

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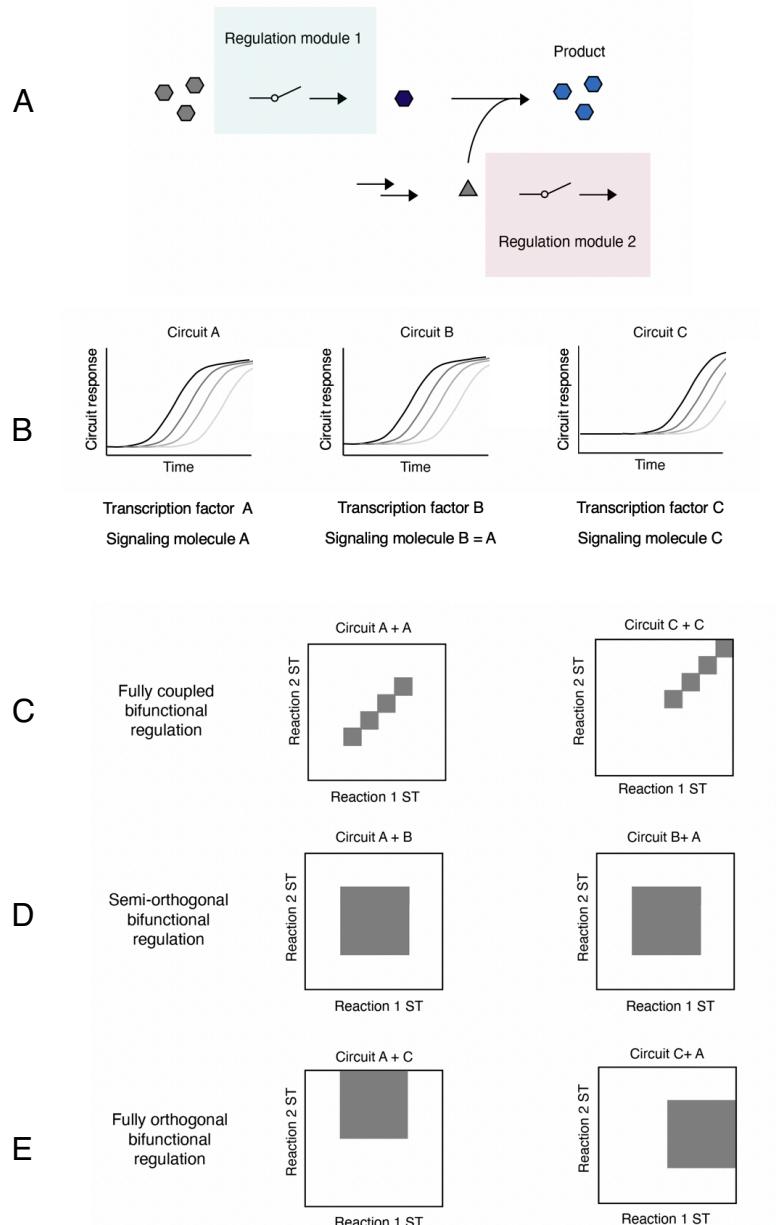
134 A third category of bifunctional regulation circuits combines features from the fully coupled and  
135 fully orthogonal strategies (Figure 1D). An example of this strategy was developed in a study that  
136 constructed a bifunctional circuit composed of the *lux* and *esa* QS circuits that respond to the same  
137 *N*-acyl homoserine lactone (AHL), but contain different transcription factors [22]. Under this  
138 regulation scheme, changing the expression level of the AHL synthase results in a change in the

139 switching dynamics of both modules, while independent tuning of the *lux* circuit can be achieved  
140 by varying the expression level of the *lux* regulator protein that only impacts its cognate promoter.  
141 This regulation system was implemented to improve production in the naringenin and salicylic  
142 acid pathways. In both applications, the *lux* module controlled expression of CRISPRi components  
143 to dynamically down-regulate endogenous pathways that compete for availability of a production  
144 pathway precursor [36] and the *esa* module was used to delay expression of heterologous pathway  
145 genes to overcome enzyme inhibition [37,38] and product toxicity in the naringenin and salicylic  
146 acid pathways, respectively. Implementation of one and two layers of dynamic regulation in the  
147 naringenin pathway resulted in an 8-fold and 16-fold titer increase compared to the static system,  
148 respectively, and dual-regulation in the salicylic acid pathway resulted in a 2-fold increase over  
149 the static case. In both pathway contexts, product titers were highly dependent on the switching  
150 time of both modules, confirming the importance of tunability in some contexts.

151

152 These early applications of layered dynamic regulation have shown that control of two or more  
153 metabolic fluxes can result in significant production improvements by addressing two pathway  
154 limitations. These studies show three approaches for bifunctional regulation which primarily differ  
155 in the extent to which the two regulation modes are coupled. Fully- or semi-orthogonal control  
156 schemes are necessary for achieving the optimal production in some pathways, but since there is  
157 a trade-off between simplicity and tunability, the combination of modules should be chosen to suit  
158 the application.

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160

161 **Figure 1.** Illustration of layered control methods. **(A)** Example of a regulation scheme that employs layered dynamic  
 162 control. The first regulation module (green box) controls flux through the production pathway to delay intermediate  
 163 and product formation. The second regulation module (red box) regulates consumption of a pathway precursor  
 164 (triangle) by endogenous pathways. **(B)** Response curves for three different circuits – A, B, and C. In each circuit, the  
 165 response curve shifts based on the expression level of circuit components such as the transcription factor (or synthase  
 166 for the signaling molecule in QS circuits). Circuits A and B have different transcription factors, but share a signaling  
 167 molecule. Circuit C has a unique transcription factor and signaling molecule. **(C)** Possible combinations of switching  
 168 times (shaded gray) with a fully coupled regulation system in which both modes are under control of the same circuit.  
 169 **(D)** Possible combinations of switching times with a semi-orthogonal bifunctional regulation system in which the  
 170 regulation modes respond to the same signaling molecule, but have unique transcription factors. **(E)** Possible  
 171 combinations of switching times with a fully orthogonal bifunctional regulation system in which the two regulation  
 172 modes are controlled under circuits with different transcription factors and signaling molecules.

173 **Table 1.** Summary of layered dynamic control strategies

174

Target product	Circuit type(s)	Target gene(s) and response	Outcome	Reference
Fatty acid ethyl ester	Fatty acid/acyl-CoA biosensor	<i>pdc, adhB, atfA, fadD</i> ON	3-fold yield increase over inducible system from previous study [39]	17
Amorphadiene	Stress-response	<i>ADS</i> ON + FPP-production pathway OFF	2-fold titer increase over inducible or constitutive promoters	25
Fatty acids	Malonyl-CoA biosensor	<i>tesA, fabADGI</i> ON + <i>accADBC</i> OFF	2.1-fold titer increase over no-regulator control	3
Isopropanol	QS circuit	<i>gltA</i> OFF + <i>thlA, atoAD, adc, adhE</i> ON	3-fold titer increase over no-QS control	14
para-hydroxybenzoic acid	QS circuit	<i>ARO4, ubiC, TKL1</i> ON + <i>CDC19, ARO7, ZWF1</i> OFF	37-fold titer increase over no-ON or -OFF control	23
Glucaric acid	QS circuit + myo-inositol biosensor	<i>pfkA</i> OFF (QS) and <i>MIOX</i> ON (biosensor)	4-fold titer increase with OFF + additional 2-fold titer with ON	18
Muconic acid	Muconic acid biosensor	<i>entC, pchB</i> ON + <i>ppc</i> OFF	3.7-fold titer increase with ON + additional 1.6-fold titer increase with OFF	26
Naringenin	<i>lux</i> + <i>esa</i> QS circuits	<i>TAL, 4CL</i> ON ( <i>esa</i> ) + <i>fabF, fabB, adhE, sucC, fumC</i> OFF ( <i>lux</i> )	8-fold titer increase with ON + additional 2-fold titer increase with OFF	22
Salicylic acid	<i>lux</i> + <i>esa</i> QS circuits	<i>entC, pchB</i> ON ( <i>esa</i> ) + <i>pheA, tyrA</i> OFF ( <i>lux</i> )	2-fold titer increase over static expression	22

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177 **Multi-input control methods**

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179 While the autonomous methods discussed so far have resulted in meaningful improvements in a  
180 number of production pathways, some situations may benefit from regulation dynamics that cannot  
181 be achieved by one-input control circuits, motivating exploration of multi-input control.  
182 Additionally, multi-input circuits are a promising method of achieving pathway-independent  
183 control with non-monotonic response profiles. This section discusses two studies that improve  
184 response dynamics [27,28] and one study that achieves a specific and non-monotonic response  
185 profile [29] using multi-input circuits (Table 2).

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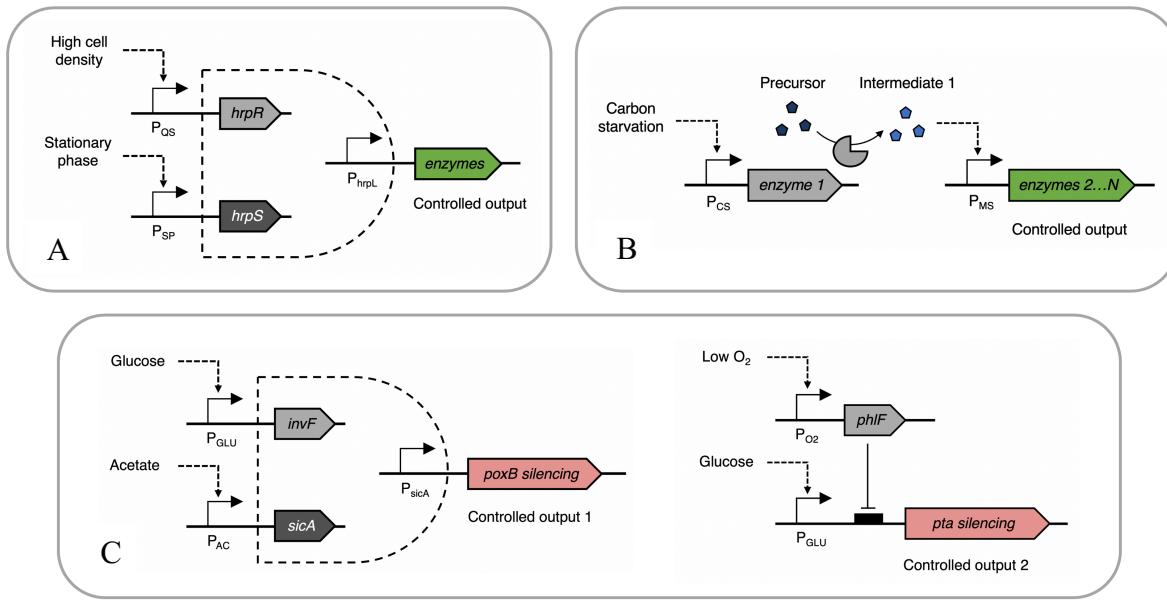
187 With the goal of developing a control circuit that responds to both cell density and cell  
188 physiological state, He et al. constructed an AND gate composed of a QS circuit and a stationary  
189 phase sensor, both of which turn from OFF to ON during fermentations [28]. The AND gate is  
190 based on a circuit that requires expression of two transcriptional activator genes, *hrpR* and *hrpS* to  
191 activate expression from the  $P_{hrpL}$  promoter [40]. Regulation of *hrpR* under the QS promoter ( $P_{QS}$ )  
192 and *hrpS* under the stationary phase promoter ( $P_{SP}$ ) results in transcription of the  $P_{hrpL}$  promoter  
193 only when both cell density and physiological state requirements are met (Figure 2A). Control of  
194 the polyhydroxybutyrate (PHB) production pathway under the  $P_{hrpL}$  promoter resulted in improved  
195 growth characteristics over statically-induced and QS-only controls and resulted in a greater-than  
196 two-fold improvement in PHB production over QS-only, stationary-phase-only, and static  
197 controls.

198 Lo et al. applied an alternative multi-input circuit architecture that assembles nutrient starvation  
199 and substrate-sensing circuits in a layered manner [27]. The first layer of the circuit controls  
200 expression of the gene encoding the first pathway enzyme under the  $P_{csID}$  promoter ( $P_{CS}$ ), which is  
201 upregulated under carbon starvation conditions [41,42]. The second layer of the circuit employs a  
202 biosensor for the product of the first conversion regulated under the first layer to control expression  
203 of the rest of the pathway. While the enzyme-biosensor pair must suit the production pathway, the  
204 authors of this study showed that one enzyme-biosensor pair could be used to produce five  
205 different compounds by changing the substrate and down-stream production pathway genes. They  
206 showed significant growth and titer improvement under two different enzyme-biosensor pairs

207 compared to nutrient sensor-only and static controls. Both studies demonstrate the benefit of multi-  
208 input control dynamics in some pathway contexts.

209 While studies have shown improved production when a key metabolic node is regulated in a  
210 reversible manner [3,43], pathway-independent control circuits discussed so far are only capable  
211 of producing monotonic responses. To develop a pathway-independent method for addressing  
212 these situations, Moser et al. characterized pathway-independent circuits that respond to changing  
213 glucose, oxygen, and acetate levels. These circuits were applied to reducing acetate production  
214 while limiting growth effects by assembling multi-input circuits that express silencing components  
215 for the key acetate-production pathway genes, *poxB* and *pta*. The authors aimed to designed the  
216 circuits to activate transcription of the silencing components during periods of *poxB* and *pta*  
217 transcription. Based on time-resolved transcript data for *poxB* and *pta*, the authors used  
218 computational models of the characterized circuits to generate predictions of multi-input circuits  
219 that would match the transcription profiles of the target genes. Characterization of the predicted  
220 circuits (Figure 2C) resulted in non-monotonic activation profiles consistent with the target  
221 profiles and significantly reduced acetate generation.

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223

224 **Figure 2.** Illustrations of two multi-input control circuits which actuate a response in the presence of two input signals.  
 225 (A) AND gate in which the target gene is expressed when both cell density and stationary phase thresholds are  
 226 satisfied. The QS promoter ( $P_{QS}$ ) and the stationary phase promoter ( $P_{SP}$ ) control expression of the transcription factor  
 227 genes encoding HrpR and HrpS, both of which are required to activate expression from a third promoter ( $P_{hrlP}$ ). (B)  
 228 Two-layer regulatory circuit which expresses a target gene when both carbon starvation and precursor requirements  
 229 are met. The carbon starvation promoter ( $P_{CS}$ ) controls expression of a gene that encodes an enzyme that produces the  
 230 metabolite (Intermediate 1) that triggers activation from the metabolite-responsive promoter ( $P_{MS}$ ).  $P_{MS}$  controls  
 231 expression of the rest of the pathway genes. (C) Two multi-input circuits constructed to decrease acetate production.  
 232 The genes for *poxB* silencing are expressed during high glucose and high acetate conditions by regulation under the  
 233  $P_{GLU}$  and  $P_{AC}$  promoters, respectively. The genes for *pta* silencing are expressed during high glucose oxygen conditions  
 234 by regulation under  $P_{GLU}$  and  $P_{O2}$  promoters, respectively.

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237 **Table 2.** Summary of multi-input control strategies  
238

Target product	Circuit types	Target genes	Outcome	Reference
Vanillic acid	Glucose sensor and hydroxycinnamic acid biosensor	<i>fcs, ech, vdh</i>	5-fold productivity increase over constitutive control	27
Ethyl oleate	Glucose sensor and oleic acid biosensor	<i>fadD, pdc, adhB, aftA</i>	2.4-fold productivity increase over single-input inducible control	27
Polyhydroxybutyrate	QS and stationary phase	<i>phbCAB</i>	1-2-fold titer increase over QS or stationary phase only	28
Acetate reduction	Glucose, acetate, and oxygen sensors	<i>poxB</i>	2-fold reduction in acetate accumulation (mM)	29
Acetate reduction	Glucose, acetate, and oxygen sensors	<i>pta</i>	4-fold reduction in acetate accumulation (mM)	29

239  
240241 **Conclusions and future outlook**  
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243 In recent years, layered and multi-input autonomous control schemes have been designed,  
244 constructed and implemented to control metabolic fluxes. These autonomous tools have shown  
245 promise in early studies. As production pathways and control schemes become increasingly  
246 complex, co-culture production becomes a more attractive option for distributing burden between  
247 population members or segregating incompatible pathway or circuit components [44–49].  
248 Autonomous control circuits to coordinate cellular behavior between sub-population members [50]  
249 and regulate co-culture composition [50] are expected to play a significant role in improving  
250 control of co-culture systems.

251  
252 **Acknowledgements**  
253

254 This work was supported by the US National Science Foundation through the Division of  
255 Molecular and Cellular Biosciences (Grant No. MCB-1817708).

256

257 **References and recommended readings**

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