

Identification of bottlenecks in *Escherichia coli* engineered for the production of CoQ₁₀

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ABSTRACT

In this work, *Escherichia coli* was engineered to produce a medically valuable cofactor, coenzyme Q₁₀ (CoQ₁₀), by removing the endogenous octaprenyl diphosphate synthase gene and functionally replacing it with a decaprenyl diphosphate synthase gene from *Sphingomonas baekryungensis*. In addition, by over-expressing genes coding for rate-limiting enzymes of the aromatic pathway, biosynthesis of the CoQ₁₀ precursor *para*-hydroxybenzoate (PHB) was increased. The production of isoprenoid precursors of CoQ₁₀ was also improved by the heterologous expression of a synthetic mevalonate operon, which permits the conversion of exogenously supplied mevalonate to farnesyl diphosphate. The over-expression of these precursors in the CoQ₁₀-producing *E. coli* strain resulted in an increase in CoQ₁₀ content, as well as in the accumulation of an intermediate of the ubiquinone pathway, decaprenyl-phenol (10P-Ph). In addition, the over-expression of a PHB decaprenyl transferase (UbiA) encoded by a gene from *Erythrobacter* sp. NAP1 was introduced to direct the flux of DPP and PHB towards the ubiquinone pathway. This further increased CoQ₁₀ content in engineered *E. coli*, but decreased the accumulation of 10P-Ph. Finally, we report that the combined over-production of isoprenoid precursors and over-expression of UbiA results in the decaprenylation of *para*-aminobenzoate, a biosynthetic precursor of folate, which is structurally similar to PHB.

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1. Introduction

Coenzyme Q_n (CoQ_n), otherwise known as ubiquinone, is a redox-active biomolecule formed by the conjugation of a benzoquinone head group to an isoprenoid chain of varying length. The number (*n*) of isoprene units forming the lipid chain of CoQ_n varies between species: humans mainly synthesize CoQ harboring a ten-unit *E*-isoprenoid (CoQ₁₀), while *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* produces CoQ₆ and *Escherichia coli*, CoQ₈. In bacteria, CoQ_n is embedded in the cytoplasmic membrane where it acts as an electron carrier in the respiratory chain and plays a role in the formation of disulfide bonds (Bader et al., 2000; Ingledew and Poole, 1984). While CoQ_n typically takes part in prokaryotic aerobic respiration, other quinones, such as menaquinone (MK_n), are active during anaerobic

respiration (Ingledew and Poole, 1984; Wissenbach et al., 1990). In eukaryotes, CoQ_n participates in the electron transport chain by transferring electrons between the different respiratory complexes and additionally acts as a cofactor for the mitochondrial uncoupling protein, within the mitochondrial inner membrane (Echtay et al., 2000; Kroger and Klingenberg, 1973). Also present in other organelles, CoQ_n plays an additional role as an antioxidant by protecting membrane lipids and proteins from oxidation, either by scavenging free radicals directly or by regenerating the pool of tocopherol (Lass and Sohal, 1998; Martin et al., 2007; Yoshida et al., 2006). Moreover, CoQ_n is involved in the regulation of several genes, some of which play roles in cholesterol metabolism and in inflammatory responses (Schmelzer et al., 2007, 2010).

The benefits of CoQ₁₀ supplementation to patients with cardiovascular diseases, including conjunctive heart failure and acute myocardial infarction, as well as certain neurodegenerative diseases and diabetes have been documented (Hodgson et al., 2002; Shults et al., 2002; Singh et al., 1998; Yang et al., 2010). Besides these clinical benefits, the topical application of CoQ₁₀ was shown to reduce wrinkle formation, resulting in its incorporation in a number of cosmetic dermatology formulations (Inui et al., 2008).

Because of the growing demand from the pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries, research into the development of a bioprocess leading to the commercial production of CoQ₁₀ has intensified.

Abbreviations: CoQ₁₀, coenzyme Q₁₀; DPP, decaprenyl diphosphate; DPS, decaprenyl diphosphate synthase; PABA, *para*-aminobenzoate; PHB, *para*-hydroxybenzoate; 10P-AB, 3-decaprenyl-4-aminobenzoate; 10P-HB, 3-decaprenyl-4-hydroxybenzoate; 10P-Ph, decaprenylphenol; SA, shikimic acid

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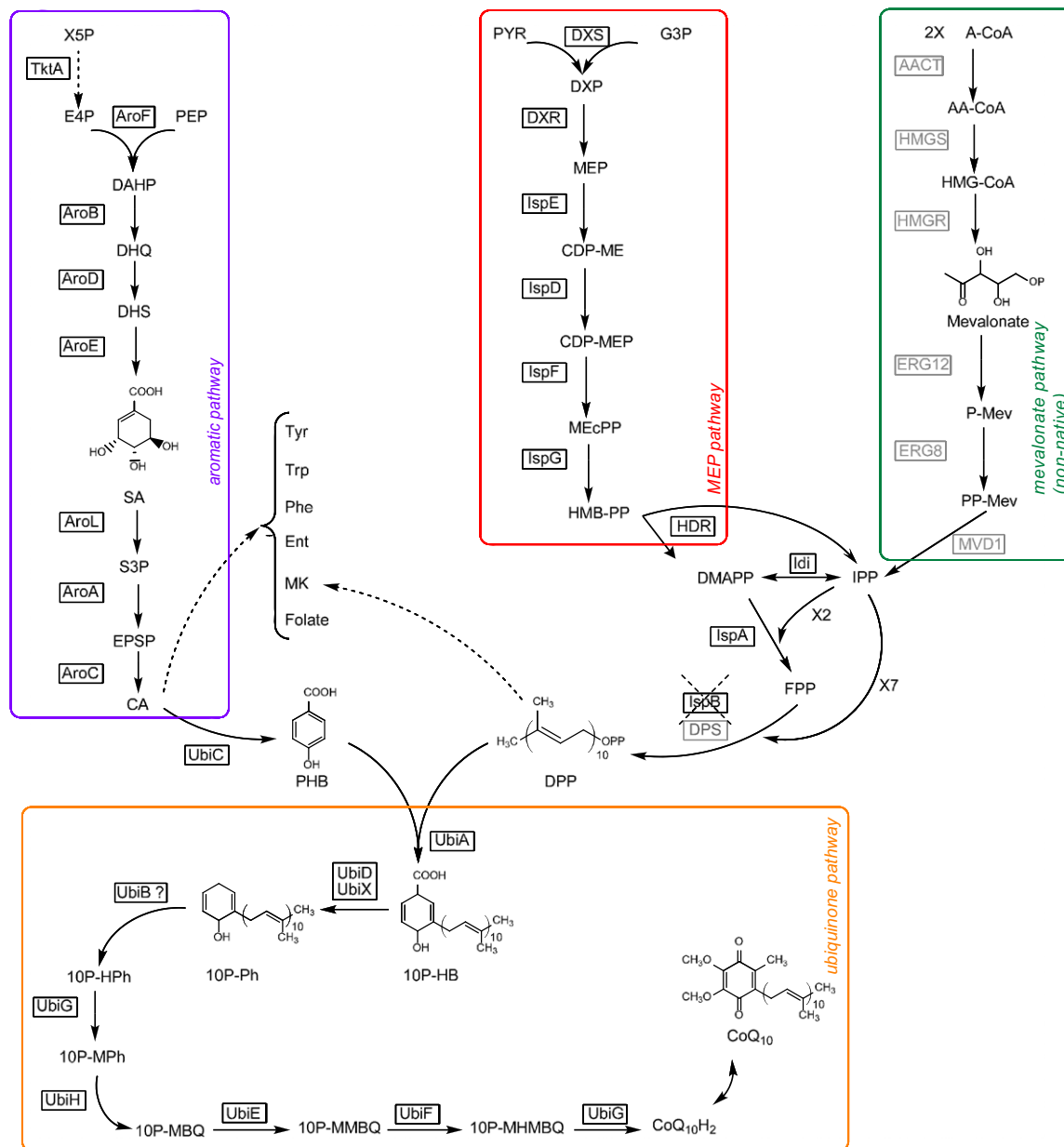
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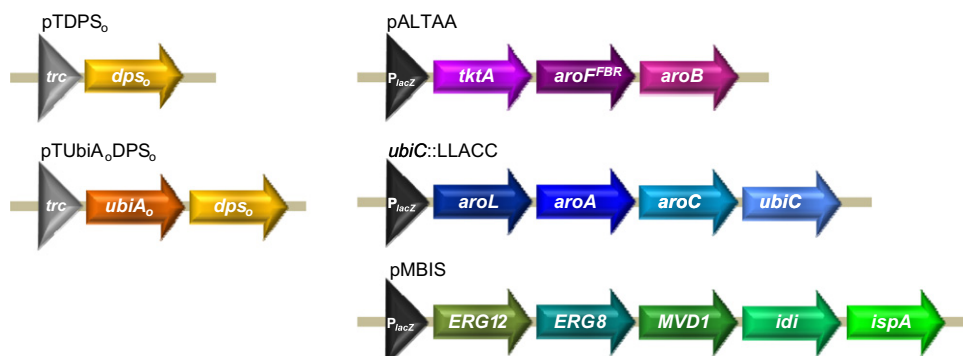
With the aim of developing a microbial production platform, several groups have studied natural producers of CoQ₁₀, including *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* and *Rhodobacter sphaeroides*. Improvements in

cell titers and yields of CoQ₁₀ using such microbes have been obtained using chemical mutagenesis and the optimization of fermentation conditions (Choi et al., 2005; Gu et al., 2006; Ha et al.,

A



B



2007a, 2007b; Kien et al., 2010; Sakato et al., 1992; Wu et al., 2003; Yen et al., 2010; Yen and Shih, 2009).

Although *E. coli* naturally synthesizes CoQ₈ rather than CoQ₁₀, its robust fermentation characteristics and amenability to genetic modifications provide great potential for industrial applications. Moreover, the biochemical pathway leading to the biosynthesis of CoQ_n in *E. coli* has been almost entirely deciphered (Fig. 1A), resulting in its use as a host for CoQ₁₀ production. The biosynthesis of CoQ₁₀ by *E. coli* is made possible by the expression of an *E*-decaprenyl diphosphate (DPP) synthase (DPS), along with the optional deletion of *ispB*, coding for *E*-octaprenyl diphosphate synthase, in order to eliminate the synthesis of CoQ₈ (Fig. 1A) (Choi et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2004; Okada et al., 1998; Park et al., 2005; Takahashi et al., 2003; Zahiri et al., 2006a, 2006b). Knowledge of the biochemical pathway and genes involved in CoQ_n biosynthesis has led to the development of rational genetic engineering strategies to improve yields of CoQ₁₀ in *E. coli*. For instance, improvements in CoQ₁₀ titers have been made by over-expressing 1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate synthase (DXS) of the methylerythritol phosphate pathway (MEP) with the goal of increasing the availability of isopentenyl diphosphate (IPP) and dimethylallyl diphosphate (DMAPP) (Fig. 1A) (Choi et al., 2009; Harker and Bramley, 1999; Kim et al., 2006). Additionally, a foreign mevalonate pathway was expressed in *E. coli*, resulting in higher CoQ₁₀ content (Zahiri et al., 2006b). The effect of the augmented production of isoprenoids is potentiated by an exogenous supply of the aromatic precursor to CoQ_n, *para*-hydroxybenzoate (PHB), suggesting that both isoprenoid and aromatic metabolites are limiting CoQ_n production in *E. coli* (Zahiri et al., 2006b). Accordingly, the over-expression of UbiC, which converts chorismate into PHB (Fig. 1A), also results in an increase in CoQ_n production (Zhang et al., 2007; Zhu et al., 1995). However, no attempt has been made to improve PHB production by deregulating and over-expressing the aromatic pathway of *E. coli*. Downstream of these primary metabolic pathways, the aromatic and isoprenoid moieties of CoQ₁₀ are condensed into a single molecule and further modified by a series of ring modifications, via the ubiquinone pathway (Fig. 1A). Studies aimed at assessing the impact of the over-expression of selected enzymes of this pathway suggest that UbiA is rate limiting, while the over-expression of UbiB, UbiG and UbiH has little impact on CoQ_n production (Zhang et al., 2007; Zhu et al., 1995). Nevertheless, these genes were over-expressed in *E. coli* strains where the production of isoprenoid and aromatic precursors were endogenously regulated and thus, were potentially limiting. Therefore, it is possible that the modest increases in CoQ_n content reported in these studies are a result of the limited carbon flux to the ubiquinone pathway. Overall, despite its great potential as a production host, the CoQ₁₀ content currently obtained in engineered *E. coli* (2.5 mg/g dry cell weight (DCW)) still falls below those obtained in mutant strains

of *A. tumefaciens* (11.84 mg/g DCW) and *R. sphaeroides* (8.7 mg/g DCW) (Ha et al., 2009; Yoshida et al., 1998; Zahiri et al., 2006b).

In this research, we sought to bypass endogenous restrictions in carbon flux towards the ubiquinone pathway in a CoQ₁₀-producing *E. coli* strain by expressing a DPS from a marine bacterium. To do so, we engineered the production of augmented concentrations of both the aromatic precursor, PHB, and the isoprenoid intermediates, IPP and FPP. Moreover, in order to further channel these precursors towards CoQ₁₀ production, we over-expressed a PHB decaprenyl transferase (UbiA) derived from a CoQ₁₀-producing bacterium. Using this approach, we sought to gain new insights into the control of CoQ₁₀ biosynthesis in the context of an *E. coli* production platform, and to identify bottlenecks limiting the accumulation of CoQ₁₀ in this host. We report that the deregulated over-production of both aromatic and isoprenoid precursors of CoQ₁₀ results in the accumulation of decaprenylphenol, and that the production of this intermediate is modulated by the expression of UbiA. We also report that the over-expression of UbiA coupled with higher isoprenoid biosynthesis, yet uncoupled to a corresponding increase in PHB production, results in the accumulation of decaprenyl-aminobenzoate. We hypothesize that the accumulation of this compound results from the prenylation of *para*-aminobenzoate by UbiA.

2. Methods

2.1. Reagents, strains and culture conditions

E. coli strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 1. *E. coli* DH5 α was used for cloning whereas CoQ₁₀-producing strains were constructed in *E. coli* MG1655. *E. coli* strains containing the individual gene knockouts Δ aroK::kan, Δ aroL::kan, Δ aroA::kan and Δ aroC::kan were obtained from the Keio collection (Baba et al., 2006). Multiple gene knockouts and insertions in *E. coli* MG1655 were generated by P1 transduction as previously described (Thomason et al., 2007). When required, strains were propagated on LB media supplemented with 100 μ g/mL ampicillin, 20 μ g/mL chloramphenicol, 12.5 μ g/mL tetracycline and/or 25 μ g/mL kanamycin. Polymerase chain reactions (PCR) for cloning purposes were performed with Phusion High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs) while colony PCR reactions to identify positive clones were conducted using Taq DNA polymerase (Fermentas). DNA isolated from agarose gels and PCR reactions were purified using the QIAquick Gel and QIAquick PCR purification kit (Qiagen), respectively. Plasmid extractions were done using the GeneJET Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Fermentas). Chemicals were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Mevalonate was prepared from D,L-mevalolactone as previously described (Martin

Fig. 1. Engineering *E. coli* for CoQ₁₀ production. (A) Biosynthetic pathway leading to the formation of CoQ₁₀ in *E. coli*. Enzymes in black are endogenous to *E. coli*. Enzymes in gray are non-native to *E. coli*. Pathway intermediates: X5P, D-xylulose-5-phosphate; E4P, D-erythrose-4-phosphate; PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate; DAHP, 3-deoxy-arabinoheptulosonate 7-phosphate; DHQ, 3-dehydroquinate; DHS, 3-dehydroshikimate; SA, shikimic acid; S3P, shikimate-3-phosphate; EPSP, 5-enolpyruvyl-shikimate-3-phosphate; CA, chorismic acid; Tyr, L-tyrosine; Trp, L-tryptophan; Phe, L-phenylalanine; Ent, enterobactin; MK, menaquinone; PHB, *para*-hydroxybenzoate; PYR, pyruvate; G3P, D-glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate; DXP, 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate; MEP, 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol-5-phosphate; CDP-ME, 4-diphosphocytidyl-2C-methyl-D-erythritol; CDP-MEP, 4-diphosphocytidyl-2C-methyl-D-erythritol 2-phosphate; MECP, 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol-2,4-cyclodiphosphate; HMB-PP, 1-hydroxy-2-methyl-2-(E)-butenyl 4-diphosphate; A-CoA, acetylcoenzyme-A; AA-CoA, acetoacetylcoenzyme-A; HMG-CoA, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme-A; mevalonate, R-mevalonate; P-Mev, mevalonate-5-phosphate; PP-Mev, mevalonate-diphosphate; DMAPP, dimethylallyl diphosphate; IPP, isopentenyl diphosphate; FPP, (E,E)-farnesyl diphosphate; DPP, *E*-decaprenyl diphosphate; 10P-HB, 3-decaprenyl-4-hydroxybenzoate; 10P-Ph, 2-decaprenylphenol; 10P-HPh, 2-decaprenyl-6-hydroxyphenol; 10P-MPh, 2-decaprenyl-6-methoxyphenol; 10P-MBQ, 2-decaprenyl-6-methoxy-1,4-benzoquinol; 10P-MMBQ, 2-decaprenyl-3-methyl-6-methoxy-1,4-benzoquinol; 10-MHMBQ, 2-decaprenyl-3-methyl-5-hydroxy-6-methoxy-1,4-benzoquinol; CoQ₁₀H₂, ubiquinol-10; CoQ₁₀, coenzyme Q₁₀. (B) Synthetic operons used in this study. pTDS₁₀, derived from the plasmid pTc99A, contains *dps*₁₀, coding for a decaprenyl diphosphate synthase, and driven by the *trc* promoter. pTubiA₁₀DPS₁₀, derived from the plasmid pTc99A, contains *ubiA*₁₀, coding for a PHB decaprenyl transferase, and *dps*₁₀, driven by the *trc* promoter. pALTAA, derived from the plasmid pAlac, contains *tktA*, coding for a transketolase, *aroF^{FBR}*, coding for a tyrosine-insensitive 3-deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate synthase and *aroB*, coding for a 3-dehydroquinate synthase, driven by *P_{lacZ}*. *ubiC*::LLACC contains *aroL*, coding for a shikimate kinase, *aroA*, coding for a 5-enolpyruvyl-shikimate-3-phosphate synthase, *aroC*, coding for a chorismate synthase and *ubiC*, coding for a chorismate lyase, driven by *P_{lacZ}* and integrated downstream of *ubiC* on the chromosome. pMBIS, derived from the plasmid pBBR1MCS3, contains *ERG12*, coding for a mevalonate kinase, *ERG8*, coding for a phosphomevalonate kinase, *MVD1*, coding for a mevalonate pyrophosphate decarboxylase, *idi*, coding for an IPP isomerase and *ispA*, coding for a FPP synthase, driven by *P_{lacZ}*.

Table 1
Strains and plasmids used in this study.

Strain	Genotype/description	Reference
DH5 α	<i>fhuA2</i> Δ (<i>argF-lacZ</i>)U169 <i>phoA glnV44</i> Φ 80 Δ (<i>lacZ</i>)M15 <i>gyrA96 recA1 relA1 endA1 thi-1 hsdR17</i>	Invitrogen
BW25113	<i>rrnB</i> _{T14} Δ <i>lacZ</i> _{WJ16} <i>hsdR514</i> Δ <i>araBAD</i> _{AH33} Δ <i>rhaBAD</i> _{LD78}	Datsenko and Wanner (2000)
MG1655	F- λ - <i>ilvG-rfb-50 rph-1</i>	ATCC 700926
CC1.D	MG1655 + pTDPS _o	This study
CC2.D	MG1655, Δ <i>ispB</i> + pTDPS _o	This study
CC1.1	MG1655 + pALac	This study
CC1.1.ARO1	MG1655 + pALTAA	This study
CC3.1	MG1655, Δ <i>aroK</i> , Δ <i>aroL</i> + pALac	This study
CC3.1.ARO1	MG1655, Δ <i>aroK</i> , Δ <i>aroL</i> + pALTAA	This study
CC1.1.ARO2	MG1655, <i>ubiC</i> ::LLACC + pALac	This study
CC1.1.ARO3	MG1655, <i>ubiC</i> ::LLACC + pALTAA	This study
CC2.D.1	MG1655, Δ <i>ispB</i> + pTDPS _o + pALac + pBBR1MCS3	This study
CC2.D.1.ISO1	MG1655, Δ <i>ispB</i> + pTDPS _o + pALac + pMBIS	This study
CC2.D.1.ARO3	MG1655, Δ <i>ispB</i> , <i>ubiC</i> ::LLACC + pTDPS _o + pALTAA + pBBR1MCS3	This study
CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1	MG1655, Δ <i>ispB</i> , <i>ubiC</i> ::LLACC + pTDPS _o + pALTAA + pMBIS	This study
CC2.DU.1	MG1655, Δ <i>ispB</i> + pTUBiA _o DPS _o + pALac + pBBR1MCS3	This study
CC2.DU.1.ISO1	MG1655, Δ <i>ispB</i> + pTUBiA _o DPS _o + pALac + pMBIS	This study
CC2.DU.1.ARO3	MG1655, Δ <i>ispB</i> , <i>ubiC</i> ::LLACC + pTUBiA _o DPS _o + pALTAA + pBBR1MCS3	This study
CC2.DU.1.ARO3.ISO1	MG1655, Δ <i>ispB</i> , <i>ubiC</i> ::LLACC + pTUBiA _o DPS _o + pALTAA + pMBIS	This study
Plasmid	Description	Reference
pACYC184	Low-copy expression plasmid; Tet ^R , Cm ^R	ATCC 37033
pALac	pACYC184 derivative containing the <i>lacZ</i> promoter; Cm ^R	This study
pALDPS _o	pALac derivative containing DPS _o ; Cm ^R	This study
pTrc99A	High-copy expression plasmid; Amp ^R	Pharmacia
pTDPS _o	pTrc99A derivative containing DPS _o ; Amp ^R	This study
pTUBiA _o DPS _o	pTrc99A derivative containing <i>ubiA</i> _o and DPS _o ; Amp ^R	This study
pKD4	Plasmid with the RK6 γ origin containing a Kan ^R cassette flanked by FRT sites; Amp ^R	Datsenko and Wanner (2000)
pKD46	Plasmid with repA101(ts) origin containing <i>araBp-gam-bet-exo</i> for λ red recombination; Amp ^R	Datsenko and Wanner (2000)
pCP20	Plasmid with temperature sensitive origin of replication containing the <i>FLP</i> ; Amp ^R , Cm ^R	Datsenko and Wanner (2000)
pGEM-T Easy	High-copy cloning plasmid; Amp ^R	Promega
pG-TktA	pGEM-T Easy derivative containing <i>tktA</i> ; Amp ^R	This study
pG-AroF	pGEM-T Easy derivative containing <i>aroF</i> ; Amp ^R	This study
pG-AroFFBR	pGEM-T Easy derivative containing <i>aroF</i> ^{FB} ; Amp ^R	This study
pG-AroB	pGEM-T Easy derivative containing <i>aroB</i> ; Amp ^R	This study
pGFPuv	High-copy plasmid containing <i>P</i> _{<i>lacZ</i>} -GFPuv; Amp ^R	ClonTech
pUC19	High-copy cloning plasmid; Amp ^R	Fermentas
pUSER-GFP	pUC19 derivative containing a USER cloning cassette and GFPuv; Amp ^R	This study
pUTAAG	pUSER-GFP derivative containing <i>tktA</i> , <i>aroF</i> ^{FB} and <i>aroB</i> ; Amp ^R	This study
pALTAA	pALac derivative containing <i>tktA</i> , <i>aroF</i> ^{FB} and <i>aroB</i> ; Cm ^R	This study
pALLACC	pALac derivative containing <i>aroL</i> , <i>aroA</i> , <i>aroC</i> and <i>ubiC</i> ; Cm ^R	This study
pLOI2224	Plasmid with the RK6 γ origin containing a Kan ^R cassette and two FRT sites, for chromosomal integration of DNA; Kan ^R	Martinez-Morales et al. (1999)
pBBR1MCS3	Low-copy expression plasmid	Kovach et al. (1995)
pMBIS	pBBR1MCS3 derivative containing <i>ERG12</i> , <i>ERG8</i> , <i>MVD1</i> , <i>idi</i> and <i>ispA</i> ; Tet ^R	Martin et al. (2003)

et al., 2003). Growth experiments were performed in M9 medium (Sambrook et al., 1989) supplemented with 1.5% yeast extract, 3% glucose and appropriate antibiotics at 1/2 concentration, in order to reduce the initial lag phase. To prepare starter cultures for testing the engineered strains, one colony was used to inoculate a 10-mL culture, which was grown overnight and adjusted to OD₆₀₀=1. The starter cultures were then diluted ten-fold in 50 mL of medium in 250-mL shake flasks and shaken at 200 rpm and 37 °C. When the cultures reached an OD₆₀₀ of 0.5–0.7, they were supplemented with 10 mM mevalonate as necessary and 0.5 mM IPTG.

2.2. Construction of vectors

pALac: The pALac expression vector is derived from the low-copy plasmid pACYC184. The vector was amplified using the primers pACYC184F and pACYC184R (Table S1), which anneal to regions flanking the tetracycline resistance cassette, and carry 5'-NsiI and NotI sites (pACYC184F) or 5'-NsiI and AclI sites (pACYC184R). The PCR product was digested with NsiI and DpnI and self-ligated, yielding pACCM. *P*_{*lacZ*} was amplified from *E. coli* MG1655 by colony PCR using the primers lacPascIF and

LacPPme1R1, and then with the primers LacPPMIBHI-R2 and LacPNotIR3. The *P*_{*lacZ*} cassette was then introduced into pACCM using the AclI and the NotI sites, yielding pALac.

pG-USER-GFP: In order to create a cloning vector to assemble the upper aromatic operon by the USER method (Geu-Flores et al., 2007), a module flanked by FseI, SbfI, NotI and SacI sites at the 5' end, and by AclI and XbaI at the 3' end, containing a PacI/Nt.BbvCI cassette, a ribosomal binding site and the coding sequence of GFP, was first created by PCR using the primer pair USER-GFP-F1/USER-GFP-R1 and pGFPuv as a template. The primer pairs USER-GFP-F2/USER-GFP-R2, USER-GFP-F3/USER-GFP-R3 and USER-GFP-F4/USER-GFP-R3 were then used in sequential overlapping PCR reactions. The cassette was digested with SacI and XbaI, then inserted into pUC19, yielding pUSER-GFP.

2.3. Isolation of the *dps* gene from *Sphingomonas baekryungensis*

S. baekryungensis was isolated from seawater in Advocate Bay (Nova Scotia, Canada) and identified as a high producer of CoQ₁₀ (patent WO2008023264: coenzyme Q₁₀ production from marine bacteria). To isolate the *dps* gene from *S. baekryungensis*, degenerate PCR primers (DPSF6 and DPSR4) were first designed based

on the conserved DPS amino acid regions LLHDDV and AFQLVD (Lee et al., 2004). A 384-bp PCR fragment was amplified from *S. baekryungensis* genomic DNA, cloned into pGEM-T Easy (Promega), and sequenced. To generate the template for inverse PCR and isolate the 5' and 3' regions of the *dps* gene, genomic DNA from *S. baekryungensis* was digested with NcoI, and the purified fragments were self-ligated. This template was used to amplify a 2.5-kb fragment containing the 5' and 3' ends of the *S. baekryungensis* *dps* gene, using primers DPS-iPCR-F1 and DPS-iPCR-R1, designed based on the 384-bp *dps* internal fragment. The entire coding sequence of *dps* was then amplified using the primers DPSF1 and DPSR1. A synthetic version of the *dps* gene was codon-optimized for *E. coli* by GeneScript, yielding *dps_o*. The synthetic gene was amplified using the primers RBSDPSokpnIF and DPSo-HindIIIIR, adding an optimized RBS (Ringquist et al., 1992) at the 5' end, and cloned into pTrc99A, yielding pTDPS_o (Fig. 1B). The *dps_o* gene was also amplified with the primers RBSDPSBamHIF and DPSNotIIR, introducing an optimized RBS at the 5' end, and then cloned into pALac, yielding pALDPS_o.

2.4. Deletion of *ispB* from *E. coli*

To minimize the production of CoQ₈, the *ispB* gene was deleted from the chromosome of *E. coli* using lambda Red recombination (Datsenko and Wanner, 2000). A 1597-bp deletion cassette was amplified using primers IspBkoF and IspBkoR, and the plasmid pKD4 as a template. The reactions were treated with DpnI, and dialyzed using a 0.025 µm disc (Millipore). Cells of *E. coli* BW25113, harboring pKD46 and pALDPS_o that were previously grown on LB containing L-arabinose (1 mM), were electroporated using ~475 ng of the purified DNA cassette. The *ΔispB::kan* locus was transferred to MG1655 harboring pTDPS_o by P1 transduction. The kanamycin marker flanked by FRT sites was removed using the helper plasmid pCP20.

2.5. Isolation of the *ubiA* gene from *Erythrobacter* sp. NAP1

The amino acid sequence of the PHB decaprenyl transferase (UbiA) from *Erythrobacter* sp. NAP1 was retrieved from GenBank (EAQ29552.1). The corresponding coding sequence was codon-optimized for *E. coli* and synthesized by DNA2.0, yielding *ubiA_o*. The optimized gene and an optimized ribosomal binding site (Ringquist et al., 1992) were inserted into pTDPS_o using EcoRI and KpnI, upstream of *dps_o*, yielding pTubiA_oDPS_o (Fig. 1B).

2.6. Construction of synthetic upper and lower aromatic pathway operons

The coding regions of *tktA*, *aroF* and *aroB* were amplified from MG1655 genomic DNA using the primer pairs TktAF1/TktAR1, AroFF2/AroFR2 and AroBF2/AroBR2, respectively, then cloned into pGEM-T Easy, yielding pG-TktA, pG-AroF and pG-AroB. The primers AroF-PL-F1 and AroF-PL-R1 were used to introduce the base pair modification (C444T) required to introduce the Pro (148)→Leu mutation in AroF^{FBR} (Weaver and Herrmann, 1990). The resulting pG-AroF^{FBR} was further modified by site-directed mutagenesis using the primers AroF-T327C-F and AroF-T327C-R, in order to remove a PacI recognition site. For USER cloning (Geu-Flores et al., 2007), *tktA* was amplified using *PfuTurbo* Cx hotstart DNA polymerase (Agilent Technologies) from pG-TktA using the primers TktAUF1/TktAUR1, *aroF^{FBR}* from pG-AroF^{FBR} with the primers AroFUF2/AroFUR2 and *aroB* from pG-AroB with the primers AroBUF4/AroBUR4. The fragments were DpnI-treated, purified and mixed with pUSER-GFP pre-digested with PacI and Nt.BbvCI, as well as one unit of USER enzyme. After 20 min at 37 °C and 20 min at 25 °C, the whole reaction was transformed

into *E. coli*, yielding pJTAAG. The *tktA-aroF^{FBR}-aroB* operon was amplified from pJTAAG using the primers TktAF2 and AroBR3, and then cloned into pALac, yielding pALTAAG (Fig. 1B). The coding regions of *aroL*, *aroA*, *aroC* and *ubiC* were amplified from MG1655 genomic DNA using the primer pairs AroLF/AroLR, AroAF/AroAR, AroCF/AroCR and UbiCF/UbiCR, respectively. The operon was built by iterative digestion, ligation and amplification of the ligated coding regions. Briefly, the amplified coding region of *aroL* was digested with AvrII at the 3' end while the amplified coding region of *aroA* was digested with XbaI at the 5' end. The two digested products were then ligated, which destroys both the AvrII and XbaI sites, and subsequently amplified with AroLF and AroAR. The same procedure was repeated for the addition of the amplified *aroC* and *ubiC* to the operon. Once the entire operon was constructed, it was digested with BglII and NotI and then cloned into BamHI–NotI-digested pALac, yielding pALLACC.

2.7. Integration of the synthetic lower aromatic operon on the chromosome of *E. coli*

The lower aromatic pathway operon was integrated on the chromosome of *E. coli* at the *ubiC* locus by homologous recombination using the method of Martinez-Morales et al. (1999). A GFP cassette flanked by NotI and AscI sites was first cloned at the NotI site of pALLACC, and allowed the excision of an AscI-flanked synthetic operon. The operon was cloned into the AscI site of pLOI2224, yielding p24LLACC, which was subsequently electroporated into MG1655 *ΔaroL*, *ΔaroA* and *ΔaroC*. The integrated operon and the flanking kanamycin cassette were then transferred into MG1655 and MG1655 *ΔispB*, pTDPS_o by P1 transduction. The kanamycin marker was subsequently removed using pCP20, yielding MG1655, *ubiC::LLACC* (CC1.ARO2) and MG1655 *ΔispB*, pTDPS_o, *ubiC::LLACC* (Fig. 1B).

2.8. Analysis of shikimic acid and para-hydroxybenzoate from culture supernatants

One-mL aliquots from *E. coli* cultures were centrifuged at 16,100g to remove the cells prior to HPLC analysis. The supernatant was filtered using a 13 mm 0.2 µm nylon filter (Acrodisc, VWR), and 10 µL was injected into a 1200 Series HPLC system (Agilent technologies) equipped with an Aminex HPX-87H column (Bio-Rad) heated to 65 °C. Shikimic acid (SA) was resolved using 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) at a flow rate of 0.6 mL/min and detected with a 1200 Series UV/vis diode array detector (Agilent Technologies) at 215 nm. PHB was resolved using 0.1% TFA and 15% acetonitrile at a flow rate of 0.6 mL/min and detected at 254 nm. SA and PHB were quantified using a standard curve of authentic standards.

2.9. Quinone extraction and analysis

Cells from 1-mL aliquots of *E. coli* cultures were harvested at 16,100g for analysis of their quinone content. The pelleted cells were washed with 1 mL of 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, and re-suspended in 450 µL Cell Lytic B (Sigma-Aldrich). After 30 min at room temperature, a first extraction was performed with 900 µL of hexane:2-propanol (5:3). The upper phase was transferred into a new tube and a second extraction was done using 500 µL of hexane. The combined extracts were dried under an air stream, and re-suspended in 50 µL acetone. A 10-µL aliquot was injected into a 1200 Series HPLC system equipped with a ZORBAX Eclipse XDB-C18 (4.6 × 150 mm, 5 µm, Agilent technologies). The mobile phase consisted of acetonitrile (A) and ethanol (B) with the following elution profile: 0–5 min, 40% B; 5–18 min, 40–100% B; 18–32 min, 100% B. The quinones were detected at 275 nm.

CoQ₁₀ was quantified using a standard curve of an authentic standard. The specific CoQ₁₀ content of strain CC2.DU.1.ARO3. ISO1 was estimated by converting its OD₆₀₀ to DCW using a standard curve. For identification by LC–MS–MS, the extracted quinones were separated by HPLC as described above, except that the mobile phase was acidified with 0.1% formic acid and 10 μ M ammonium formate. The HPLC eluent was then channeled to a Quattro LC triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Waters) with electrospray ionization in the positive mode. The source block temperature was set to 80 °C, the desolvation temperature to 200 °C and a voltage of 3.5 kV was applied to the electrospray needle. Nitrogen was used as the nebulizer, desolvation and collision gas. The precursor ions were manually selected and directed to the collision cell where they were fragmented with 30 kV or 40 kV of collision energy, depending on the metabolite.

3. Results

3.1. Cloning and functional expression of a *dps* in *E. coli*

The marine bacterium *S. baekryungensis* was identified in a screen for high producers of CoQ₁₀. Analysis of its quinone profile also revealed negligible amounts of shorter quinone species such as CoQ₉ and CoQ₈. Since previous studies have shown that the chain length of CoQ_n species is dictated by the prenyl synthase (Okada et al., 1996), we hypothesized that the DPS expressed by this species had higher stringency for DPP compared to other CoQ₁₀ producers who also produce shorter coenzyme species (Okada et al., 1998; Park et al., 2005; Takahashi et al., 2003; Zahiri et al., 2006a). In order to engineer a strain highly enriched in CoQ₁₀, we cloned and expressed, in *E. coli*, the *dps* gene from *S. baekryungensis*. The nucleotide sequence encoding *dps* was codon-optimized (*dps*_o) in order to improve expression and the activity of DPS_o was confirmed by the accumulation of CoQ₁₀, in addition to CoQ₈, in *E. coli* MG1655 transformed with pTDPSo (Fig. 2A and B, strain CC1.D). In order to exclusively produce CoQ₁₀, the *ispB* gene was deleted from CC1.D. When comparing the quinone profile of the Δ *ispB* strain CC2.D with that of the control strain CC1.1, we observed that while CC1.1 exclusively produced octaprenyl quinones (CoQ₈ and MK-8), CC2.D produced the decaprenyl quinones CoQ₁₀ and MK-10, as well as longer CoQ₁₁ (Fig. 2B and C). Although some CoQ₉ were found in cells expressing both *ispB* and *dps*_o (strain CC1.D, Fig. 2B), we did not observe detectable amounts of CoQ₉ in CC2.D (Fig. 2C).

3.2. Deregulation of PHB biosynthesis

The benzoic head of CoQ₁₀ is derived from the aromatic pathway leading to the biosynthesis of chorismate, which is then converted to PHB by the chorismate lyase, UbiC (Fig. 1A). Elevated production of PHB from glucose has previously been achieved in *E. coli* by over-expression of the rate-limiting enzymes of the aromatic pathway, along with UbiC (Barker and Frost, 2001). Based on this strategy, we created two synthetic operons, referred to as the upper and lower aromatic operons, aimed at increasing the expression of selected genes coding for enzymes of the PHB pathway (Fig. 1B).

The upper aromatic operon, designed to increase the production of shikimic acid (SA), comprises the genes coding for TktA, a feedback resistant AroF (AroF^{FBR}) and AroB, driven by the *lacZ* promoter *P*_{lacZ} (Fig. 1B). We tested its functionality by following the accumulation of SA over time in MG1655 harboring pALTA (CC1.1.ARO1). Strain CC1.1.ARO1 produced 25 mg/L/OD₆₀₀ of SA (Fig. 3A). To prevent the rapid conversion of SA to downstream aromatic intermediates, we expressed pALTA in *E. coli* MG1655

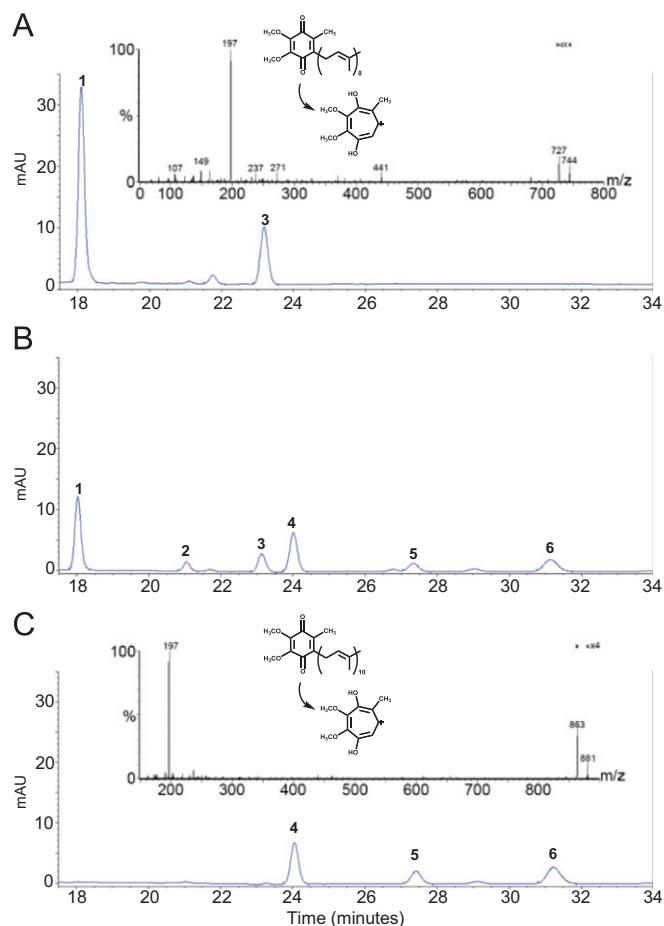


Fig. 2. HPLC profile of quinone extracts from wild-type and engineered *E. coli* strains. Strains compared are (A) CC1.1 (MG1655, pTrc99A), (B) CC1.D (MG1655, pTDPSo) and (C) CC2.D (MG1655 Δ *ispB*, pTDPSo). The upper panel of (A) shows the MS–MS spectrum of CoQ₈, isolated from peak 1: ammonium adduct $[M+NH_4]^+$ ($C_{49}H_{78}O_4N^+$; exact mass 744.6), protonated adduct $[M+H]^+$ ($C_{49}H_{75}O_4^+$; exact mass 727.7) and tropylium ion $[M]^+$ ($C_{10}H_{13}O_4^+$; exact mass 197.1). The upper panel of (C) shows the MS–MS spectrum of CoQ₁₀, isolated from peak 4: ammonium adduct $[M+NH_4]^+$ ($C_{59}H_{94}O_4N^+$; exact mass 880.7), protonated adduct $[M+H]^+$ ($C_{59}H_{91}O_4^+$; exact mass 863.7) and tropylium ion $[M]^+$ ($C_{10}H_{13}O_4^+$; exact mass 197.1). Labeled peaks were identified by LC–MS–MS: 1, CoQ₈; 2, CoQ₉; 3, MK-8; 4, CoQ₁₀; 5, CoQ₁₁; 6, MK-10 (MS/MS spectra shown in Fig. S1).

Δ *aroK* Δ *aroL*, a strain deficient in shikimate kinase activity, yielding CC3.1.ARO1. Using this genetic background, the production of SA increased more than 20-fold compared to the control CC3.1 and 2.9-fold compared to CC1.1.ARO1 (Fig. 3A). The expression of the upper operon alone, however, was not sufficient to result in a significant increase in PHB production in a wild-type background compared to the control strain (Fig. 3B).

The lower aromatic operon (LACC) includes the genes coding for AroL, AroA, AroC and UbiC (Fig. 1A). The expression of these four enzymes leads to the conversion of SA to PHB. The lower operon was placed under the control of *P*_{lacZ}, and integrated on the chromosome downstream of the *ubiC* locus (*ubiC*::LACC, Fig. 1B) of CC1.1 and CC1.1.ARO1, yielding CC1.1.ARO2 and CC1.1.ARO3, respectively. We did not observe an increase in PHB productivity in CC1.1.ARO2, expressing solely the lower aromatic operon, indicating that availability of SA is limiting for PHB biosynthesis (Fig. 3B). However, CC1.1.ARO3, expressing both upper and the lower operons, produced over 13 mg/L/OD₆₀₀ of PHB, representing a 220-fold increase compared to the control CC1.1 (Fig. 3B). While up to 24 mg/L/OD₆₀₀ of SA were produced

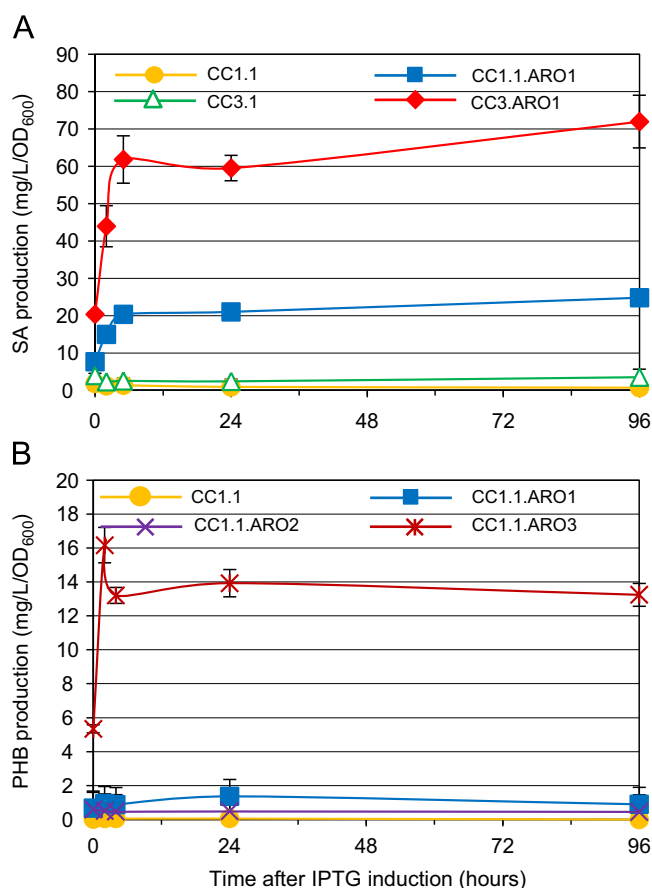


Fig. 3. Production of aromatic intermediates following the expression of the upper and lower synthetic aromatic pathway operons. Tested strains were grown in 50-mL cultures to exponential phase, and induced with 0.5 mM IPTG. Samples were taken at 0, 4, 24 and 96 h after induction in order to measure (A) the accumulation of SA in the growth media and (B) the accumulation of PHB in the growth media. Error bars show the standard deviation for duplicate biological samples.

by CC1.1.ARO1 (Fig. 3A), no residual SA was detected in the media of CC1.1.ARO3 (data not shown), suggesting that the enzymes encoded by the lower aromatic operon were able to efficiently catalyze the downstream reactions and divert carbon flux towards PHB.

3.3. Assessment of CoQ₁₀ production following the over-expression of PHB and/or FPP biosynthetic pathways

As the availability of PHB limits the carbon flux toward CoQ₁₀ biosynthesis (Zahiri et al., 2006b; Zhu et al., 1995), we hypothesized that a deregulation of PHB biosynthesis would translate into higher production of CoQ₁₀ in an engineered *E. coli* strain. The upper and lower aromatic operons were introduced into the CoQ₁₀-producing strain CC2.D, yielding CC2.D.1.ARO3, and CoQ₁₀ production was followed over time. As shown in Fig. 4C, CC2.D.1.ARO3 produced up to 83 $\mu\text{g/L/OD}_{600}$ CoQ₁₀, corresponding to a 1.3-fold increase compared to the control CC2.D.1. In addition, CC2.D.1.ARO3 produced 3.2 mg/L/OD₆₀₀ PHB (Fig. 4B), a four-fold decrease compared to CC1.1.ARO3 (Fig. 3B).

In addition to aromatic precursors, the biosynthesis of CoQ₁₀ in recombinant *E. coli* is limited by the availability of DPP for the prenylation of PHB (Choi et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2006; Zahiri et al., 2006b). DPP is formed by the successive condensation of IPP with FPP (Wang and Ohnuma, 2000). In *E. coli*, the biosynthesis of these

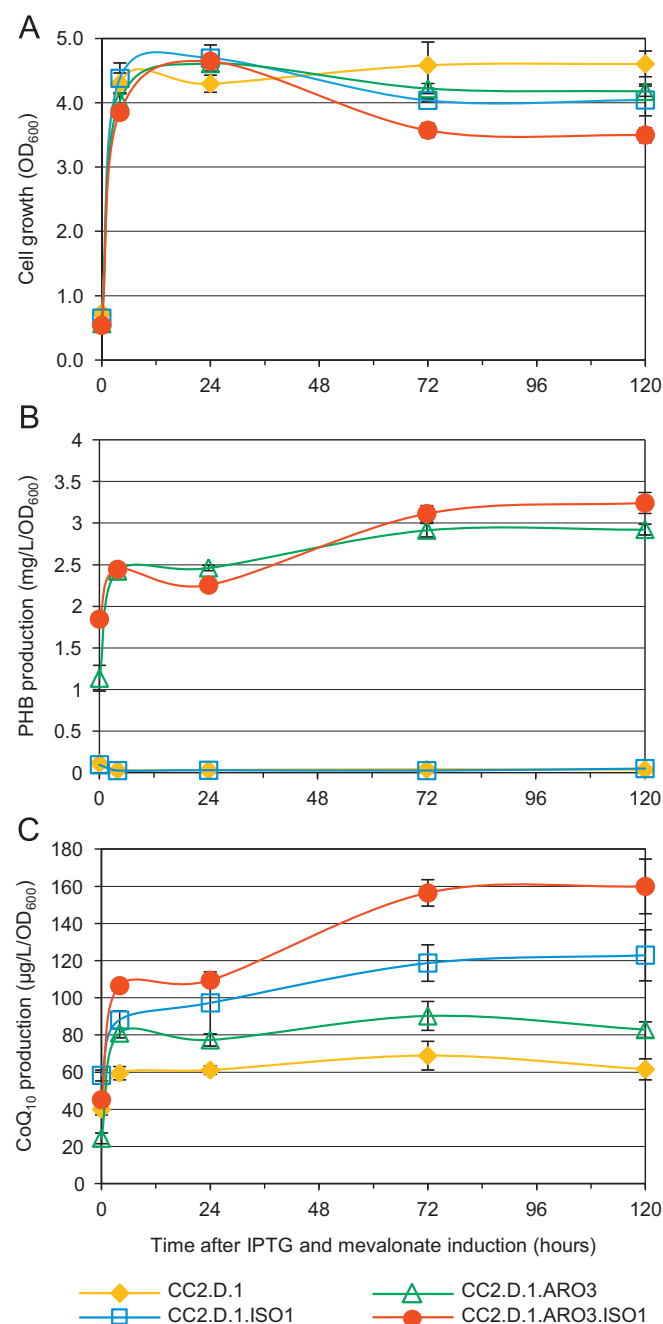


Fig. 4. Growth and metabolite production in strains expressing the upper and lower synthetic aromatic pathway operons, and/or the lower mevalonate operon. Tested strains were grown in 50-mL cultures to exponential phase, induced with 0.5 mM IPTG and 10 mM mevalonate. Samples were taken at 0, 4, 24, 72 and 120 h after induction in order to measure (A) the OD₆₀₀, (B) the accumulation of PHB in the growth media and (C) the intracellular concentration of CoQ₁₀. Error bars represent the standard deviation of two biological replicates.

isoprenoid molecules is controlled by the MEP pathway (Fig. 1A). However, their production can be dramatically increased by the heterologous expression in *E. coli* of the typically eukaryotic mevalonate pathway (Martin et al., 2003). The pMBIS plasmid harbors the lower mevalonate operon, which includes genes coding for ERG12, ERG8 and MVD1, derived from *S. cerevisiae*, as well as the *E. coli* genes coding for Idi and IspA (Fig. 1A and B). The expression of pMBIS results in significant increases in the production of FPP and IPP in the presence of exogenously supplied mevalonate (Martin et al., 2003). In order to increase the

availability of FPP for CoQ₁₀ biosynthesis, we transformed pMBIS into CC2.D, yielding CC2.D.1.ISO1. The expression of this construct in CC2.D.1.ISO1 resulted in a 2-fold increase in CoQ₁₀ content (123 µg/L/OD₆₀₀) over the control CC2.D.1 (Fig. 4C).

Prompted by these results, we hypothesized that an even greater increase in CoQ₁₀ production would be observed if both the PHB and the isoprenoid pathways were over-expressed in the same strain. The engineered aromatic and lower mevalonate pathways were introduced in strain CC2.D, resulting in strain CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1, and the latter was tested for CoQ₁₀ production. As shown by Fig. 4C, CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1 reached a CoQ₁₀ content of 160 µg/L/OD₆₀₀, a 2.6-fold increase over the control CC2.D.1. This suggests that both aromatic and isoprenoid precursors are rate-limiting for CoQ₁₀ biosynthesis and that both of these pathways can be simultaneously engineered in *E. coli* to produce a high CoQ₁₀-producing strain without the need for feeding the PHB precursor. Only a slight difference was observed in PHB accumulation between CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1 and CC2.D.1.ARO3 (Fig. 4B).

In addition to its increased CoQ₁₀ content, CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1 had elevated concentrations of an unknown molecule, which eluted 1 min before CoQ₁₀ on the HPLC chromatogram (Fig. 5A). Analysis of this unknown compound by LC–MS–MS revealed a precursor ion at $m/z=792$ and product ions at $m/z=775$ and $m/z=107$ (Fig. 5B, Fig. S2), characteristic of the ammonium adduct $[M+NH_4]^+$, the protonated ion $[M+H]^+$ and the tropylium ion $[M]^+$, respectively, derived from the CoQ₁₀ intermediate, 2-decaprenylphenol (10P-Ph) (Cox et al., 1969; Hsu et al., 1996; Matsumura et al., 1983). 10P-Ph is the second intermediate of the ubiquinone pathway, formed by the hydroxylation of 3-decaprenyl-4-hydroxybenzoate (10P-HB) (Fig. 1A) (Alexander and Young, 1978). Although the unavailability of a suitable standard precluded the quantification of this compound, a comparison of its relative abundance between different strains revealed that CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1 accumulated 14 times more 10P-Ph than CC2.D.1.ISO1, while CC2.D.1.ARO3 did not accumulate detectable levels of this intermediate (Fig. 5C).

3.4. Over-expression of a para-hydroxybenzoate decaprenyl transferase from *Erythrobacter* sp. NAP1

Although we observed an increase in CoQ₁₀ production following the over-expression of both the aromatic and the lower

mevalonate pathways in CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1, we found that PHB accumulation levels by the latter and by CC2.D.1.ARO3 were almost similar (Fig. 4B). The entry of PHB and DPP into the ubiquinone pathway is brought about by the PHB prenyltransferase, UbiA, condensing DPP and PHB to form 10P-HB (Fig. 1A). It is possible that the limited flux of PHB towards the ubiquinone pathway in CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1 reflects a bottleneck at the PHB prenylation step carried out by UbiA. We hypothesized that microorganisms naturally accumulating high levels of CoQ₁₀ might express PHB decaprenyl transferases of increased efficiency. In order to overcome a potential bottleneck at the PHB prenylation step in our engineered *E. coli* strains, we expressed a codon-optimized version of *ubiA* (*ubiA_o*) that was isolated from the CoQ₁₀-producing marine bacterium *Erythrobacter* sp. NAP1 (Fig. 1B). The plasmid pTubiA_oDPS_o was expressed in a $\Delta ispB$ background along with the aromatic operons, the pMBIS plasmid or the corresponding empty vectors, yielding strains CC2.DU.1, CC2.DU.1.ARO3, CC2.DU.1.ISO1 and CC2.DU.1.ARO3.ISO1 (Table 1).

The heterologous expression of *ubiA_o* in CC2.DU.1.ISO1, CC2.DU.1.ARO3, CC2.DU.1.ARO3.ISO1 and CC2.DU.1 was associated with an extended initial lag phase and with reduced growth (Fig. 6A). The accumulation of PHB was 3.6-fold higher in CC2.DU.1.ARO3 than in CC2.DU.1.ARO3.ISO1 suggesting that the latter was either producing less PHB, or that PHB was metabolized into other molecules (Fig. 6B). Consistent with the hypothesis that the over-expression of UbiA_o favors the production of CoQ₁₀ when high concentrations of aromatic and isoprenoid precursors are available, CC2.DU.ARO3.ISO1 achieved the highest CoQ₁₀ content amongst the strains tested. As shown by Fig. 6C, CC2.DU.ARO3.ISO1 produced up to 213 µg/L/OD₆₀₀, compared to 138 µg/L/OD₆₀₀ for CC1.D.1.ARO3.ISO1 (Fig. 6C). The specific CoQ₁₀ content for CC2.DU.ARO3.ISO1 was estimated to be 0.8 mg/g DCW. In contrast to its higher CoQ₁₀ content, CC2.DU.ARO3.ISO1 produced 1.8-fold less 10P-Ph than CC1.D.1.ARO3.ISO1 (Fig. 6D). This suggests that the over-expression of UbiA_o reduces the accumulation of 10P-Ph in CC2.DU.ARO3.ISO1, and favors the accumulation of CoQ₁₀.

The over-expression of UbiA_o along with the lower mevalonate pathway in CC2.DU.ISO1 resulted in the accumulation of a new compound, which eluted from the HPLC column 4.5 min before CoQ₁₀ (Fig. 7A). Analysis of this molecule by LC–MS–MS revealed

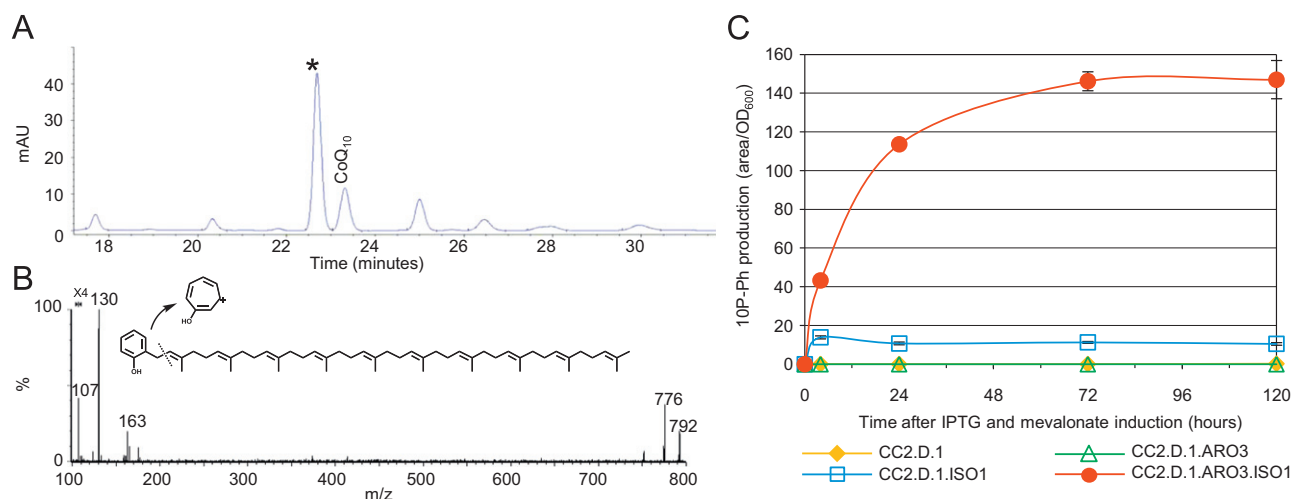


Fig. 5. Production of 2-decaprenylphenol (10P-Ph) by CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1. The production of a ubiquinone pathway intermediate, 10P-Ph, was characterized in CC1.D.1.ARO3.ISO1. (A) HPLC chromatogram of extracted quinones from CC1.D.1.ARO3.ISO1, 24 h after induction with 0.5 mM IPTG and 10 mM mevalonate. The 10P-Ph peak is labeled with a star. (B) LC–MS–MS spectrum of 10P-Ph. The fragmented precursor ion yielded an ammonium adduct $[M+NH_4]^+$ ($C_{56}H_{90}ON^+$, exact mass 792.7), a protonated ion $[M+H]^+$ ($C_{56}H_{87}O^+$, exact mass 775.7) and a tropylium ion $[M]^+$ ($C_7H_7O^+$, exact mass 107.0). The identity of 10P-Ph was confirmed in parallel on a LTQ Orbitrap Velos MS (Fig. S2). (C) Time-course of 10P-Ph production in 50-mL cultures, after induction with 0.5 mM IPTG and 10 mM mevalonate. Error bars represent the standard deviation of two biological replicates.

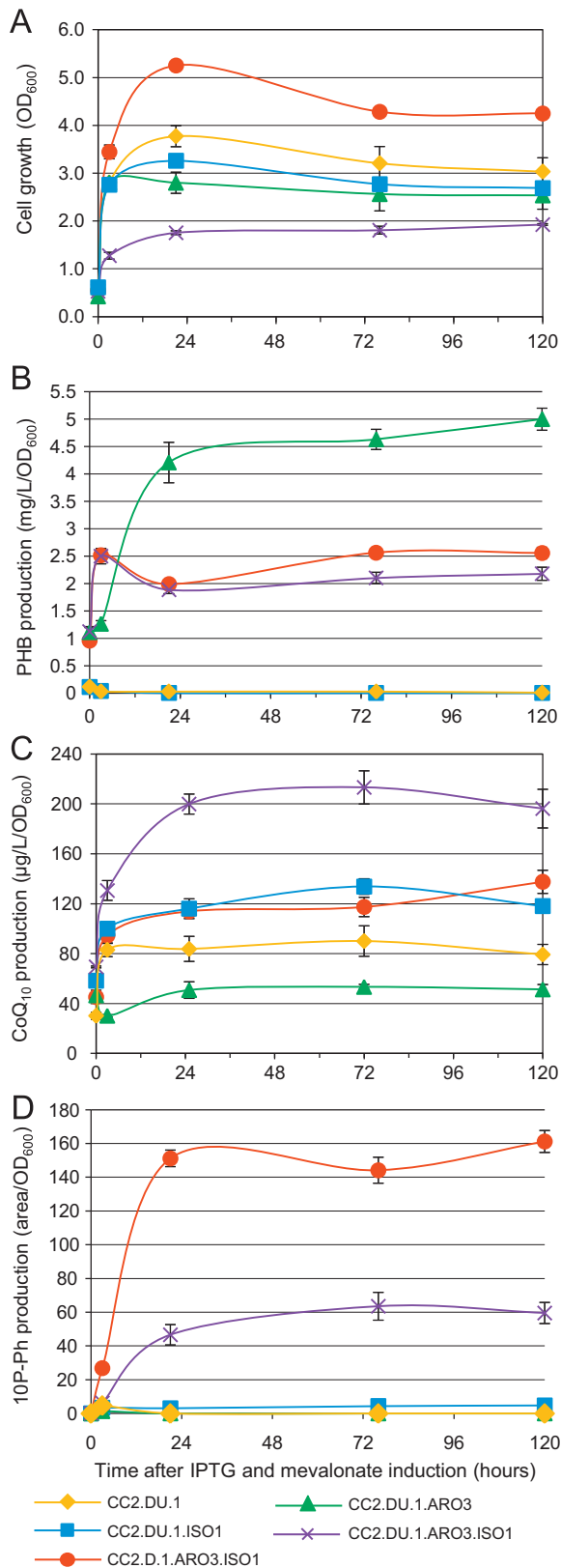


Fig. 6. Growth and metabolite production in strains expressing the upper and lower aromatic operons, the lower mevalonate operon and/or the PHB prenyltransferase UbiA₆. Tested strains were grown in 50-mL cultures to exponential phase, then induced with 0.5 mM IPTG and 10 mM mevalonate. Samples were taken at 0, 3, 25, 72 and 120 h after induction in order to measure (A) the OD₆₀₀, (B) the accumulation of PHB in the growth media, (C) the intracellular concentration of CoQ₁₀ and (D) the intracellular concentration of 10P-Ph. Error bars represent the standard deviation of two biological replicates.

a precursor ion of m/z 818 and a product ion of m/z 150, corresponding to the protonated precursor ion and to the tropylium product ion, respectively, of 3-decaprenyl-4-aminobenzoate (10P-AB) (Fig. 7B) (Hamilton and Cox, 1971; Marbois et al., 2010). The accumulation of this hybrid metabolite has never been observed in a CoQ₁₀-producing *E. coli* strain, but has been reported in *E. coli* when UbiA uses *para*-aminobenzoate (PABA) as its substrate, typically when the production of PHB is defective (Hamilton and Cox, 1971; Lawrence et al., 1974). Interestingly, none of the other strains tested produced measurable amounts of 2-decaprenyl-4-aminobenzoate (Fig. 7C).

4. Discussion

The use of *E. coli* as a host for the production of CoQ₁₀ offers several advantages, including the capacity to optimize metabolic pathways playing roles in its production. In this research we sought to systematically investigate how different approaches, both hypothesized and published (Zahiri et al., 2006b; Zhang et al., 2007), affect the flux of carbon towards CoQ₁₀ in recombinant *E. coli*. As such, we set out to increase flux of precursor molecules to the ubiquinone pathway by simultaneously increasing the production of both the aromatic and isoprenoid precursor molecules, as well as increasing the PHB prenyltransferase (UbiA) activity.

Strain CC2.DU.1.ARO3.ISO1, which combines the over-expression of isoprenoid and aromatic precursors with that of DPS₀ and UbiA₆, achieved a 3.2-fold increase in CoQ₁₀ content compared to the control strain CC2.D.1, over-expressing DPS₀ alone (Figs. 6C and 4C). This indicates that the increased flux of precursors towards the ubiquinone pathway can significantly improve CoQ₁₀ content in engineered *E. coli*. Nevertheless, the specific CoQ₁₀ content obtained in CC2.DU.1.ARO3.ISO1 (0.8 mg/g DCW) was inferior to those previously reported following the over-expression of a DPS and of a foreign mevalonate pathway in *E. coli* (Zahiri et al., 2006b). However, the latter report describes considerable increases in CoQ₁₀ content following optimization of the growth medium, which was beyond the scope of our study (Zahiri et al., 2006b). Additionally, the 213 μg/L/OD₆₀₀ CoQ₁₀ obtained in CC2.DU.1.ARO3.ISO1 represents 2% of the theoretical yield from PHB in our strain (Fig. 6), indicating that bottlenecks still prohibit maximum CoQ₁₀ content. We also found that the expression of pTubiA₆DPS₀ is toxic to our engineered strains (Fig. 6A). Replacement of the *Erythrobacter ubiA₆* by the *E. coli ubiA* did not alleviate this reduced growth phenotype (data not shown). While growth defects have not been reported in other accounts of UbiA over-expression (Ohara et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2007, 2006; Zhu et al., 1995), the plasmid copy number, promoter strength and growth conditions are not identical to those described in this study. In order to attenuate the toxicity associated with UbiA₆, it may be necessary to lower the copy-number of the expression plasmid, or to decrease the translation rate of the protein by lowering the incubation temperature after induction (Wagner et al., 2006). Alternatively, it is possible that the observed phenotype is due to the accumulation of a detrimental intermediate created by an imbalance in enzyme activities throughout the pathway. Therefore, further optimization of the expression levels of different enzymes may be required to balance carbon flux and relieve growth defects in strains expressing UbiA₆ (Pitera et al., 2007).

The recombinant expression of the synthetic upper and lower aromatic pathway operons significantly increased the production of PHB in our engineered strains (Figs. 4B and 6B). Yet, it is uncertain whether the PHB produced remains at a high concentration in the cytoplasm, where it can readily be used by UbiA, or if it is rapidly excreted into the growth media. It may be possible

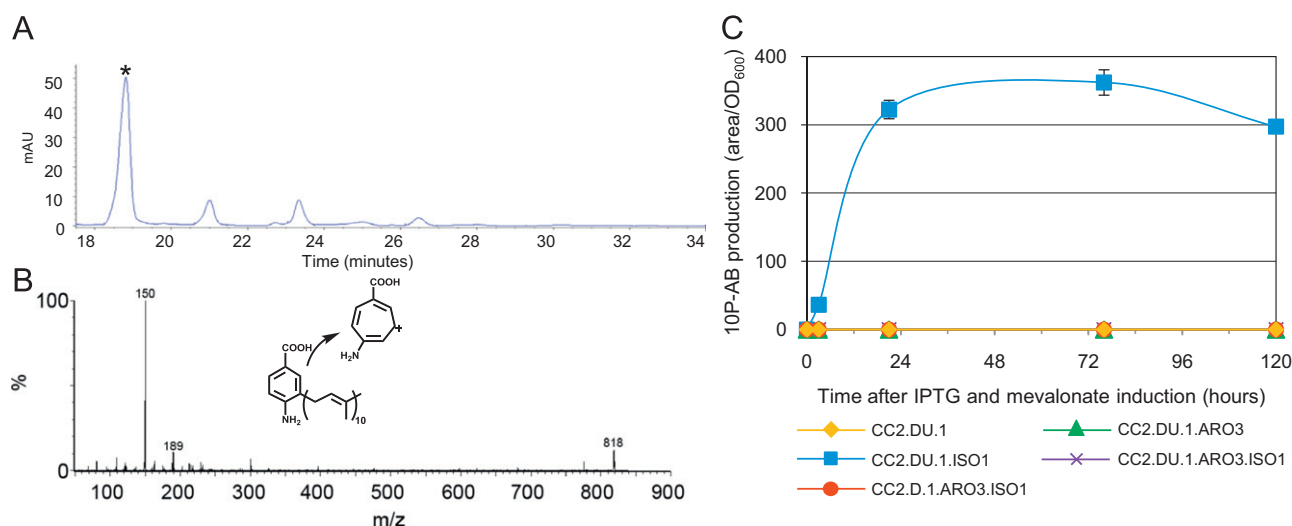


Fig. 7. Production of 3-decaprenyl-4-aminobenzoate (10P-AB) by CC2.DU.1.ISO1. The production of 10P-AB was characterized in CC2.DU.1.ISO1. (A) HPLC chromatogram of extracted quinones from CC2.DU.1.ISO1, 24 h after induction with 0.5 mM IPTG and 10 mM mevalonate. The 10P-AB peak is labeled with a star. (B) LC-MS-MS spectrum of 10P-AB. The fragmented precursor ion yielded a protonated ion $[M+H]^+$ ($C_{57}H_{88}NO_2^+$, exact mass 818.7), and a tropylium ion $[M]^+$ ($C_8H_8NO_2^+$, exact mass 150.1). (C) Time-course of 10P-AB production in 50-mL cultures, after induction with 0.5 mM IPTG and 10 mM mevalonate. Error bars represent the standard deviation of two biological replicates.

to further increase flux towards PHB by abolishing the expression of enzymes competing for its precursor, chorismate (Barker and Frost, 2001; Nakajima et al., 2009). Exogenous PHB up-regulates *aaeXAB* in *E. coli*, an operon coding for efflux proteins involved in the excretion of PHB out of the cell (Van Dyk et al., 2004). Ensuring the availability of PHB to UbiA in the cytoplasm, rather than maximizing its production, may be key to further improving CoQ₁₀ contents in *E. coli*.

The introduction of the pMBIS plasmid aimed at alleviating bottlenecks resulting from the rate-limiting supply of isoprenoid precursors (Kim et al., 2006; Zahiri et al., 2006b). Although, the expression of the enzymes encoded by the MBIS operon allows for the production of high levels of FPP and IPP/DMAPP (Martin et al., 2003), DPS_o may not fully convert these precursor molecules into DPP. We have shown that complementation of the *DispB* deletion strain, an essential gene for *E. coli* (Okada et al., 1997b), with *dps_o* is sufficient to restore growth. However, assuming similar extinction coefficients between CoQ₈ and CoQ₁₀, the accumulation of CoQ₁₀ in strain CC2.D is less than the accumulation of CoQ₈ in the wild-type strain MG1655 (Fig. 2), suggesting that the catalytic properties of DPS_o may be inferior to those of IspB. DPS_o activity also leads to the production of CoQ₁₁, suggesting that this particular enzyme produces *E*-undecaprenyl diphosphate in addition to DPP. While the heterologous expression of several DPS proteins has been documented to result in the production of shorter *E*-polyprenyl species in addition to DPP, as inferred by the accumulation of a mixture of CoQ₁₀, CoQ₉ and CoQ₈ (Okada et al., 1997a; Park et al., 2005; Takahashi et al., 2003; Zahiri et al., 2006a), the biosynthesis of *E*-undecaprenyl diphosphate and of CoQ₁₁ has, to the best of our knowledge, never before been reported in *E. coli*. A more complete characterization and optimization of DPS_o, or an investigation into alternative DPS enzymes with variable kinetic properties (Ma et al., 2011), will be necessary to ensure that the supply of DPP is not limiting CoQ₁₀ production.

The enhanced production of aromatic and isoprenoid molecules in CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1 and CC2.DU.1.ARO3.ISO1 led to the accumulation of 10P-Ph, an intermediate of the ubiquinone pathway (Figs. 5C and 6D). While the accumulation of 10P-Ph and octaprenylphenol (8P-Ph) as a by-product of CoQ₁₀ and CoQ₈ biosynthesis has been documented in anaerobic cultures of

Paracoccus denitrificans (Matsumura et al., 1983) and *E. coli* (Alexander and Young, 1978), respectively, this is the first time that the accumulation of 10P-Ph is reported in an *E. coli* strain engineered to produce CoQ₁₀. The intermediate 8P-Ph accumulates in a number of *E. coli* strains carrying mutations in genes of the ubiquinone pathway, such as *ubiB*, *ubiH* and *ubiG* (Alexander and Young, 1978; Hsu et al., 1996; Poon et al., 2000; Young et al., 1973). When flux through the ubiquinone pathway increases as a result of the augmented production of aromatic and isoprenoid precursors, the activity of one of the above-mentioned Ubi enzymes may become rate-limiting, resulting in the accumulation of 10P-Ph. The strain CC2.DU.1.ARO3.ISO1 had a lower 10P-Ph content compared to CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1, along with higher CoQ₁₀ production (Fig. 6D), suggesting that increasing PHB prenyltransferase activity improves the flux within the ubiquinone pathway, downstream of the decarboxylation step. It is possible that one or more enzymes of the ubiquinone pathway are dependent on UbiA for their activity. Studies in *S. cerevisiae* provide compelling evidence for the existence of a multi-protein complex involved in the production of CoQ₆ (Gin and Clarke, 2005; Gin et al., 2003; Johnson et al., 2005; Tran et al., 2006). It is hypothesized that Coq2p, the homolog of UbiA, does not physically interact with the complex, but that its product, 3-hexaprenyl-4-hydroxybenzoate (6P-HB), plays a role in the assembly and/or stability of the complex (Hsieh et al., 2007; Hsu et al., 2000; Suzuki et al., 1994). While physical interactions between Ubi proteins have not yet been demonstrated in *E. coli*, early literature on the ubiquinone pathway hints at the existence of a soluble multi-protein complex capable of converting 8P-Ph to CoQ₈ (Knoell, 1979, 1981). Increasing the expression of the members of this protein complex will be key to further channeling 10P-Ph towards CoQ₁₀ in strains CC2.D.1.ARO3.ISO1 and in CC2.DU.1.ARO3.ISO1.

The increased production of isoprenoids, coupled with the over-expression of UbiA_o in CC2.DU.1.ISO1, led to the accumulation of a new metabolite, 10P-AB (Fig. 7). This compound does not have a known biological function in *E. coli*, but accumulates in a mutant lacking chorismate lyase activity when grown in the presence of PABA (Hamilton and Cox, 1971). Growth inhibition of *E. coli* by high concentrations of exogenous PABA can be reversed by the addition of PHB (Davis, 1951), suggesting that PABA may act as a competitive inhibitor of UbiA by displacing

PHB within the active site of UbiA. In CC2.DU.1.ISO1, the increased PHB prenyl transferase (UbiA_o) activity combined with the higher availability of DPP may result in the exhaustion of the endogenously produced PHB, causing UbiA/UbiA_o to accept PABA as an alternative substrate. In *S. cerevisiae*, PABA can also be used as a substrate for Coq2p and further channeled through the ubiquinone pathway (Marbois et al., 2010). Based on the results of this study, it would appear that while UbiA can use PABA to form 10P-AB, the latter compound is not recognized by the *E. coli* decarboxylases UbiD and UbiX, therefore leading to an accumulation of this metabolite in CC2.DU.1.ISO1. These findings demonstrate the importance of precursor stoichiometry in the metabolic engineering of complex multi-branch pathways.

In summary, this report describes the development of a CoQ₁₀-producing *E. coli* strain engineered to over-produce aromatic and isoprenoid precursors and to have increased PHB prenyl transferase activity. It is the first instance where both precursor pathways have been over-expressed and genetically deregulated in combination with the over-expression of the enzyme bridging these two pathways, UbiA. The results presented in this study highlight the existence of previously unreported bottlenecks in CoQ₁₀ over-production in *E. coli*, and will enhance our ability to design further improvements of this system.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.ymben.2011.09.009.

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