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Dynamic upregulation of the rate-limiting enzyme for valerolactam biosynthesis in Corynebacterium glutamicum

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1	Dynamic upregulation of the rate-limiting enzyme for valerolactam
2	biosynthesis in Corynebacterium glutamicum
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Highlights

- Design of a dynamic upregulation system (ChnR/Pb, valerolactam biosensor) for the rate-limiting enzymes in the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway.
- Laboratory evolution to engineer ChnR/Pb to have higher sensitivity and a higher dynamic output range.
- The highest titer of Valerolactam reached 12.33 g/L in a 1.2 L fermenter.

#### 27 Abstract

Valerolactam is a monomer used to manufacture high-value nylon-5 and nylon-28 6,5. However, the biological production of valerolactam has been limited by the 29 inadequate efficiency of enzymes to cyclize 5-aminovaleric acid to produce 30 valerolactam. In this study, we engineered Corynebacterium glutamicum with a 31 valerolactam biosynthetic pathway consisting of DavAB from Pseudomonas 32 *putida* to convert L-lysine to 5-aminovaleric acid and  $\beta$ -alanine CoA transferase 33 (Act) from Clostridium propionicum to produce valerolactam from 5-34 aminovaleric acid. Most of the L-lysine was converted into 5-aminovaleric acid, 35 but promoter optimization and increasing the copy number of Act were 36 insufficient to significantly improve the titer of valerolactam. To eliminate the 37 38 bottleneck at Act, we designed a dynamic upregulation system (a positive feedback loop based on the valerolactam biosensor ChnR/Pb). We used 39 laboratory evolution to engineer ChnR/Pb to have higher sensitivity and a 40 higher dynamic output range, and the engineered ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system was 41 used to overexpress the rate-limiting enzymes (Act/ORF26/CaiC) that cyclize 42 5-aminovaleric acid into valerolactam. In glucose fed-batch culture, we obtained 43 12.33 g/L valerolactam from the dynamic upregulation of Act, 11.88 g/L using 44 ORF26, and 12.15 g/L using CaiC. Our engineered biosensor (ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 45 system) was also sensitive to 0.01-100 mM caprolactam, which suggests that 46 this dynamic upregulation system can be used to enhance caprolactam 47 biosynthesis in the future. 48

- 49 Keywords: Dynamic regulation, valerolactam, biosensor engineering,
- 50 Corynebacterium glutamicum.

52 **1. Introduction** 

53

Lactams are used as monomers for the synthesis of industrial polyamides 54 (nylon-4, nylon-5, nylon-6, nylon-6,5, etc.) (Yeom et al., 2018)(Chae et al., 55 2017)(Zhang et al., 2017b). Nylons are widely used in automobile parts, carpets, 56 and packaging due to their high tensile strength, good elasticity, and excellent 57 abrasion resistance. The global market for nylon-6 (with caprolactam as the 58 monomer) was estimated at USD 15 billion in 2019, and the market is growing, 59 60 propelled, in part, by an increasing demand for lightweight vehicles (Gordillo Sierra and Alper, 2020). Nylon-6,5 can be synthesized using valerolactam and 61 caprolactam as monomers and has different properties than nylon-6 due to the 62 63 addition of valerolactam (Park et al., 2014). Valerolactam and caprolactam are currently produced by petrochemical processes that require high temperatures 64 and harsh acidic conditions, are energy intensive, and produce large amounts 65 of waste. Biosynthesis of these lactams will alleviate many of these issues 66 (Gordillo Sierra and Alper, 2020). 67

The biosynthetic pathway to produce valerolactam from lysine has three enzymes, DavB (L-lysine monooxygenase) and DavA (5-aminovaleramide amidohydrolase) from *Pseudomonas putida* and an enzyme for the cyclization step of 5-aminovaleric acid (5-AVA) to valerolactam (Chae et al., 2017)(Zhang et al., 2017b). Recently, *Corynebacterium glutamicum* was engineered to produce 48.3 g/L 5-AVA by balancing the expression of heterologous *davAB* 

genes from *P. putida*, reducing the formation of the byproduct glutarate, 74 increasing 5-AVA export and reducing 5-AVA reimport (Rohles et al., 2022). 75 Additionally, Escherichia coli WL3110 was engineered with the same pathway 76 to produce 90.59 g/L 5-AVA from 120 g/L L-lysine (Park et al., 2014). While 5-77 AVA has been produced in high titer, there has been less progress in producing 78 valerolactam. When Act (*β*-alanine CoA transferase) was used for the 79 cyclization step, 1.18 g/L valerolactam was synthesized from glucose in 80 Escherichia coli (Chae et al., 2017), and 705 mg/L valerolactam was 81 82 synthesized from 10 g/L L-lysine when DavB, DavA, and ORF26 (acyl-CoA ligase) were co-expressed in E. coli (Zhang et al., 2017b). The limited titer of 83 the biosynthesized valerolactam is due to the inefficiency of the cyclization of 84 85 5-AVA to valerolactam (Zhang et al., 2017b)(Gordillo Sierra and Alper, 2020).

In traditional metabolic engineering strategies, heterologously expressed 86 pathway genes are modulated by increasing the DNA copy number, optimizing 87 promoter and ribosome binding strength, and engineering pathway enzymes to 88 maximize the production of the target chemicals (Brockman and Prather, 2015). 89 These strategies can effectively improve titer, rate, and yield of the desired final 90 product. Additionally, dynamic regulation systems have been effective for 91 increasing the titer of products through the upregulation or downregulation of 92 pathway genes by internally sensing metabolite levels in real time (Zhang et al., 93 2012)(Dahl et al., 2013)(Jones et al., 2015)(Yang et al., 2018). For example, 94 the transcription factor CatR has been designed for the dynamic upregulation 95

of salicylate biosynthesis in the muconic acid biosynthetic pathway, and this 96 strategy successfully increased the muconic acid titer by 5.87-fold compared 97 with static control (Yang et al., 2018). Another strategy for dynamic regulation 98 has been designed based on a positive feedback loop, in which the gene 99 product enhances its own production directly or indirectly by amplifying the 100 expression level of enzymes for its production. In Neurospora crassa, the 101 transcription factor CLR-2 was placed under the control of Pcbh-1, which is a 102 target of CLR-2. The expression level of CLR-2 was significantly increased 103 using this positive feedback loop and hence amplified the expression of 104 approximately 50% of 78 lignocellulosic degradation-related genes, which 105 revealed a previously unappreciated role of CLR-2 in the lignocellulosic 106 107 degradation gene network (Matsu-Ura et al., 2018). Finally, a LuxR-based positive feedback loop was designed as a genetic signal amplifier, and the 108 maximum expression level of the output signal was substantially increased in 109 the strains with a positive feedback loop compared to those without (Nistala et 110 al., 2010). In light of the previously reported biosensors for various lactams 111 (ChnR/Pb system), we reasoned that it should be possible to increase the titer 112 of valerolactam by dynamically upregulating the rate-limiting cyclization step. 113

*C. glutamicum* was chosen as the host to produce valerolactam because it is known to produce high levels of lysine and 5-AVA (Fig. 1A)(Becker et al., 2011)(Shin et al., 2016) (Chae et al., 2017)(Zhang et al., 2017b)(Rohles et al., 2022). We engineered wild-type *C. glutamicum* with *davAB* and *act* by

traditional metabolic engineering to increase its production of valerolactam. The
 lactam biosensor was then optimized and used to control the expression of the
 cyclization enzyme, leading to a 10-fold improvement in valerolactam
 production during fed-batch fermentation (Chae et al., 2017).

122

#### 123 **2. Materials and Methods**

#### 124 **2.1 Experimental materials**

All bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 1 and 125 Table S1 respectively. All primers were synthesized at GENEWIZ (Suzhou, 126 China) and are listed in Table S2. The valerolactam biosynthetic pathway genes 127 davB and davA from Pseudomonas putida KT2440, act from Clostridium 128 129 propionicum, orf26 from Streptomyces aizunensis, and caiC from Escherichia coli were codon optimized for all C. glutamicum and synthesized at GENEWIZ 130 (Suzhou, China) (the sequences of the C. glutamicum-codon optimized 131 versions of davB and davA from P. putida were the same as those described 132 by (Shin et al., 2016)). The sequences of the C. glutamicum codon-optimized 133 genes are listed in Table S3. 134

135

**Table 1** Bacterial strains used in this study.

Strain	Description	Source
<i>Ε. coli</i> DH5α	General cloning purpose. Genotype:	Lab
	F <sup>–</sup> φ80 <i>lac</i> ZΔM15 Δ( <i>lac</i> ZYA- <i>arg</i> F)	stock

	U169 <i>rec</i> A1 <i>end</i> A1 <i>hsd</i> R17(r <sub>K</sub> -,	
	mκ⁺) <i>pho</i> A <i>sup</i> E44 <i>thi</i> -1 <i>gyr</i> A96 <i>rel</i> A1 λ⁻	
<i>E. coli</i> DH10B	F <i>−mcr</i> A Δ( <i>mrr-hsd</i> RMS <i>-mcr</i> BC)	Lab
	φ80 <i>lac</i> ZΔM15	stock
	∆lacX74 recA1 endA1 araD139 ∆(ara-	
	<i>leu</i> )7697 <i>gal</i> U <i>gal</i> K λ⁻ <i>rps</i> L(Str <sup>R</sup> ) <i>nup</i> G	
C. glutamicum	Wilt type	Lab
ATCC 13032		stock
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum ATCC 13032 derivate, lysC	This
XT1	(C932T)	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pCES208-	This
Val-1	H1davAB	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pCES208-	This
Val-2	H1davAB-act	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-3	H1davAB-act	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-4	H1davAB-H1act	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-5	H1davAB-Pb-act-chnR	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-6	H1davAB-E1-act	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-7	H1davAB-E1-act-chnR	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This

Val-8		H1davAB-Pb-act-B1	study
val-0			olday
С.	glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-	.9	H1davAB-E1-act-B1	study
C.	alutomioum	C alutaniaum XT1 barbaring nUCD	This
U.	giulaniicuni	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	1115
Val-	10	H1davAB-orf26	study
			<b>,</b>
С.	glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-11		H1davAB-E1-orf26-B1	study
С.	alutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
•	grate		
Val-12		H1davAB-caiC	study
С.	glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-13		H1davAB-E1-caiC-B1	etudy
val-1J		IIIuavAD-EI-CalC-DI	study

137

Luria-Bertani (LB) broth or plates (1.5%, w/v, agar) containing appropriate antibiotics were used for *E. coli* inoculation, plasmid propagation, and transformation. Kanamycin (50  $\mu$ g/mL) and chloramphenicol (25  $\mu$ g/mL) were added to the medium when necessary. *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  was used for general cloning purposes, and *E. coli* DH10B was used for biosensor characterization and mutant library construction and sorting.

*Corynebacterium glutamicum* ATCC13032 was used as the base strain for the
construction of the L-lysine-producing and valerolactam-producing chassis
strains. LBHIS (tryptone 5 g/L, yeast extract 2.5 g/L, NaCl 5 g/L, BHI 18.5 g/L,
sorbitol 91 g/L, pH=7.2) broth or plates with 25 µg/mL kanamycin were used for

the cultivation or transformation of *C. glutamicum*.

149

#### 150 **2.2 Genetic manipulation**

All DNA manipulation was performed according to standard protocols (Green 151 and Sambrook, 2012). Phanta DNA polymerase (Vazyme, Biotech, Co., Ltd., 152 China) was used for DNA fragment amplification by polymerase chain reaction 153 (PCR, ThermoFisher ProFlex PCR system). The kits for DNA fragment 154 purification and gel extraction were purchased from Omega Bio-Tek Inc. 155 (Norcross, GA, USA). The plasmid miniprep kit was purchased from TIANGEN 156 Biotech (Beijing, China), and the Gibson assembly reaction kit was purchased 157 from New England Biolabs (NEB, Ipswich, MA, USA). 158

The plasmid pK18mobsacB was used for point mutation of the lysC gene in the 159 C. glutamicum ATCC13032 genome. The primers P1 and P2 were used to 160 amplify the pK18 backbone from pK18mobsacB, primers P3 and P4 with a point 161 mutation (C932T, red font) were used to amplify part of lysC from the C. 162 glutamicum ATCC13032 genome, and primers P5 with a point mutation (C932T, 163 red font) and P6 were used to amplify the other part of *lysC* and 588 bp of the 164 lysC downstream fragment from the C. glutamicum ATCC13032 genome; the 165 pK18-lysC plasmid was obtained by Gibson assembly of the above three 166 fragments. Then, pK18-lysC was transformed into C. glutamicum ATCC13032. 167 After double crossover homologous recombination driven by sucrose selection 168 based on the function of sacB (Schäfer et al., 1994), we obtained the C. 169

170 *glutamicum* XT1 (*lysC*: C932T) strain with sequence confirmation.

For promoter strength analysis in C. glutamicum XT1, primers P7 (containing 171 part of the H1 sequence) and P8 were used to amplify the H1-mCherry fragment 172 from pBbSlactam, primers P9 and P10 (containing part of the H1 sequence) 173 were used to amplify the pEC backbone from pEC-XK99E, and then Gibson 174 assembly of the above two fragments was performed to obtain pH1-mCherry. 175 Primers P11 (containing part of the H2 sequence) and P8 were used to amplify 176 the H2-mCherry fragment from pBbSlactam, primers P12 (containing part of the 177 H2 sequence) and P9 were used to amplify the pEC backbone from pEC-178 XK99E, and Gibson assembly of the above two fragments was used to obtain 179 pH2-mCherry. Primers P13 (containing part of the H9 sequence) and P8 were 180 used to amplify the H9-mCherry fragment from pBbSlactam, primers P14 181 (containing part of the H9 sequence) and P9 were used to amplify the pEC 182 backbone from pEC-XK99E, and Gibson assembly of the above two fragments 183 was performed to obtain **pH9-mCherry**. Primers P15 (containing part of the 184 H10 sequence) and P8 were used to amplify the H10-mCherry fragment from 185 pBbSlactam, primers P16 (containing part of the H9 sequence) and P9 were 186 used to amplify the pEC backbone from pEC-XK99E, and Gibson assembly of 187 the above two fragments was performed to obtain pH10-mCherry. 188

189 To construct the high copy number plasmids derived from pCES208 (a kind gift 190 from Prof. Sang Yup Lee's Lab, (Park et al., 2008)), it was necessary to

introduce a nonsense mutation in the *parB* locus (Choi et al., 2018). Primers 191 P17 (with point mutation of *parB*, red font) and P18 (with point mutation of *parB*, 192 red font) were used to insert the point mutation into parB. Then, Gibson 193 assembly of this single PCR fragment was performed to obtain the pHCP 194 plasmid, and pCES208 and pHCP were used as backbones to construct the 195 valerolactam biosynthetic pathway. Primers P19 (containing part of the H1 196 sequence) and P20 (containing part of the RBS for davB and the RBS sequence 197 is from (Shin et al., 2016)) were used to amplify H1-davA from the synthesized 198 codon-optimized davA plasmid. Primers P21 (containing the RBS for davB) and 199 P22 (containing the RBS (Rohles et al., 2016) for act/orf26/caiC) were used to 200 amplify the davB fragment from the synthesized codon-optimized davB plasmid. 201 202 Primers P23 and P24 were used to amplify the act fragment from the synthesized codon-optimized act plasmid, and then primers P19 and P24 were 203 used for fusion PCR of the H1-davA, davB and act fragments to obtain the H1-204 davAB-act fragment. Primers P25 and P26 were used to amplify the pHCP 205 backbone from the pHCP plasmid, and then Gibson assembly of the pHCP 206 backbone and H1-davAB-act was performed to obtain the pHCP-H1davAB-act 207 plasmid. For pCES208-H1davAB-act plasmid construction, primers P25 and 208 P26 were used to amplify the pCES208 backbone from the pCES208 plasmid, 209 and then Gibson assembly of the pCES208 backbone with the H1-davAB-act 210 fragment was performed to obtain the plasmid. For pCES208-H1davAB plasmid 211 construction, primer P19 and primer P27 were used to amplify the H1davAB 212

fragment from H1davAB-act, and then Gibson assembly of pCES208 with
H1davAB was performed to obtain the plasmid.

For pHCP-H1davAB-H1act plasmid construction, primers P21 and P28 were used to amplify *davB*-H1 from the synthesized codon-optimized *davB* plasmid. Primer P19 and primer P24 were used to amplify the H1-*act* fragment from the synthesized codon-optimized *act* plasmid, and then primers P19 and P24 were used for fusion PCR of the H1-*davA*, *davB*-H1 and H1-*act* fragments to obtain the H1-davAB-H1-act fragment. Gibson assembly of the H1-davAB-H1-act fragment with the pHCP backbone was used to obtain the plasmid.

For pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-chnR plasmid construction, primers P21 and P29 222 were used to amplify davB-Pb from the synthesized codon-optimized davB 223 plasmid. Primers P30 and P31 were used to amplify the Pb fragment from 224 pBbSlactam, primers P32 and P33 were used to amplify the Pb-act fragment 225 226 from the synthesized codon-optimized act plasmid, primers P34 and P35 were used to amplify the chnR fragment from pBbSlactam, primers P19 and P29 227 were used for fusion PCR of H1-davA and davB-Pb to obtain the H1-davAB-Pb 228 fragment, primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion PCR of Pb, Pb-act and 229 chnR to obtain the Pb-act-chnR fragment, and then Gibson assembly of the H1-230 davAB-Pb, Pb-act-chnR and pHCP backbone was used to obtain the plasmid. 231

For construction of the other valerolactam biosynthetic pathway, many of the same primers were used to amplify the mutants from the different templates.

For example, for pHCP-H1davAB-E1act construction, primers P30 and P31 were used to amplify Pb-E1 from the pBbS-E1 plasmid, primers P32 and P24 were used to amplify *act* from the synthesized codon-optimized *act* plasmid, and primers P30 and P24 were used for fusion PCR of Pb-E1 and *act* fragments to obtain the E1-act fragment. Gibson assembly of H1-*davA*, *davB*, and E1-act was carried out to obtain **pHCP-H1davAB-E1act**.

For construction of dynamic regulation of *act* by ChnR/Pb-E1 system. Primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion PCR of Pb-E1, Pb-*act* and *chnR* to obtain the E1-*act*-chnR fragment, and then Gibson assembly of the H1-davAB-Pb, E1*act*-chnR and pHCP backbone was performed to obtain **pHCP-H1davAB-E1act-chnR**.

For construction of dynamic regulation of *act* by ChnR-B1/Pb system. Primers
P34 and P35 were used to amplify the *chnR*-B1 fragment from pBbS-E1B1,
then primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion PCR of Pb, Pb-*act* and *chnR*B1 to obtain the Pb-*act*-B1 fragment. Next, Gibson assembly of the H1-davABPb, Pb-*act*-B1 and pHCP backbone was performed to obtain pHCP-H1davABPb-act-B1.

For construction of dynamic regulation of *act* by ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system. Primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion PCR of Pb-E1, Pb-*act* and *chnR*-B1 to obtain the E1-*act*-B1 fragment, and then Gibson assembly of the H1-davAB-Pb, E1-*act*-B1 and pHCP backbone was performed to obtain **pHCP-H1davAB**-

255 **E1-act-B1**.

For construction of ORF26 as the catalysts for the cyclization step of valerolactam biosynthesis. Primers P36 and P37 were used to amplify the *orf26* fragment from the synthesized codon-optimized orf26 plasmid, then primers P19 and P37 were used for fusion PCR of the H1-*davA*, *davB* and *orf26* fragments to obtain the H1-davAB-orf26 fragment. Next, Gibson assembly of the pHCP backbone and H1-davAB-orf26 was used to obtain the **pHCP-H1davAB-orf26** plasmid.

For construction of dynamic regulation of *orf26* by ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system. Primers P36 and P38 were used to amplify Pb-orf26 from the synthesized codon-optimized orf26 plasmid, and primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion PCR of Pb-E1, Pb-*orf26* and *chnR*-B1 to obtain the E1-orf26-B1 fragment. Then, Gibson assembly of the H1-davAB-Pb, E1-*orf26*-B1 and pHCP backbone was performed to obtain the **pHCP-H1davAB-E1-orf26-B1** plasmid.

For construction of CaiC as the catalysts for the cyclization step of valerolactam biosynthesis Primers P39 and P40 were used to amplify the *caiC* fragment from the synthesized codon-optimized *caiC* plasmid, then primers P19 and P40 were used for fusion PCR of the H1-*davA*, *davB* and *caiC* fragments to obtain the H1-davAB-caiC fragment. Next, Gibson assembly of the pHCP backbone and H1-davAB-caiC was used to obtain the **pHCP-H1davAB-caiC** plasmid.

For construction of dynamic regulation of *caiC* by ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system.

Primers P39 and P41 were used to amplify Pb-*caiC* from the synthesized
codon-optimized *caiC* plasmid, and primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion
PCR of Pb-E1, Pb-*caiC* and *chnR*-B1 to obtain E1-*caiC*-B1. Then, Gibson
assembly of the H1-davAB-Pb, E1-*caiC*-B1 and pHCP backbone was
performed to obtain pHCP-H1davAB-E1-caiC-B1.

All the above Gibson assembly reactions were transformed into *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$ , and the plasmids were sequenced.

283

#### 284 **2.3 Promoter analysis**

The constructed pH1-mCherry, pH2-mCherry, pH9-mCherry, and pH10-285 mCherry plasmids were transformed into C. glutamicum XT1 using electro 286 transformation (Ruan et al., 2015). Three randomly selected colonies from each 287 plate were inoculated into 3 mL of LBHIS with 25 µg/mL kanamycin and 288 incubated at 30 °C and 200 rpm shaking for 16-18 hours. Then the cells were 289 inoculated (1:100) into 96-deep well plates containing 1 mL of LBHIS and 25 290 µg/mL kanamycin. The cells in the 96-deep well plates were cultured in a high-291 speed shaker at 30 °C and 800 rpm. One hundred microliters of culture medium 292 were removed at 12 h, 24 h, 36 h, and 48 h for mCherry fluorescence signal 293 analysis ( $\lambda_{ex}$ =575 nm,  $\lambda_{em}$ =620 nm) with an Infinite 200 PRO (TECAN, San Jose, 294 CA). 295

296

#### 297 **2.4 Mutant library construction and biosensor engineering**

For valerolactam biosensor engineering, the primers P42 and P43 were used 298 to amplify sfGFP from pMD19-sfGFP, which was a kind gift from Prof. Fu's 299 laboratory (SIAT, Shenzhen, China). The primers P44 and P45 were used to 300 amplify the backbone from pBbSlactam, and then Gibson assembly of the 301 backbone and sfGFP was performed to obtain pBbS-sfGFP. Primers P46 and 302 P47 (N in red font was indicated as the putative binding site of the transcription 303 factor ChnR (Cheng et al., 2000), Table S2) were used to amplify the Pb site-304 saturated mutant library fragments followed by Gibson assembly and 305 transformation into E. coli DH10B to obtain the Pb mutant library. Then, 20-30 306 colonies were randomly selected for sequencing to analyze the quality of the 307 library. E. coli DH10B with the Pb mutant library was sorted with 1 mM 308 valerolactam by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS, BD Aria III, San 309 Jose, USA) to obtain the colonies with the highest 1% sfGFP signal. These 310 colonies were plated on LB agar with 25 µg/mL chloramphenicol. Approximately 311 500 colonies were randomly placed into 96-deep well plates with 1 mL of LB 312 (including 25 µg/mL chloramphenicol and 1 mM valerolactam) and cultured for 313 12 hours at 37 °C and 800 rpm in a high-speed shaker. Samples (100 µL) were 314 then placed into 96-well plates for sfGFP fluorescence analysis ( $\lambda_{ex}$ =488 nm, 315  $\lambda_{em}$ =520 nm). A mutant Pb-E1 (5'-3': TGTAGCCCACC) showed a much higher 316 sfGFP signal in response to 1 mM valerolactam than the wild type (5'-3': 317 ttgtttggatc). The plasmid with this mutation was named pBbS-E1. 318

Primers P48 and P49 were used for error-prone PCR (epPCR) of the *chnR* 

gene to engineer the transcription factor ChnR to generate a mutant with a 320 higher binding affinity for valerolactam. epPCR was performed according to the 321 instruction manual of the GeneMorph II Random Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent 322 Technologies, #200550). To obtain a library with both low and medium mutation 323 frequencies of ChnR, 4 tubes (50 µL) were used for epPCR with 300 ng-500 ng 324 of target DNA, which were conducted as follows: 95 °C for 2 min, 23× (95 °C 325 for 30 s, 55 °C for 30 s, 72 °C for 1 min and 15 s), and 72 °C for 10 min. The 326 epPCR products were subjected to gel extraction for library construction. 327 Primers P50 and P51 were used to amplify the E1 backbone from pBbS-E1 328 followed by Gibson assembly of the *chnR* epPCR products and E1 backbone, 329 and the Gibson reaction products were transformed into E. coli DH10B 330 competent cells to obtain the ChnR random mutant library (~1\*10^6 colonies 331 were obtained). Approximately 40 colonies from the ChnR library were 332 randomly selected for sequencing to assess the quality of the mutant library. 333 The library was cultured with 1 mM valerolactam for 12 h, and the colonies with 334 the top 1% sfGFP signal were sorted by FACS. These colonies were recultured 335 with 1 mM valerolactam for a second round of FACS. Approximately 1000 336 colonies from the second round of FACS were randomly placed into 96-deep 337 well plates with 1 mL of LB (including 25 µg/mL chloramphenicol and 1 mM 338 valerolactam) and cultured for 12 hours at 37 °C and 800 rpm in a high-speed 339 shaker. Then, 100 µL samples were placed in 96-well plates for sfGFP 340 fluorescence analysis ( $\lambda_{ex}$ =488 nm,  $\lambda_{em}$ =520 nm), and a new mutant, ChnR-B1 341

(S63G, V121A) showed a much higher sfGFP signal to 1 mM valerolactam than
the control pBbS-E1. The plasmid with this ChnR (S63G, V121A) mutation was
named pBbS-E1B1.

345

# 2.5 Flask culture of the *C. glutamicum* strains to produce L-lysine and recombinant *C. glutamicum* XT1 to produce valerolactam

To compare the L-lysine production by C. glutamicum ATCC13032 and XT1, the 348 strains from the glycerol stock were cultured on LBHIS agar for 24 hours, and 349 350 then three randomly picked colonies were recultured on new LBHIS agar for 24 hours for the second round of activation. Three colonies each of C. glutamicum 351 WT and XT1 from the second-round activation plates were cultured in LBHIS 352 353 medium at 30 °C and 200 rpm shaking for 17-18 hours as the seed culture. For flask culture, the seed culture was added to a 250 mL flask containing 25 mL of 354 growth medium (100 g/L glucose, 1 g/L MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 1 g/L K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 1 g/L KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 355 1 g/L urea, 40 g/L (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 10 g/L yeast extract, 100 µg/mL biotin, 10 mg/L 356 β-alanine, 10 mg/L thiamine HCI, 10 mg/L nicotinic acid, 1.3 mg/L (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub>MoO<sub>24</sub>, 357 40 mg/L CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 mg/L FeSO<sub>4</sub>, 10 mg/L MnSO<sub>4</sub>, 5 mg/L CuSO<sub>4</sub>, 10 mg/L 358 ZnSO<sub>4</sub>, and 5 mg/L NiCl<sub>2</sub>) to have an initial OD<sub>600</sub>=0.1, which was modified 359 based on previous research (Shin et al., 2016). Each flask contained 0.75 g of 360 CaCO<sub>3</sub> to maintain the pH at ~7.0 during cultivation, and the flasks were 361 cultured at 30 °C with shaking at 220 rpm. Then, 500 µL samples were removed 362 at 24 hours, 48 hours and 72 hours for quantitative analysis of L-lysine. 363

To examine whether increasing the expression of valerolactam biosynthetic 364 pathway genes can improve valerolactam production, the plasmids pCES208-365 H1davAB, pCES208-H1davAB-act and pHCP-H1davAB-act were transformed 366 into C. glutamicum XT1. To compare the strong constitutive promoter and the 367 dynamically upregulated system of act for valerolactam biosynthesis, the 368 pHCP-H1davAB-act, pHCP-H1davAB-H1act, and pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-369 chnR plasmids were transformed into C. glutamicum XT1. To compare the 370 engineered biosensor system-assisted dynamic upregulation of act for 371 valerolactam biosynthesis, the pHCP-H1davAB-E1-act, pHCP-H1davAB-E1-372 act-chnR, pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-B1, and pHCP-H1davAB-E1-act-B1 373 plasmids were transformed into C. glutamicum XT1. To determine whether the 374 engineered biosensor system could assist in the dynamic upregulation of 375 ORF26 and CaiC to produce more valerolactam than the strong consistent 376 promoter, the plasmids pHCP-H1davAB-orf26 and pHCP-H1davAB-E1-orf26-377 B1, pHCP-H1davAB-caiC, and pHCP-H1davAB-E1-caiC-B1 were transformed 378 into C. glutamicum XT1. Three randomly selected colonies from the above 379 transformation plates were cultured in LBHIS medium with 25 µg/mL kanamycin 380 at 30 °C and 200 rpm shaking for 17-18 hours as seed culture. For flask cultures, 381 the seed culture was added to a 250 mL flask containing 25 mL of fermentation 382 medium to have an initial OD<sub>600</sub>=0.1, the fermentation medium was the same 383 as the L-lysine production medium, plus 25 µg/mL kanamycin. Each flask 384 contained 0.75 g of CaCO<sub>3</sub> to maintain the pH at ~7.0 during cultivation. The 385

culture conditions were 30 °C at 220 rpm for 48 hours, and 1 mL samples were
 removed for measuring the OD<sub>600</sub> and quantitative analysis of L-lysine, 5-AVA
 and valerolactam.

389

#### **2.6 Fed-batch fermentation to produce valerolactam**

The glycerol stocks of C. glutamicum XT1 pHCP-H1davAB-E1-act-B1, C. 391 glutamicum XT1 pHCP-H1davAB-E1-orf26-B1, and C. glutamicum XT1 pHCP-392 H1davAB-E1-caiC-B1 were first cultured on LBHIS agar with 25 µg/mL 393 kanamycin, and after 24 hours, the activated colonies were transferred to a new 394 LBHIS plate with 25 µg/mL kanamycin for the second generation cultures. The 395 second generation cultures were collected and inoculated into a 250 mL flask 396 with 50 mL of seed medium, which was the same as that previously reported 397 (Shin et al., 2016), and grown at 30 °C and 220 rpm for 17-18 hours. 398 Approximately 40 mL of seed medium was added as the inoculum to 400 mL of 399 fermentation medium (initial  $OD_{600}$ =1.5-2.0) with 25 µg/mL kanamycin in a 1.2 400 L fermenter. The fed-batch fermentation medium was the same as that used by 401 Shin et al., 2016, except that the biotin concentration was 1.8 mg/L. An 402 Eppendorf-DASGIP parallel bioreactor system (Hamburg, Germany) equipped 403 with eight 1.2-L jars was used for all fed-batch cultivation experiments. The 404 temperature and agitation were maintained at 30 °C and 1200 rpm, respectively, 405 and the pH was maintained at 7.0 by the addition of a 28% (v/v) ammonia 406 solution. Foaming was suppressed by adding 10% (v/v) antifoam 204 (Sigma-407

Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). A 50% (w/v) glucose solution was added when
the residual glucose level was below than 5 g/L. Samples were taken every 12
hours to analyze the L-lysine, 5-aminovaleric acid, and valerolactam contents,
the residual glucose was analyzed with a SBA-40E Biosensor analyzer (Jinan
Yanhe Biotechnology Co., LTD, Jinan, China), and the OD<sub>600</sub> was measured
with a cell density meter Ultrospec 10 (Biochrom, Cambridge, UK).

414

#### 415 **2.7 Quantitative analysis of L-lysine, 5-AVA and valerolactam**

A high-performance liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) 416 instrument (Agilent 1290-6470, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) 417 fitted with an EC-C18 column (4.6 × 100 mm; Agilent Technologies) was 418 operated at 37 °C to determine the L-lysine, 5-AVA and valerolactam 419 concentrations in the culture broth (flask culture and fed-batch culture). 420 Samples were removed from the cultured medium and placed in 2.0 ml 421 Eppendorf tubes, and 100 µL of supernatant was obtained by centrifugation at 422 11600 x g for 3 min. Then, the 100  $\mu$ L of supernatant was treated with a freeze 423 dryer (Christ Alpha-2LDplus, Osterode, Germany) for 2-3 hours and 424 resuspended in 1 mL of 5% MeOH. This solution was diluted 1000-fold before 425 each sample was subjected to LC-MS analysis. The method for valerolactam 426 quantitation was modified based on a previous report (Chae et al., 2017). The 427 mobile phase was composed of solvent A (H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.1% formic acid) and solvent 428 B (MeOH), and elution was performed with the following gradient: 0-10 min, 429

5%-30% B at 0.5 mL/min; and 10-16 min, 5% B at 0.5 mL/min. The eluent was 430 directed to the mass spectrometer, which was operated in electrospray 431 ionization (ESI) positive ion mode with the following conditions: gas 432 temperature, 350 °C; gas flow, 10.0 L/min; nebulizer, 45 psi; and capillary 433 voltage, 3.5 kV. Multiple reaction monitor (MRM) mode was selected as the 434 scan mode to detect precursor-to-product ion transitions. The m/z transitions 435 were 100.1 to 44.1 (fragmentor: 110; CE: 40) and 100.1 to 56.1 (fragmentor: 436 110; CE: 21). For the guantitation of L-lysine and 5-AVA, the mobile phase was 437 applied from 0-10 min with 5% B (MeOH) at a flow rate of 0.2 mL/min. The same 438 mass spectrometry parameters were used, except MRM mode was set to 147 439 to 130.1 (fragmentor: 80; CE: 9) and 147 to 84.1 (fragmentor: 80; CE: 17) for L-440 lysine, and the 5-AVA m/z transitions were 118 to 101(fragmentor: 80; CE: 9) 441 and 118 to 55.1 (fragmentor: 80; CE: 2). Standards of L-lysine (Sigma-Aldrich), 442 5-AVA (Sigma-Aldrich) (each 5.0 mg/L, 2.5 mg/L, 1.25 mg/L, 0.625 mg/L and 443 0.3125 mg/L) and valerolactam (Sigma-Aldrich) (each 4.0 mg/L, 2.0 mg/L, 1.0 444 mg/L, 0.5 mg/L, 0.25 mg/L and 0.125 mg/L) were used to generate standard 445 curves. Statistical analysis was performed with GraphPad Prism 8.0.1 (La Jolla, 446 CA, USA), and the results are reported as the mean with SD (n=3). 447

448

449 **3. Results** 

450 **3.1. Construction of the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway in an L-lysine-**

#### 451 producing *C. glutamicum* mutant.

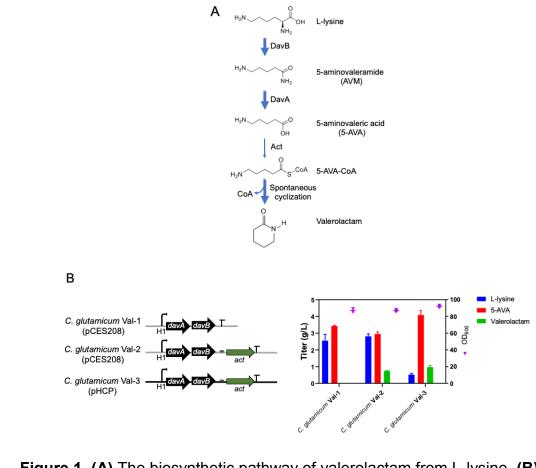
Three enzymatic reactions are needed to convert L-lysine into valerolactam 452 (Fig. 1A). To eliminate the need to add extracellular L-lysine to the reaction, we 453 constructed a chassis strain that produces L-lysine. We chose C. glutamicum 454 ATCC13032 as the base strain for L-lysine production because it is Generally 455 Recognized as Safe (GRAS) and is already considered a strain that can be 456 used for industrial L-lysine production (Becker et al., 2011). The wild-type lysC 457 in the genome of C. glutamicum ATCC13032 was replaced with a mutant lysC 458 (C932T) to construct the mutant strain C. glutamicum XT1. The aspartokinase 459 encoded by *lysC* is a key regulatory enzyme in L-lysine biosynthesis, and the 460 point mutation C932T can increase L-lysine production by reducing feedback 461 462 inhibition by L-lysine (Fig. 1B) (Ohnishi et al., 2002)(Becker et al., 2011). This strain produced 5.23 g/L L-lysine within 48 hours in flask culture (Fig. 1B). Using 463 lysine-producing C. glutamicum XT1 as the chassis strain for valerolactam 464 biosynthesis, we then designed, constructed, and tested various strategies for 465 gene regulation to produce valerolactam. 466

Act, encoding the β-alanine CoA transferase from *Clostridium propionicum*(Chae et al., 2017), ORF26, encoding the acyl-CoA ligase from *Streptomyces aizunensis*, and CaiC, encoding a crotonobetaine CoA ligase from *E. coli*(Zhang et al., 2017b), have been reported to be catalysts for the cyclization step
of valerolactam biosynthesis, and together with DavB and DavA from *P. putida*,
they compose the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway. Act was selected first to

473 metabolically engineer a valerolactam biosynthetic pathway to improve the titer
474 of valerolactam in *C. glutamicum* XT1.

The strengths of the previously characterized strong constitutive C. 475 alutamicum promoters H1, H2, H9 and H10, which showed strength similar to 476 or greater than the widely used strong promoter pH36 (Wei et al., 2018), were 477 revalidated in C. glutamicum XT1 with mCherry as a reporter. As indicated by 478 mCherry fluorescence, promoter H1 showed the highest strength (Fig. S1) and 479 was selected to drive the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway genes for 480 subsequent research. According to previous research, the high copy number 481 plasmid pHCP was constructed based on pCES208; compared with pCES208 482 (4-5 copies/cell), the copy number of pHCP increased 10-fold (Choi et al., 2018). 483 484 The strongest constitutive promoter, H1, was used to drive expression of DavA, DavB and Act, which were integrated into both pCES208 and pHCP to obtain 485 pCES208-H1davAB-act and pHCP-H1davAB-act, respectively, whereas H1-486 driven DavA and DavB (no Act) were ligated into pCES208 to obtain pCES208-487 H1DavAB as a negative control. These plasmids (pCES208-H1DavAB, 488 pCES208-H1davAB-act, and pHCP-H1davAB-act) were transformed into C. 489 glutamicum XT1 yielding strains C. glutamicum Val-1, C. glutamicum Val-2, and 490 C. glutamicum Val-3, respectively, to test their corresponding valerolactam titers. 491 In flask cultures, 0.73 g/L valerolactam was produced by C. glutamicum Val-492 2, which was 25-fold more than that with the same pathway genes in E. coli 493 under flask culture conditions (29 mg/L) (Chae et al., 2017); moreover, 0.97 g/L 494

valerolactam was produced by *C. glutamicum* Val-3 (Fig. S2). In *C. glutamicum*Val-3, most of the L-lysine was transformed into 5-AVA by the overexpressed
DavA and DavB by increasing the plasmid copy number, whereas in Val-2 there
were approximately equal amounts of L-lysine and 5-AVA (Fig. S2). Hence, we
concluded that the cyclization of 5-AVA into valerolactam by Act is the ratelimiting step for valerolactam biosynthesis.



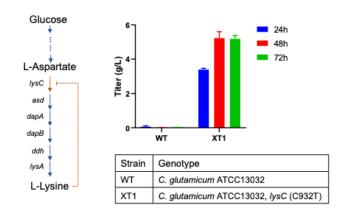
503 Figure 1. (A) The biosynthetic pathway of valerolactam from L-lysine. (B) L-

<sup>504</sup> Iysine, 5-AVA, and valerolactam production by *C. glutamicum* XT1 mutants

with different versions of the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway. 5-AVA (5-

506 aminovaleric acid).

501

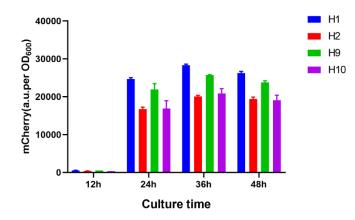


507

508 Figure S1. The L-lysine biosynthetic pathway from glucose in

509 Corynebacterium glutamicum and the titer of L-lysine produced by C.

510 glutamicum ATCC13032 (WT) and mutant (XT1) in flask cultures.



511

512 **Figure S2.** Strengths of the strong constitutive promoters evaluated in *C*.

513 glutamicum XT1.

514

515 **3.2 Design of a dynamic upregulation system to amplify the expression of** 

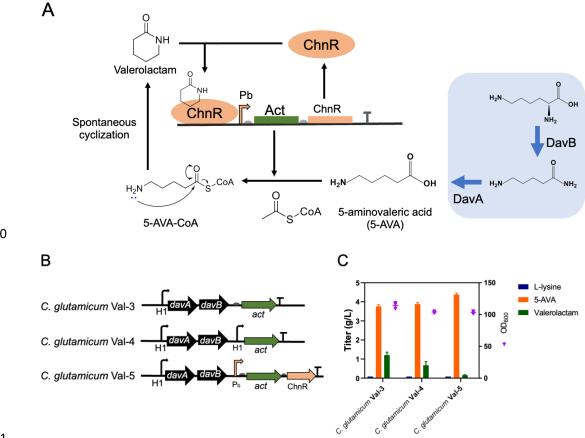
516 **Act** 

To further improve the titer of valerolactam, our primary task became how to obtain much higher expression of Act than in *C. glutamicum* Val-3. We first tried to add another strong promoter, H1, to drive Act to further increase its expression level, resulting in plasmid pHCP-H1davAB-H1act (Fig. 2B). In

addition, a dynamic upregulation strategy was also used to further amplify the 521 expression of Act. Previously this positive feedback loop (dynamic 522 upregulation)-based gene amplifier was shown to dramatically increase the 523 expression of the regulated GFP gene (Nistala et al., 2010). Thus, we designed 524 the valerolactam biosensor ChnR/Pb system as a positive feedback amplifier 525 to regulate the expression of Act (Fig. 2A). The promoter H1 was used to drive 526 the expression of valerolactam biosynthetic pathway genes with Act regulated 527 by the ChnR/Pb system to obtain the pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-chnR plasmid 528 (Fig. 2). We hypothesized that the promoter H1 would initiate expression of Act 529 and ChnR, and then the valerolactam produced from the cyclization reaction of 530 5-AVA would bind with ChnR to form a ChnR-valerolactam complex that would 531 532 regulate expression of the Pb promoter (Zhang et al., 2017a), thus initiating the dynamic upregulation system (positive feedback amplifier) (Fig. 2A). 533

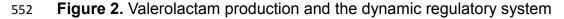
Comparing the valerolactam titers in the flask cultures of C. glutamicum 534 Val-4 and C. glutamicum Val-5, which are C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-535 H1davAB-H1act and pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-chnR, respectively, with that from 536 the C. glutamicum Val-3 control, 0.67 g/L and 0.15 g/L valerolactam were 537 produced with C. glutamicum Val-4 and C. glutamicum Val-5, respectively, 538 which were both lower than the valerolactam produced with the C. glutamicum 539 Val-3 control (Fig. 2C). This decrease in valerolactam production with the extra 540 H1 promoter for Act in C. glutamicum Val-4 may have been explained by 541 (Rohles et al., 2022), who found that an additional promoter of the second gene 542

in a two-gene operon can sometimes decrease the expression levels of the
genes. To our surprise, the valerolactam pathway dynamically upregulated in *C. glutamicum* Val-5 showed less valerolactam production than the control (Fig.
2C). We suspected that the main reason for this result was due to the lower
sensitivity (1-50 mM) and poor dynamic output range (2.4) of the original
valerolactam biosensor (ChnR/Pb system) (Zhang et al., 2017a), which limited
the expression of Act.





551



developed here. (A) Schematic of the ChnR/Pb system for dynamic

<sup>554</sup> upregulation of the expression of Act in the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway.

(B) Valerolactam biosynthetic gene cluster with three different regulatory

systems. (C) Production of L-lysine, 5-AVA, and valerolactam in flask cultures
at 48 hours. 5-AVA (5-aminovaleric acid).

558

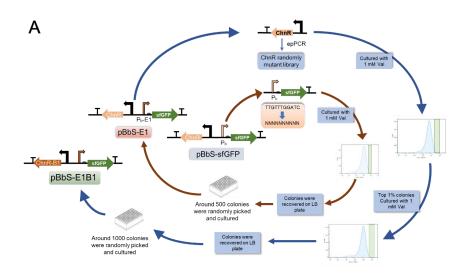
# 3.3. Improving the sensitivity and dynamic output range of the valerolactam biosensor.

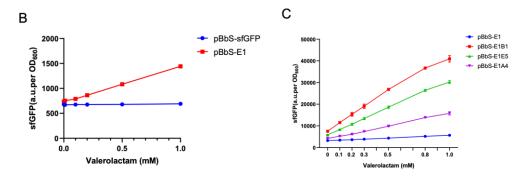
The sensitivity and dynamic output range of the biosensor in the ChnR/Pb 561 system determine the expression time and maximum expression level of Act. 562 To improve the sensitivity and dynamic output range of the biosensor, the 563 binding affinities of the transcription factor ChnR for the promoter Pb and 564 substrate valerolactam should be modified (Snoek et al., 2020). The original 565 valerolactam biosensor (ChnR/Pb system) was characterized in E. coli DH10B 566 (Zhang et al., 2017a), and mutant library construction, sorting and 567 characterization of the valerolactam biosensor were also performed in E. coli 568 DH10B. Cheng et al. proposed a putative ChnR binding region (5'-3': 569 TTGTTTGGATC) in the promoter Pb (Cheng et al., 2000), so we constructed a 570 Pb site-saturation mutagenesis library based on the predicted ChnR binding 571 region with sfGFP as the reporter. The Pb mutant library was cultured with 1 572 mM valerolactam for 12 hours and then sorted by FACS for the mutants with 573 the top 1% sfGFP signal (Fig. S3A). Approximately 500 colonies from the FACS-574 sorted group were further tested with 1 mM valerolactam. The biosensor mutant 575 E1 (5'-3': TGTAGCCCACC) showed a higher sfGFP signal than the original 576 biosensor pBbS-sfGFP after treatment with 1 mM valerolactam. The biosensor 577

with this Pb mutation (E1) was named pBbS-E1. The fluorescence output of 578 strains harboring biosensor plasmids pBbS-E1 and pBbS-sfGFP were 579 compared for valerolactam concentrations in the range 0-100 mM. The results 580 from pBbS-E1 showed a linear correlation in the fluorescence intensity with 0-581 1 mM valerolactam, while there was no response from pBbS-sfGFP with 0-1 582 mM valerolactam (Fig. S3B), indicating the increased sensitivity of pBbS-E1 583 compared with the original biosensor pBbS-sfGFP. Moreover, the dynamic 584 output range of pBbS-E1 was much higher than that of pBbS-sfGFP for 0-100 585 586 mM valerolactam (Fig. 3).

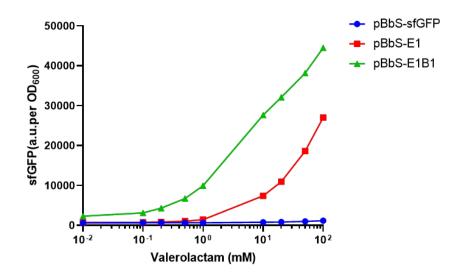
Engineering the valerolactam binding domain in the transcription factor 587 ChnR should further increase the dynamic output range (Snoek et al., 588 2020)(Mannan et al., 2017); however, the valerolactam binding domain in ChnR 589 is not yet defined. Therefore, a random ChnR mutagenesis library was 590 constructed based on the pBbS-E1 plasmid by error-prone PCR (epPCR). This 591 mutant library was then cultured with 1 mM valerolactam for FACS sorting. After 592 two rounds of FACS sorting for the colonies with the top 1% sfGFP signal in 593 response to 1 mM valerolactam, approximately 1000 colonies were randomly 594 selected for testing with 1 mM valerolactam (Fig. S3A). There were three 595 biosensor mutants that showed a higher sfGFP signal in response to 1 mM 596 valerolactam than biosensor pBbS-E1: M-B1 (S63G and V121A), M-E5 (N22T 597 and S63G) and M-A4 (T281N). The M-B1 mutant showed the largest dynamic 598 output range with 0-1 mM valerolactam, which was 3.0-fold higher than the 599

pBbS-E1 control (Fig. S3C). We found that the valerolactam biosensors with 600 these ChnR mutants had a higher dynamic output range with increased leaky 601 expression, especially the biosensor with the M-B1 mutant, which showed the 602 highest leaky expression among these biosensors (Fig. S3C). The output 603 fluorescence signal intensity of the biosensor with the M-B1 mutant with 0 mM 604 valerolactam was even higher than that of the control pBbS-E1 at 1 mM 605 valerolactam (Fig. S3C). The leaky expression of this biosensor with the M-B1 606 mutant may help initiate the dynamic upregulation at an early stage and hence 607 increase the expression of Act to a greater extent than the other ChnR mutants. 608 The biosensor with this M-B1 mutation with the highest dynamic output range 609 was named pBbS-E1B1 (Fig. 3) (ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system) and was chosen for 610 611 subsequent engineering.





614	Figure S3. (A) Schematic of engineering the valerolactam biosensor. We
615	started with the pBbS-sfGFP biosensor. Red arrow indicates engineering the
616	ChnR binding site in Pb promoter. The Pb site-saturation mutagenesis library
617	was sorted by FACS for the colonies with top 1% GFP signal, and these
618	colonies were further verified in 96-well plates with 1 mM valerolactam to get
619	biosensor pBbS-E1. Blue arrow indicates improving the binding affinity of
620	ChnR for valerolactam (Val) by two rounds of FACS sorting. The ChnR
621	mutants selected from the second round of FACS sorting were further verified
622	in 96-well plates with 1 mM valerolactam to get the biosensor mutant pBbS-
623	E1B1 with the highest fluorescence signal. (B) Comparison of the outputs of
624	the biosensor mutant pBbS-E1 with the original valerolactam biosensor pBbS-
625	sfGFP for 0-1 mM valerolactam. (C) Comparison of the output from promoter
626	Pb with different ChnR mutants with the pBbS-E1 control for 0-1 mM
627	valerolactam.





**Figure 3.** Comparison of the outputs of the evolved biosensor pBbS-E1 and

pBbS-E1B1 with the original biosensor pBbS-sfGFP in different

632 concentrations of valerolactam.

633

## **3.4. The ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system improved valerolactam production.**

The engineered ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system (from pBbS-E1B1) can be used to 635 increase the titer of valerolactam. ChnR-B1 and Pb-E1 were used to replace 636 wild-type ChnR and Pb, respectively, in the dynamic upregulation pathway (Fig. 637 2). The Pb-E1 mutant without ChnR was used as a negative control to regulate 638 the expression of Act, and the combinations of Pb-E1 with ChnR and Pb with 639 ChnR-B1 were also constructed and tested (Fig. 4). These different 640 combinations of ChnR and Pb helped us determine the best promoter regulator 641 for our dynamic regulation system. The valerolactam biosynthetic pathway 642 plasmids were transformed into C. glutamicum XT1, and C. glutamicum Val-3, 643 with the highest titer of valerolactam thus far, was set as a control. After 48 644 hours of flask culture, C. glutamicum Val-9 with the ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system 645

(pHCP-H1davAB-E1-act-B1) produced 2.46 g/L valerolactam, an increase in
the titer of more than 100% compared with the *C. glutamicum* Val-3 control
(1.21 g/L) (Fig. 4B).

We also noticed that C. glutamicum Val-8 with the ChnR-B1/Pb system 649 (pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-B1) was able to produce much more valerolactam 650 (2.11 g/L) than the C. glutamicum Val-3 control (Fig. 4B). In contrast, C. 651 glutamicum Val-6 (Pb-E1 negative control) and C. glutamicum Val-7 (ChnR/Pb-652 E1 system) produced much less (0.11 g/L and 0.16 g/L, respectively) than the 653 654 control. From these flask culture results, we found that the strains using ChnR-B1 for the dynamic upregulation of Act were able to produce more valerolactam 655 than the C. glutamicum Val-3 control, while the strains with wild-type ChnR for 656 the dynamic upregulation of Act produced a limited amount of valerolactam. 657 These results indicate that the properties of the transcription factor ChnR play 658 a key role in our designed dynamic upregulation system to increase the 659 expression level of Act. Since C. glutamicum Val-9 with the ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 660 system regulates the expression of Act and produces a higher titer of 661 valerolactam than the promoter H1 control, we were interested in whether this 662 dynamic upregulation system can be used to increase the expression of the 663 other enzymes (ORF26 and CaiC) to improve the production of valerolactam. 664

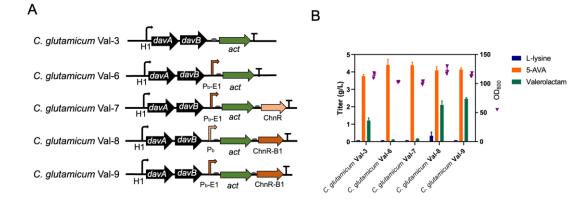




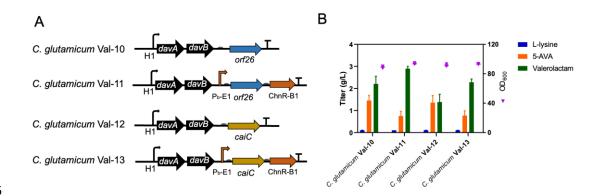
Figure 4. Dynamic upregulation of Act with the different regulator-promoter
systems for valerolactam biosynthesis. (A) Design of the valerolactam
pathway with different ChnR and Pb mutant combinations. (B) Flask culture
results of the different valerolactam biosynthesis pathways indicated in (A). 5AVA (5-aminovaleric acid).

671

# 672 3.5. Dynamic upregulation of ORF26 and CaiC for valerolactam 673 production in *C. glutamicum* XT1.

To test whether the engineered ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system can be used for 674 dynamic upregulation of the expression of ORF26 and CaiC in valerolactam 675 biosynthesis, C. glutamicum codon optimized versions of ORF26 and CaiC 676 were constructed as catalysts for the cyclization step in the valerolactam 677 biosynthetic pathway. These genes were introduced into the various plasmids 678 in place of act creating pHCP-H1davAB-orf26 and pHCP-H1davAB-caiC (the 679 controls) and pHCP-H1davAB-E1-orf26-B1 and pHCP-H1davAB-E1-CaiC-B1 680 (ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 regulated systems) (Fig. 5A). After transformation into C. 681 glutamicum XT1, flask culture was carried out for 48 hours. The results showed 682

that C. glutamicum Val-11 (C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-H1davAB-E1-683 orf26-B1) and C. glutamicum Val-13 (C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-684 H1davAB-E1-CaiC-B1) produced 2.90 g/L and 2.28 g/L valerolactam, 685 respectively, both of which generated more valerolactam than the promoter H1 686 controls C. glutamicum Val-10 (C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-H1davAB-687 orf26) and C. glutamicum Val-12 (C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-688 H1davAB-caiC), which produced 2.21 g/L and 1.39 g/L valerolactam, 689 respectively (Fig. 5B). We noticed that the ORF26 group produced the highest 690 titer of valerolactam compared with the Act and CaiC constructs (Fig. 4B and 691 Fig. 5B); however, C. glutamicum Val-11 did not show a significant improvement 692 in valerolactam production compared with C. glutamicum Val-10 (Fig. 5B), and 693 the solubility of ORF26 (Zhang et al., 2017b) may be the main reason for this 694 result. 695



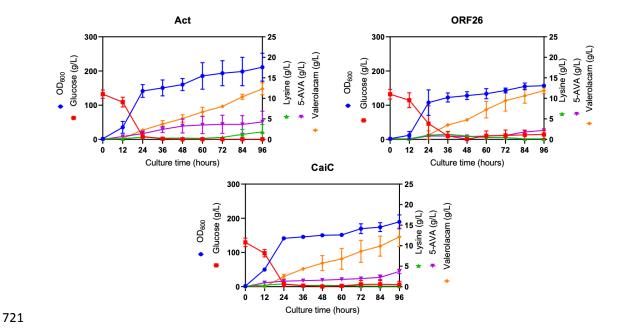
696

Figure 5. Dynamic upregulation of the ORF26 and CaiC with ChnR-B1/Pb-E1
 system for valerolactam biosynthesis. 5-AVA (5-aminovaleric acid).

#### 700 3.6. Fed-batch fermentation for valerolactam biosynthesis in C.

701 glutamicum XT1.

To demonstrate that dynamic regulation can further improve the titer of 702 valerolactam in fed-batch cultivation, glucose-fed batch cultures of C. 703 glutamicum Val-9 (Act), C. glutamicum Val-11 (ORF26) or C. glutamicum Val-704 13 (CaiC) were performed in a 1.2-L lab-scale bioreactor system, and 50% (w/v) 705 glucose was added according to the glucose levels in the media. The time 706 profiles of these three fed-batch cultures are shown in Fig. 6 (indicated as Act, 707 ORF26, and CaiC, respectively). Growth of the Act, ORF26 and CaiC strains 708 entered the stationary phase at 24 hours. Glucose feeding started immediately 709 once there was less than 1 g/L glucose in the medium, and the cells continued 710 to grow to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 211 (Act), 157 (ORF26), and 190 (CaiC) at 96 hours (Fig. 711 712 6). The valerolactam titers of these mutants reached 12.33 g/L (Act), 11.88 g/L (ORF26), and 12.15 g/L (CaiC) at the end of fed-batch fermentation (Fig. 6, 713 Table 2), which are the highest levels reported thus far. In particular, the 714 valerolactam titer of the Act mutants was 10-fold higher than that in previous 715 research (1.18 g/L), which used a valerolactam biosynthetic pathway in E. coli 716 with a constitutive promoter that drove the same enzymes used here (DavA, 717 DavB, Act) (Chae et al., 2017). 5-AVA accumulated in these three cultures, 718 indicating that the titer of valerolactam can be further increased by engineering 719 the enzyme activity of Act/ORF26/CaiC (Fig. 6, Table 2). 720



**Figure 6.** Fed-batch fermentation of valerolactam production in *C. glutamicum* 

Val-9 (Act), C. glutamicum Val-11 (ORF26) and C. glutamicum Val-13 (CaiC).

(There are two replicates for *C. glutamicum* Val-11, and three replicates for *C.* 

*glutamicum* Val-9 and *C. glutamicum* Val-13)

726

**Table 2.** Fermentation results summary of the *C. glutamicum* XT1 with different

valerolactam biosynthetic pathway.

Strains	Valerolactam	5-aminovaleric
	titer (g/L)	acid titer (g/L)
C. glutamicum Val-9	12.33±1.44	4.26±2.61
(Act)	12.00±1.44	4.20 <u>-</u> 2.01
C. glutamicum Val-11	11.88±0.70	2.19±0.24
(ORF26)	11.00±0.70	2.19±0.24
C. glutamicum Val-13	12.15±2.37	3.71±0.52
(CaiC)	12.10±2.37	3.7 I±0.52

729

## 730 4. Discussion

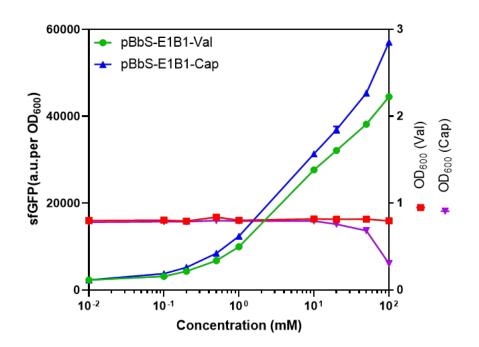
The complete biosynthesis of valerolactam has been studied in E. coli, and 731 the major rate-limiting step in its production is the cyclization of 5-AVA to 732 valerolactam (Gordillo Sierra and Alper, 2020)(Zhang et al., 2017b). In this study, 733 we found that the Act-catalyzed activation of 5-AVA followed by the 734 spontaneous cyclization to valerolactam was also a limiting step in our system 735 (Fig. S2). A valerolactam biosensor-based dynamic upregulation system 736 (positive feedback loop) was designed to enhance production of this rate-737 limiting enzyme (Fig. 2A), and the final titer of valerolactam from this pathway 738 with dynamic upregulation of Act increased to 12.33 g/L in fed-batch culture. 739 This dynamic upregulation system was also used to overexpress ORF26 and 740 CaiC, which have been reported to be important for the cyclization of 5-AVA to 741 valerolactam, and the valerolactam titers of these two strains reached 11.88 g/L 742 and 12.15 g/L, respectively, in a glucose fed-batch fermentation, the titer of 743 valerolactam with dynamic upregulation system in this research is also much 744 higher than Cheng et al., reported 6.88 g/L valerolactam which was synthesized 745 from L-lysine by a combination of enzymatic catalysis and pH optimization 746 (Cheng et al., 2021). 747

To increase the titer of valerolactam, traditional metabolic engineering methods, such as optimizing the promoter activity and increasing the plasmid copy number, have been tested, and the results showed that these methods

contribute little to increasing the titer of valerolactam but instead to conversion 751 of L-lysine to 5-AVA (Fig. 2 and Fig. S2), the precursor to valerolactam. Thus, 752 we speculated that the cyclization of 5-AVA to valerolactam by Act limits the 753 production of valerolactam, and we therefore need to increase the expression 754 of Act to solve this bottleneck. A genetic signal amplifier was designed based 755 on a LuxR positive feedback loop and showed a great ability to increase the 756 expression of the regulated gene (Nistala et al., 2010). We developed the 757 ChnR/Pb system as a valerolactam biosensor. Thus, we first constructed a 758 gene amplifier in a positive feedback loop with the valerolactam biosensor 759 ChnR/Pb system to regulate the expression of Act (Fig. 2). However, the results 760 from flask culture indicated that the Act overexpressed by dynamic upregulation 761 762 (ChnR/Pb system) was not sufficient to improve the titer of valerolactam. We found that the sensitivity and dynamic output range of the biosensor pBbS-763 sfGFP (ChnR/Pb system) for valerolactam may limit the maximum expression 764 level of Act under the control of dynamic upregulation. Based on a previous 765 transcription factor engineering method (Snoek et al., 2020), a valerolactam 766 biosensor mutant with higher sensitivity and a larger dynamic output range was 767 obtained (pBbS-E1B1 in Fig. 3). After testing with different combinations of 768 promoter-regulator systems, compared with the strong constitutive control in C. 769 glutamicum Val-3, the titer of valerolactam was increased by 103% in C. 770 glutamicum Val-9 (ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system) under the same culture conditions 771 (Fig. 4B). The flask culture results indicated that the dynamic upregulation 772

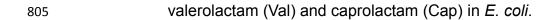
system with the ChnR-B1 mutation can significantly increase valerolactam 773 production, while the dynamic upregulation system designed based on wild-774 type ChnR showed no effect on valerolactam biosynthesis (Fig. 2B and Fig. 4B). 775 In addition, we noticed that the titer of valerolactam from C. glutamicum Val-7 776 (ChnR/Pb-E1 system) was similar to that from C. glutamicum Val-5 (ChnR/Pb 777 system); however, the dynamic output range of biosensor pBbS-E1 (ChnR/Pb-778 E1 system) with valerolactam was much higher than that of pBbS-sfGFP 779 (ChnR/Pb system). We suspect that the performance of our designed dynamic 780 upregulation system, a positive feedback amplifier for regulating the expression 781 of the rate-limiting enzymes, is mainly affected by the properties of the 782 transcription factor ChnR-B1. Furthermore, our dynamic upregulation system 783 784 was used to amplify the expression of ORF26 and CaiC for valerolactam biosynthesis, and the titer of valerolactam increased by approximately 31% and 785 64%, respectively, compared with that of the strong promoter H1 control under 786 flask culture conditions (Fig. 5B). From the flask culture and fed-batch 787 fermentation results, 5-AVA accumulated as a byproduct (Fig. 5B, Table 2), and 788 the lower catalytic activity of these enzymes to activate 5-AVA for its cyclization 789 into valerolactam may be the main reason. Previous research from our lab 790 showed that ORF26 is insoluble, which may affect the growth of C. glutamicum 791 Val-11 in the fed-batch fermentation (Fig. 6), has an optimal pH of 8.0 and 792 catalyzes significant ATP and ADP hydrolysis (Zhang et al., 2017b), while C. 793 glutamicum growth should occur at pH 7.0. Thus, engineering an ORF26 794

mutant with reduced ATP and ADP hydrolysis, an optimal pH of 7.0 and 795 increased solubility may further increase the titer of valerolactam from C. 796 glutamicum. In addition, our engineered valerolactam biosensor pBbS-E1B1 797 showed a higher dynamic output range for caprolactam than valerolactam (Fig. 798 S4), and there was no effect of caprolactam on the growth C. glutamicum (Fig. 799 S5); thus, we suppose that our dynamic upregulation system (ChnR-B1/Pb-E1) 800 can also be used to design a method for caprolactam biosynthesis in C. 801 glutamicum. 802

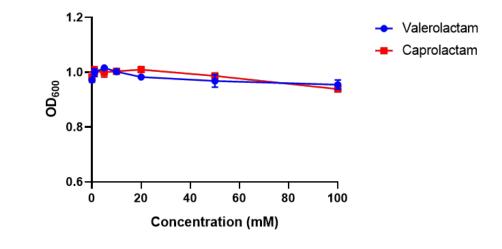


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**Figure S4.** Biosensor characterization of pBbS-E1B1 sensitivity to



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**Figure S5.** The effect of valerolactam and caprolactam on growth. of *C*.

glutamicum XT1.

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926	

## 927 Author contributions

Xixi Zhao: Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis,
Investigation, Writing-original Draft, Visualization. Yanling Wu: Methodology,
Validation, Investigation. Tingye Feng: Validation, Investigation. Junfeng Shen:
Resources. Huan Lu: Validation. Yunfeng Zhang: Validation. Howard C. Chou:
Conceptualization, Writing-review & editing. Xiaozhou Luo: Conceptualization,
Writing-review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding
acquisition. Jay D. Keasling: Conceptualization, Writing-review & editing,

935 Supervision, Funding acquisition.

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#### 950 Conflict of Interest

X.L. has a financial interest in Demetrix and Synceres. J.D.K. has a financial
interest in Amyris, Lygos, Demetrix, Maple Bio, Napigen, Apertor Pharma, Ansa
Biotechnologies, Berkeley Yeast, and Zero Acre Farms.

# 954 Supplementary Material

# **Table S1.** Plasmids used in this study

Plasmids	Description	Source
pK18mobsacB	Kana <sup>r</sup> , <i>sacB</i> from <i>B.subtilis</i>	Schäfer
		et al.,
		1994
pK18-lysC	pK18mobsacB derivate, harboring <i>lysC</i> gene	This
	with point mutation at C932T and 588 bp	study
	lysC downstream fragment from the C.	
	glutamicum ATCC13032 genome	
pEC-XK99E	E. coli and C. glutamicum shuttle vector,	Lab
	Kana <sup>r</sup>	Stock
pH1-mCherry	pEC-XK99E derivate, H1-mCherry	This
		study
pH2-mCherry	pEC-XK99E derivate, H2-mCherry	This
		study
pH9-mCherry	pEC-XK99E derivate, H9-mCherry	This
		study
pH10-mCherry	pEC-XK99E derivate, H10-mCherry	This
		study
pCES208	Shuttle vector between <i>E. coli</i> and <i>C.</i>	Park et
	<i>glutamicum</i> , Kana <sup>r</sup>	al., 2008
pCES208-	pCES208 derivate, H1, codon-optimized	This

H1davAB	davA, davB	study
pCES208-	pCES208 derivate, H1, codon-optimized	This
H1davAB-act	davA, davB and act	study
рНСР	pCES208 derivate, <i>parB</i> nonsense mutation,	This
	Kana <sup>r</sup>	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
act	<i>davB</i> and <i>act</i>	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
H1act	<i>davB</i> and H1- <i>act</i>	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
Pb-act-chnR	<i>davB</i> and Pb- <i>act</i> -chnR	study
pBbSlactam	Lactam biosensor, harboring the chnR from	Zhang et
	Acinetobacter sp. and mCherry under control	al.,
	of Pb (the promoter of chnB from	2017a
	Acinetobacter sp.), Cm <sup>R</sup>	
pBbS-sfGFP	pBbSlactam derivate, mCherry was replaced	This
	with sfGFP	study
pBbS-E1	pBbS-sfGFP derivate, with mutation in the Pb	This
	of ChnR binding site, and sfGFP under control	study
	of the Pb mutant (Pb-E1)	
pBbS-E1B1	pBb-E1 derivate, with a <i>chnR</i> mutant (ChnR-	This
	M-B1)	study
pBbS-E1E5	pBb-E1 derivate, with a <i>chnR</i> mutant (ChnR-	This
	M-E5)	study
pBbS-E1A4	pBb-E1 derivate, with a <i>chnR</i> mutant (ChnR-	This

	M-A4)	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
E1-act	<i>davB</i> and Pb-E1- <i>act</i>	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
E1-act-chnR	<i>davB</i> and Pb-E1- <i>act</i> -chnR	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
Pb-act-B1	<i>davB</i> and Pb- <i>act</i> -ChnR-B1	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
E1-act-B1	<i>davB</i> and Pb-E1- <i>act</i> -ChnR-B1	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
orf26	<i>davB</i> and <i>orf</i> 26	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
E1-orf26-B1	<i>davB</i> and Pb-E1- <i>orf</i> 26-ChnR-B1	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
caiC	davB and caiC	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
E1-caiC-B1	davB and Pb-E1-caiC-ChnR-B1	study

# **Table S2.** Primers used in this study

Prim er	Sequence (5' to 3')
P1	cgtaatcatggtcatagctg
P2	agtcgacctgcaggcatg
P3	atgcctgcaggtcgactATGGCCCTGGTCGTACAG

- P4 CGAGGGCAGGTGAAGATGATGTCGGTGGTGC
- P5 ATCTTCACCTGCCCTCGTTC
- P6 ctatgaccatgattacgCATCATGGACGAACTCAACG
  - GCTATATATGCTTATACTGGGCTAAATTAGAGCCTTAGCGAAAGGATGG
    - GCatgcgtaaaggagaagaag
- P8 cgactctagtttgtatagttcatccatg
- P9 actatacaaactagagtcgacctgcagg

TATAAGCATATATAGCCGGCGCAAGCAAGTACGAGACTCAAGAGCGAG

Cattcaccaccctgaattgac

GTCGAGGAATACTGTATACTATTTAAAATTCATTGGATAGCAAAGGACG

P11

P10

P7

GATatgcgtaaaggagaag

TATACAGTATTCCTCGACAGAATACCAGGCACAGTAAGTCGAGACAGA P12 GCattcaccaccctgaattgac

CATTCTGGTAAGGTACGATCCTAGAGTCTTAAGAGAACGGAAAGGAATT P13 GCatqcqtaaaqqaqaaqaaq

GTACCTTACCAGAATGTCGCCCTGAAAACTAATATGTATACCATGGGAG

P14

Cattcaccaccctgaattgac

GCGTATGGTAAGCTCTGTTATGTATAGTCCGAGCACGGCGAAAGGATA

P15

CTCatgcgtaaaggagaagaag

AGAGCTTACCATACGCCGCCGGCTTAGAGCCGACCGGTAAGGGTTGA

- P16 GCattcaccaccctgaattgac
- P17 ccaccgCAGTAGGCtCAACTGATTCG
- P18 ttgAgcctactgcggtggcctgattc

GCTATATATGCTTATACTGGGCTAAATTAGAGCCTTAGCGAAAGGATGG

P19 GCATGCATCACCATCACCATCATC

- P20 ATTTTCCTCCTTTttagcctttacgcaggtgc
- P21 taaaggctaaAAAGGAGGAAAATCatgaac
- P22 TGTATGTCCTCCTGGACTTCttaatctgccagggcgatc
- P23 AAGTCCAGGAGGACATACAATGAAGCGCCCTCTCGAAGG
- P24 tactgccgccaggcagcggccgcTTAGATGACGTTCTTCTCC
- P25 cgctgcctggcggcagtag

TATAAGCATATATAGCCGGCGCAAGCAAGTACGAGACTCAAGAGCGAG P26 Ccagcttttgttccctttagtg

P27 tactgccgccaggcagcggccgcttaatctgccagggcgatcg

AGTATAAGCATATATAGCCGGCGCAAGCAAGTACGAGACTCAAGAGCG

AGCttaatctgccagggcgatcg

- P29 gtgatatcccgcggccattaatctgccagggcgatcg
- P30 tggccgcgggatatcactag
- P31 tATGTCCTCCTGGACTTCtgaatttattcaaaatctgc

AAGTCCAGGAGGACATACAATGCATCACCATCACCATCATCATAAGCGC

#### P32 CCTCTCGAAG

- P33 gtctgtgctcatATTCATCCTTTTTAGATGACGTTCTTCTCC
- P34 AAAGGATGAATatgagcacagacaaagc
- P35 actgccgccaggcagcggccgctcaaaaaacaatagaggag

AAGTCCAGGAGGACATACAATGCATCACCATCACCATCATCATACCGCA

#### P36

P28

AAAATCTTTGCCG

- P37 actgccgccaggcagcggccgcTTATTCGGCTGCCATGCGGG
- P38 gctcatATTCATCCTTTTTATTCGGCTGCCATGCG
- P39 gattaaGAAGTCCAGGAGGACATACAATGGACATTATCGGTGGC
- P40 actgccgccaggcagcggccgcTTACTTGAGGTTCTTGC

- P41 gtctgtgctcatATTCATCCTTTTTACTTGAGGTTCTTGCGG
- P42 tttgtacagttcatccatac
- P43 atgcgtaaaggcgaagagc
- P44 tggatgaactgtacaaatgaggatccaaactcgagtaagg
- P45 tcttcgcctttacgcatggtaccctccattacgac
- P46 tctcttttagttgcaagcttc
- P48 agagtcaattcagggtggtg
- P49 gagattggtgtgttcctgtc
- P50 aggaacacaccaatctcgtgtctg
- P51 caccetgaattgactetette

#### 958

- **Table S3.** Sequence of codon optimized *davA* and *davB* genes from *P. putida*,
- 960 *act* gene from *C. propionicum*, *orf*26 gene from *S. aizunensis*, *caiC* gene from

961 *E. coli*.

Codon optimized sequence
atgcgcatcgcactgtaccaaggcgcacccaagccactagacgttcctggtaaccttcaacggctgcg
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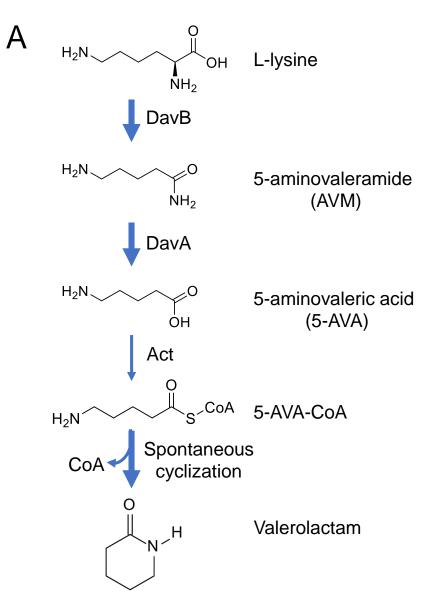
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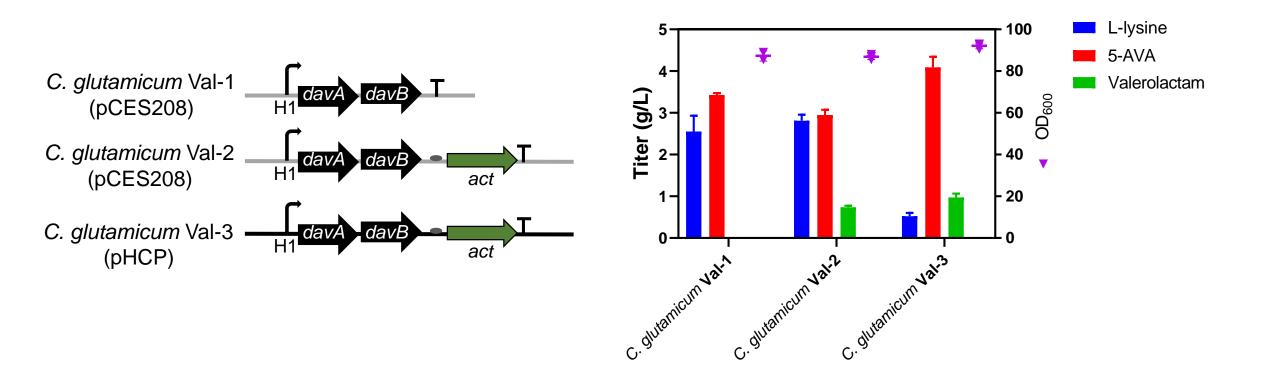
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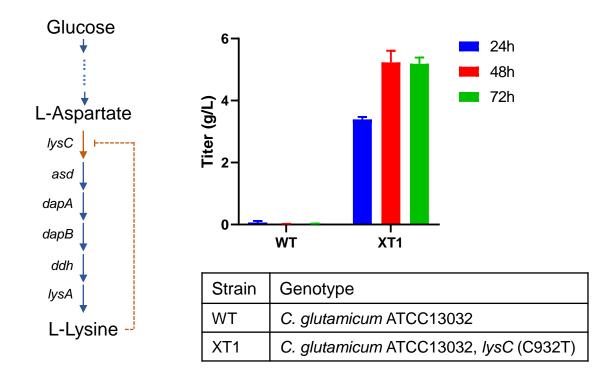


**Figure 1. (A)** The biosynthetic pathway of valerolactam from L-lysine.



В

**Figure 1**. **(B)** L-lysine, 5-AVA, and valerolactam production by *C. glutamicum* XT1 mutants with different versions of the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway. 5-AVA (5-aminovaleric acid).



**Figure S1.** The L-lysine biosynthetic pathway from glucose in *Corynebacterium* glutamicum and the titer of L-lysine produced by *C. glutamicum* ATCC13032 (WT) and mutant (XT1) in flask cultures.

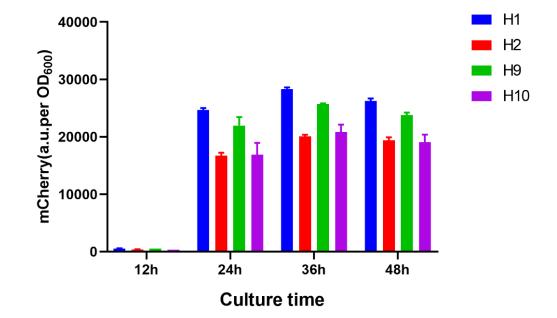
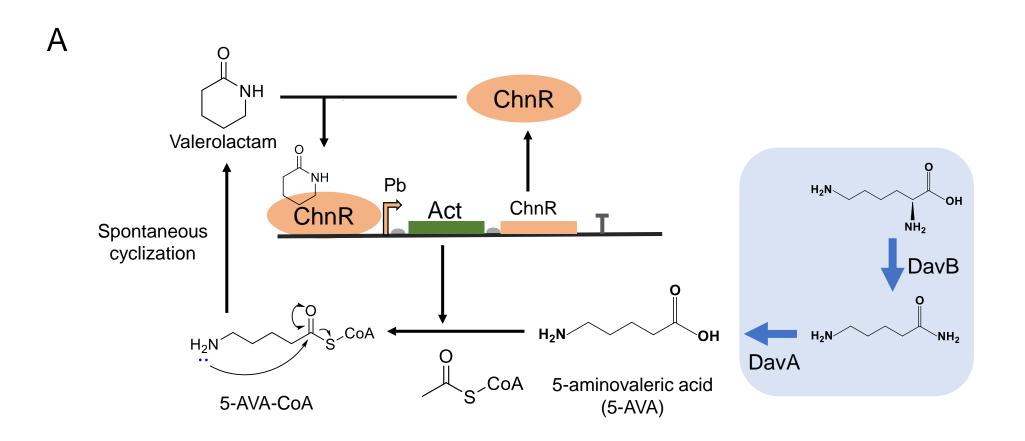
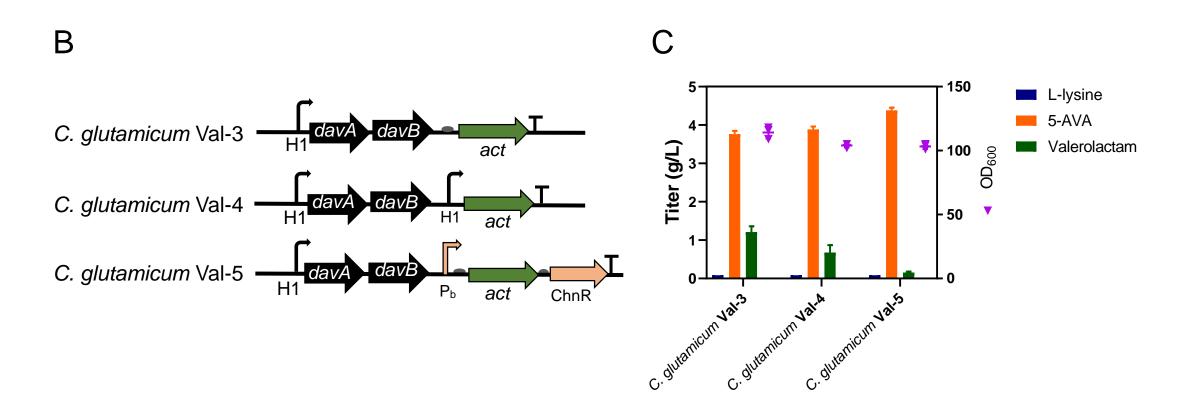
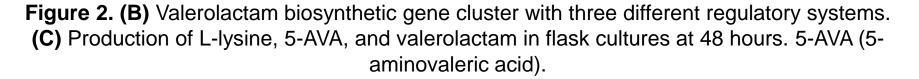


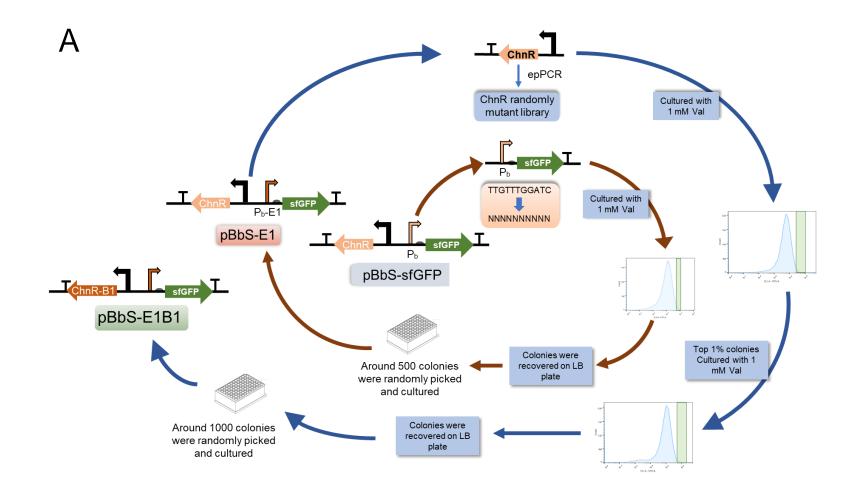
Figure S2. Strengths of the strong constitutive promoters evaluated in *C. glutamicum* XT1.



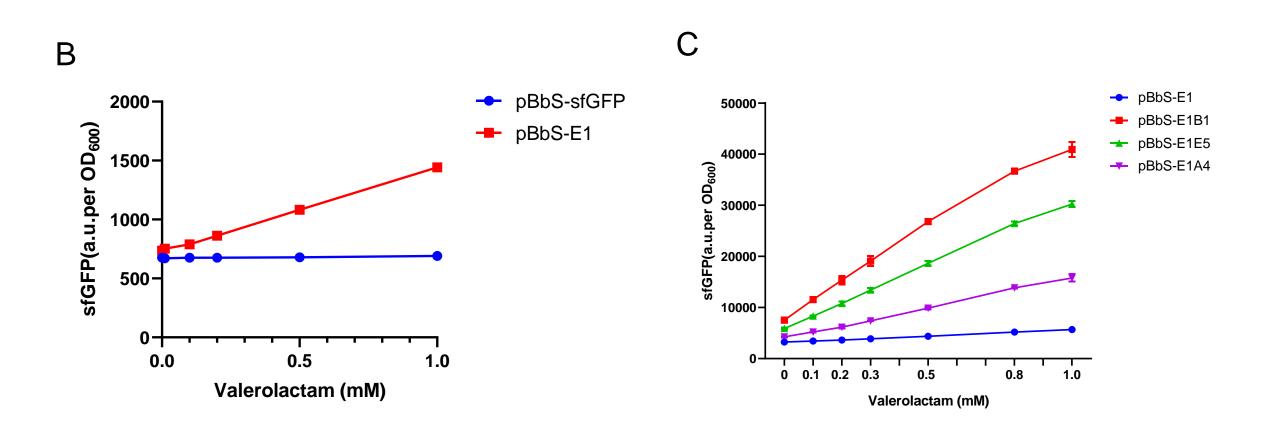
**Figure 2.** Valerolactam production and the dynamic regulatory system developed here. **(A)** Schematic of the ChnR/Pb system for dynamic upregulation of the expression of Act in the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway.



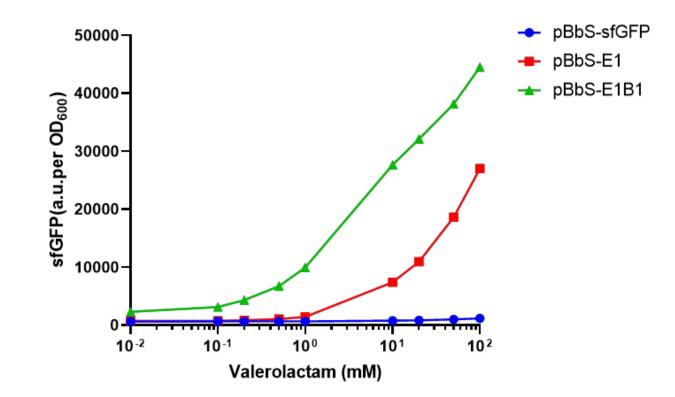


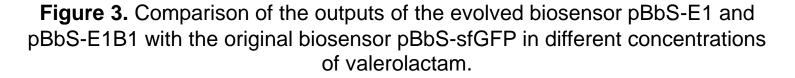


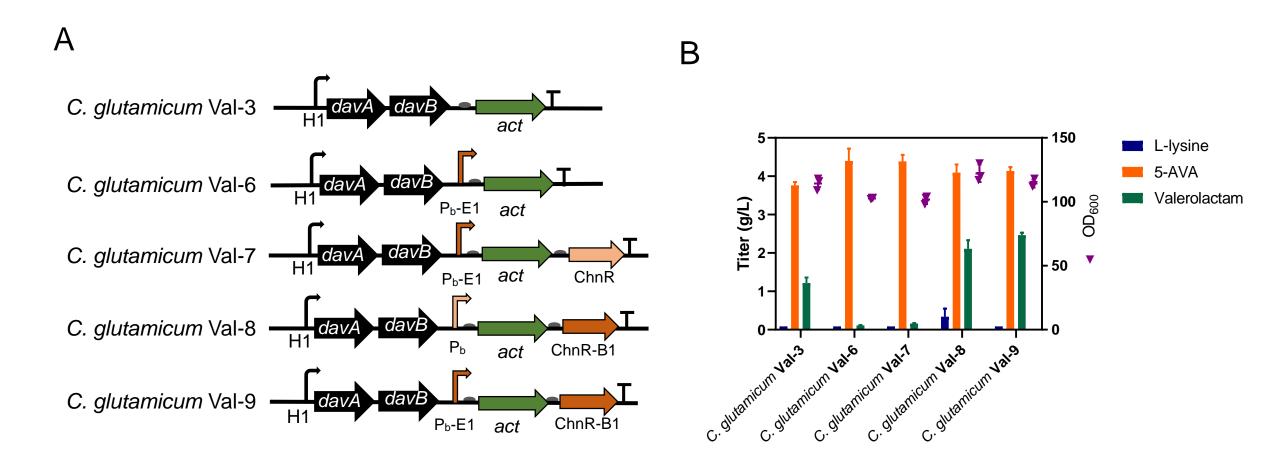
**Figure S3. (A)** Schematic of engineering the valerolactam biosensor. We started with the pBbS-sfGFP biosensor. Red arrow indicates engineering the ChnR binding site in Pb promoter. The Pb site-saturation mutagenesis library was sorted by FACS for the colonies with top 1% GFP signal, and these colonies were further verified in 96-well plates with 1 mM valerolactam to get biosensor pBbS-E1. Blue arrow indicates improving the binding affinity of ChnR for valerolactam (Val) by two rounds of FACS sorting. The ChnR mutants selected from the second round of FACS sorting were further verified in 96-well plates with 1 mM valerolactam to get the biosensor mutant pBbS-E1B1 with the highest fluorescence signal.



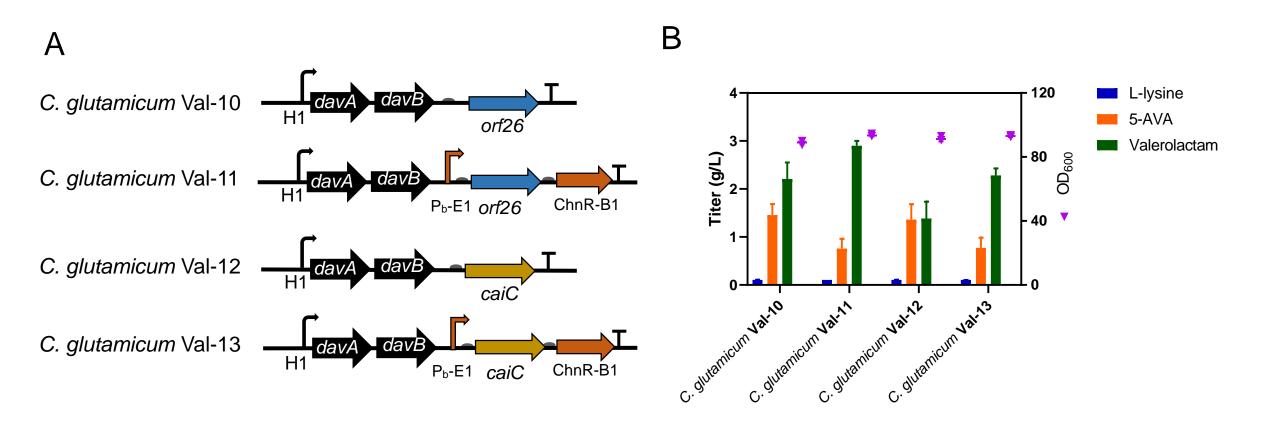
**Figure S3. (B)** Comparison of the outputs of the biosensor mutant pBbS-E1 with the original valerolactam biosensor pBbS-sfGFP for 0-1 mM valerolactam. **(C)** Comparison of the output from promoter Pb with different ChnR mutants with the pBbS-E1 control for 0-1 mM valerolactam.



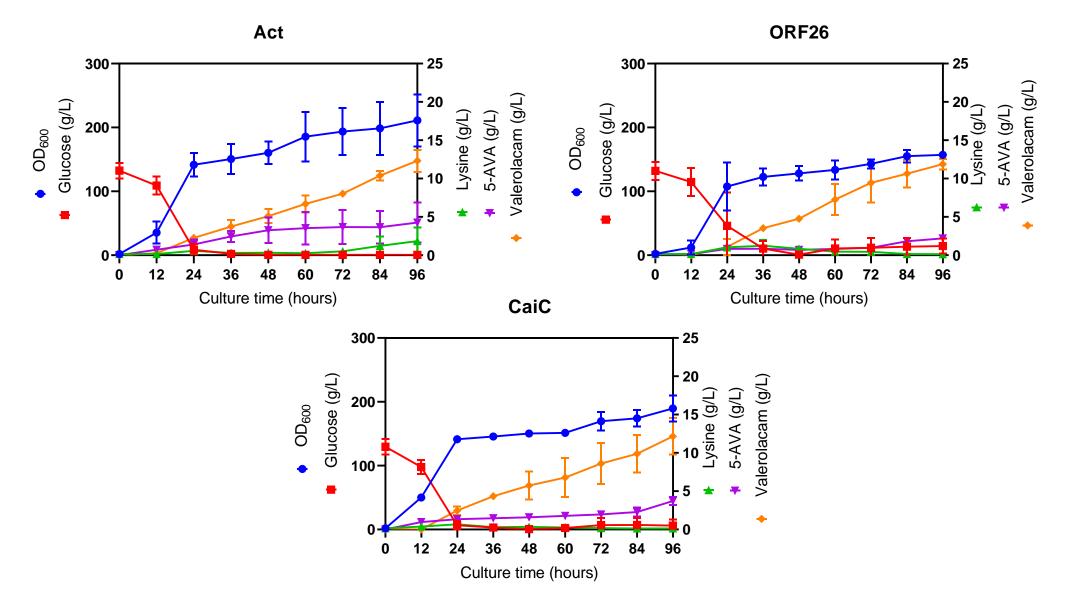


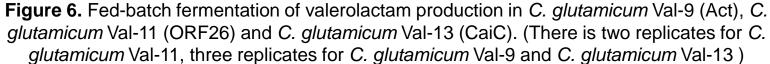


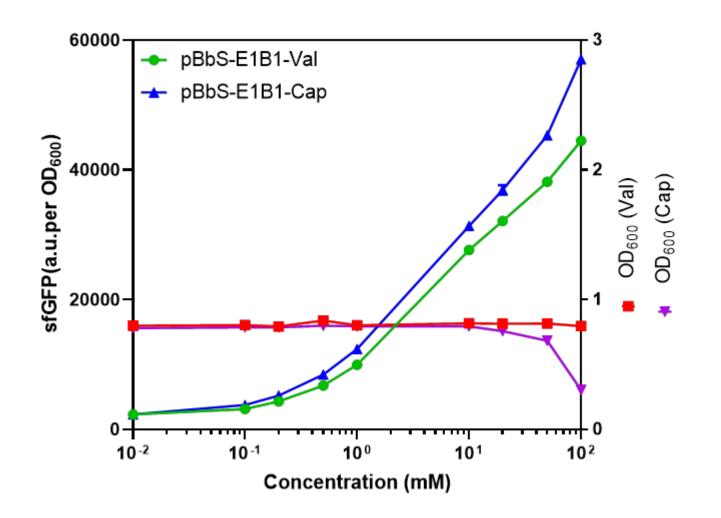
**Figure 4.** Dynamic upregulation of Act with the different regulator-promoter systems for valerolactam biosynthesis. **(A)** Design of the valerolactam pathway with different ChnR and Pb mutant combinations. **(B)** Flask culture results of the different valerolactam biosynthesis pathways indicated in **(A)**. 5-AVA (5-aminovaleric acid).



**Figure 5.** Dynamic upregulation of the ORF26 and CaiC with ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system for valerolactam biosynthesis. 5-AVA (5-aminovaleric acid).







**Figure S4.** Biosensor characterization of pBbS-E1B1 sensitivity to valerolactam (Val) and caprolactam (Cap) in *E. coli*.

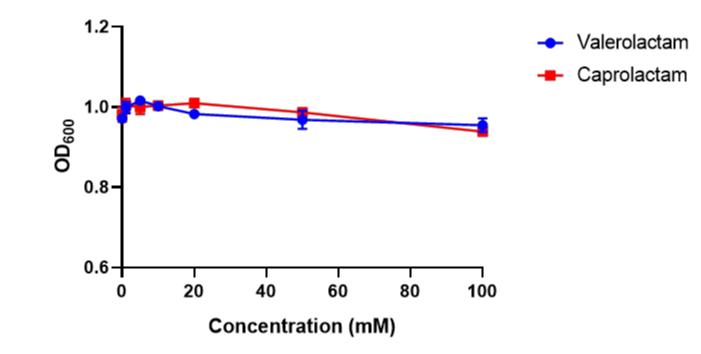


Figure S5. The effect of valerolactam and caprolactam on growth. of *C. glutamicum* XT1.

1	Dynamic upregulation of the rate-limiting enzyme for valerolactam
2	biosynthesis in Corynebacterium glutamicum
3	Xixi Zhao <sup>a,b,1</sup> , Yanling Wu <sup>a,b,c,1</sup> , Tingye Feng <sup>a,b</sup> , Junfeng Shen <sup>a,b</sup> , Huan Lu <sup>a,b</sup> ,
4	Yunfeng Zhang <sup>a,b</sup> , Howard H. Chou <sup>a,b,c,d</sup> , Xiaozhou Luo <sup>a,b,c,d</sup> *, Jay D. Keasling <sup>a,</sup>
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10	of Synthetic Biology, Shenzhen Institutes of Advanced Technology, Chinese
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16	<sup>e</sup> Joint BioEnergy Institute, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Emeryville,
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19	Laboratory, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA.
20	<sup>9</sup> QB3 Institute, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA.
21	<sup>h</sup> Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering and Department of
22	Bioengineering, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA.

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- 24 Denmark, Kemitorvet, Building 220, Kongens Lyngby 2800, Denmark.
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### 27 Abstract

Valerolactam is a monomer used to manufacture high-value nylon-5 and nylon-28 6,5. However, the biological production of valerolactam has been limited by the 29 inadequate efficiency of enzymes to cyclize 5-aminovaleric acid to produce 30 valerolactam. In this study, we engineered Corynebacterium glutamicum with a 31 valerolactam biosynthetic pathway consisting of DavAB from Pseudomonas 32 *putida* to convert L-lysine to 5-aminovaleric acid and  $\beta$ -alanine CoA transferase 33 (Act) from Clostridium propionicum to produce valerolactam from 5-34 aminovaleric acid. Most of the L-lysine was converted into 5-aminovaleric acid, 35 but promoter optimization and increasing the copy number of Act were 36 insufficient to significantly improve the titer of valerolactam. To eliminate the 37 38 bottleneck at Act, we designed a dynamic upregulation system (a positive feedback loop based on the valerolactam biosensor ChnR/Pb). We used 39 laboratory evolution to engineer ChnR/Pb to have higher sensitivity and a 40 higher dynamic output range, and the engineered ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system was 41 used to overexpress the rate-limiting enzymes (Act/ORF26/CaiC) that cyclize 42 5-aminovaleric acid into valerolactam. In glucose fed-batch culture, we obtained 43 12.33 g/L valerolactam from the dynamic upregulation of Act, 11.88 g/L using 44 ORF26, and 12.15 g/L using CaiC. Our engineered biosensor (ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 45 system) was also sensitive to 0.01-100 mM caprolactam, which suggests that 46 this dynamic upregulation system can be used to enhance caprolactam 47 biosynthesis in the future. 48

- 49 Keywords: Dynamic regulation, valerolactam, biosensor engineering,
- 50 Corynebacterium glutamicum.

52 **1. Introduction** 

53

Lactams are used as monomers for the synthesis of industrial polyamides 54 (nylon-4, nylon-5, nylon-6, nylon-6,5, etc.) (Yeom et al., 2018)(Chae et al., 55 2017)(Zhang et al., 2017b). Nylons are widely used in automobile parts, carpets, 56 and packaging due to their high tensile strength, good elasticity, and excellent 57 abrasion resistance. The global market for nylon-6 (with caprolactam as the 58 monomer) was estimated at USD 15 billion in 2019, and the market is growing, 59 60 propelled, in part, by an increasing demand for lightweight vehicles (Gordillo Sierra and Alper, 2020). Nylon-6,5 can be synthesized using valerolactam and 61 caprolactam as monomers and has different properties than nylon-6 due to the 62 63 addition of valerolactam (Park et al., 2014). Valerolactam and caprolactam are currently produced by petrochemical processes that require high temperatures 64 and harsh acidic conditions, are energy intensive, and produce large amounts 65 of waste. Biosynthesis of these lactams will alleviate many of these issues 66 (Gordillo Sierra and Alper, 2020). 67

The biosynthetic pathway to produce valerolactam from lysine has three enzymes, DavB (L-lysine monooxygenase) and DavA (5-aminovaleramide amidohydrolase) from *Pseudomonas putida* and an enzyme for the cyclization step of 5-aminovaleric acid (5-AVA) to valerolactam (Chae et al., 2017)(Zhang et al., 2017b). Recently, *Corynebacterium glutamicum* was engineered to produce 48.3 g/L 5-AVA by balancing the expression of heterologous *davAB* 

genes from *P. putida*, reducing the formation of the byproduct glutarate, 74 increasing 5-AVA export and reducing 5-AVA reimport (Rohles et al., 2022). 75 Additionally, Escherichia coli WL3110 was engineered with the same pathway 76 to produce 90.59 g/L 5-AVA from 120 g/L L-lysine (Park et al., 2014). While 5-77 AVA has been produced in high titer, there has been less progress in producing 78 valerolactam. When Act (*β*-alanine CoA transferase) was used for the 79 cyclization step, 1.18 g/L valerolactam was synthesized from glucose in 80 Escherichia coli (Chae et al., 2017), and 705 mg/L valerolactam was 81 82 synthesized from 10 g/L L-lysine when DavB, DavA, and ORF26 (acyl-CoA ligase) were co-expressed in E. coli (Zhang et al., 2017b). The limited titer of 83 the biosynthesized valerolactam is due to the inefficiency of the cyclization of 84 85 5-AVA to valerolactam (Zhang et al., 2017b)(Gordillo Sierra and Alper, 2020).

In traditional metabolic engineering strategies, heterologously expressed 86 pathway genes are modulated by increasing the DNA copy number, optimizing 87 promoter and ribosome binding strength, and engineering pathway enzymes to 88 maximize the production of the target chemicals (Brockman and Prather, 2015). 89 These strategies can effectively improve titer, rate, and yield of the desired final 90 product. Additionally, dynamic regulation systems have been effective for 91 increasing the titer of products through the upregulation or downregulation of 92 pathway genes by internally sensing metabolite levels in real time (Zhang et al., 93 2012)(Dahl et al., 2013)(Jones et al., 2015)(Yang et al., 2018). For example, 94 the transcription factor CatR has been designed for the dynamic upregulation 95

of salicylate biosynthesis in the muconic acid biosynthetic pathway, and this 96 strategy successfully increased the muconic acid titer by 5.87-fold compared 97 with static control (Yang et al., 2018). Another strategy for dynamic regulation 98 has been designed based on a positive feedback loop, in which the gene 99 product enhances its own production directly or indirectly by amplifying the 100 expression level of enzymes for its production. In Neurospora crassa, the 101 transcription factor CLR-2 was placed under the control of Pcbh-1, which is a 102 target of CLR-2. The expression level of CLR-2 was significantly increased 103 using this positive feedback loop and hence amplified the expression of 104 approximately 50% of 78 lignocellulosic degradation-related genes, which 105 revealed a previously unappreciated role of CLR-2 in the lignocellulosic 106 107 degradation gene network (Matsu-Ura et al., 2018). Finally, a LuxR-based positive feedback loop was designed as a genetic signal amplifier, and the 108 maximum expression level of the output signal was substantially increased in 109 the strains with a positive feedback loop compared to those without (Nistala et 110 al., 2010). In light of the previously reported biosensors for various lactams 111 (ChnR/Pb system), we reasoned that it should be possible to increase the titer 112 of valerolactam by dynamically upregulating the rate-limiting cyclization step. 113

*C. glutamicum* was chosen as the host to produce valerolactam because it is known to produce high levels of lysine and 5-AVA (Fig. 1A)(Becker et al., 2011)(Shin et al., 2016) (Chae et al., 2017)(Zhang et al., 2017b)(Rohles et al., 2022). We engineered wild-type *C. glutamicum* with *davAB* and *act* by

traditional metabolic engineering to increase its production of valerolactam. The
 lactam biosensor was then optimized and used to control the expression of the
 cyclization enzyme, leading to a 10-fold improvement in valerolactam
 production during fed-batch fermentation (Chae et al., 2017).

122

#### 123 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 124 **2.1 Experimental materials**

All bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 1 and 125 Table S1 respectively. All primers were synthesized at GENEWIZ (Suzhou, 126 China) and are listed in Table S2. The valerolactam biosynthetic pathway genes 127 davB and davA from Pseudomonas putida KT2440, act from Clostridium 128 129 propionicum, orf26 from Streptomyces aizunensis, and caiC from Escherichia coli were codon optimized for all C. glutamicum and synthesized at GENEWIZ 130 (Suzhou, China) (the sequences of the C. glutamicum-codon optimized 131 versions of davB and davA from P. putida were the same as those described 132 by (Shin et al., 2016)). The sequences of the C. glutamicum codon-optimized 133 genes are listed in Table S3. 134

135

**Table 1** Bacterial strains used in this study.

Strain	Description	Source
<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	General cloning purpose. Genotype:	Lab
	F <sup>–</sup> φ80 <i>lac</i> ZΔM15 Δ( <i>lac</i> ZYA- <i>arg</i> F)	stock

	U169 <i>rec</i> A1 <i>end</i> A1 <i>hsd</i> R17(r <sub>K</sub> -,	
	mκ⁺) <i>pho</i> A <i>sup</i> E44 <i>thi</i> -1 <i>gyr</i> A96 <i>rel</i> A1 λ⁻	
<i>E. coli</i> DH10B	F <i>−mcr</i> A Δ( <i>mrr-hsd</i> RMS <i>-mcr</i> BC)	Lab
	φ80 <i>lac</i> ZΔM15	stock
	∆lacX74 recA1 endA1 araD139 ∆(ara-	
	<i>leu</i> )7697 <i>gal</i> U <i>gal</i> K λ⁻ <i>rps</i> L(Str <sup>R</sup> ) <i>nup</i> G	
C. glutamicum	Wilt type	Lab
ATCC 13032		stock
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum ATCC 13032 derivate, lysC	This
XT1	(C932T)	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pCES208-	This
Val-1	H1davAB	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pCES208-	This
Val-2	H1davAB-act	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-3	H1davAB-act	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-4	H1davAB-H1act	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-5	H1davAB-Pb-act-chnR	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-6	H1davAB-E1-act	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-7	H1davAB-E1-act-chnR	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This

		- ( - I
Val-8	H1davAB-Pb-act-B1	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-9	H1davAB-E1-act-B1	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-10	H1davAB-orf26	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-11	H1davAB-E1-orf26-B1	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-12	H1davAB-caiC	study
C. glutamicum	C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-	This
Val-13	H1davAB-E1-caiC-B1	study

137

Luria-Bertani (LB) broth or plates (1.5%, w/v, agar) containing appropriate antibiotics were used for *E. coli* inoculation, plasmid propagation, and transformation. Kanamycin (50  $\mu$ g/mL) and chloramphenicol (25  $\mu$ g/mL) were added to the medium when necessary. *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$  was used for general cloning purposes, and *E. coli* DH10B was used for biosensor characterization and mutant library construction and sorting.

*Corynebacterium glutamicum* ATCC13032 was used as the base strain for the
construction of the L-lysine-producing and valerolactam-producing chassis
strains. LBHIS (tryptone 5 g/L, yeast extract 2.5 g/L, NaCl 5 g/L, BHI 18.5 g/L,
sorbitol 91 g/L, pH=7.2) broth or plates with 25 µg/mL kanamycin were used for

the cultivation or transformation of *C. glutamicum*.

149

### 150 **2.2 Genetic manipulation**

All DNA manipulation was performed according to standard protocols (Green 151 and Sambrook, 2012). Phanta DNA polymerase (Vazyme, Biotech, Co., Ltd., 152 China) was used for DNA fragment amplification by polymerase chain reaction 153 (PCR, ThermoFisher ProFlex PCR system). The kits for DNA fragment 154 purification and gel extraction were purchased from Omega Bio-Tek Inc. 155 (Norcross, GA, USA). The plasmid miniprep kit was purchased from TIANGEN 156 Biotech (Beijing, China), and the Gibson assembly reaction kit was purchased 157 from New England Biolabs (NEB, Ipswich, MA, USA). 158

The plasmid pK18mobsacB was used for point mutation of the lysC gene in the 159 C. glutamicum ATCC13032 genome. The primers P1 and P2 were used to 160 amplify the pK18 backbone from pK18mobsacB, primers P3 and P4 with a point 161 mutation (C932T, red font) were used to amplify part of lysC from the C. 162 glutamicum ATCC13032 genome, and primers P5 with a point mutation (C932T, 163 red font) and P6 were used to amplify the other part of *lysC* and 588 bp of the 164 lysC downstream fragment from the C. glutamicum ATCC13032 genome; the 165 pK18-lysC plasmid was obtained by Gibson assembly of the above three 166 fragments. Then, pK18-lysC was transformed into C. glutamicum ATCC13032. 167 After double crossover homologous recombination driven by sucrose selection 168 based on the function of sacB (Schäfer et al., 1994), we obtained the C. 169

170 *glutamicum* XT1 (*lysC*: C932T) strain with sequence confirmation.

For promoter strength analysis in C. glutamicum XT1, primers P7 (containing 171 part of the H1 sequence) and P8 were used to amplify the H1-mCherry fragment 172 from pBbSlactam, primers P9 and P10 (containing part of the H1 sequence) 173 were used to amplify the pEC backbone from pEC-XK99E, and then Gibson 174 assembly of the above two fragments was performed to obtain pH1-mCherry. 175 Primers P11 (containing part of the H2 sequence) and P8 were used to amplify 176 the H2-mCherry fragment from pBbSlactam, primers P12 (containing part of the 177 H2 sequence) and P9 were used to amplify the pEC backbone from pEC-178 XK99E, and Gibson assembly of the above two fragments was used to obtain 179 pH2-mCherry. Primers P13 (containing part of the H9 sequence) and P8 were 180 used to amplify the H9-mCherry fragment from pBbSlactam, primers P14 181 (containing part of the H9 sequence) and P9 were used to amplify the pEC 182 backbone from pEC-XK99E, and Gibson assembly of the above two fragments 183 was performed to obtain **pH9-mCherry**. Primers P15 (containing part of the 184 H10 sequence) and P8 were used to amplify the H10-mCherry fragment from 185 pBbSlactam, primers P16 (containing part of the H9 sequence) and P9 were 186 used to amplify the pEC backbone from pEC-XK99E, and Gibson assembly of 187 the above two fragments was performed to obtain pH10-mCherry. 188

189 To construct the high copy number plasmids derived from pCES208 (a kind gift 190 from Prof. Sang Yup Lee's Lab, (Park et al., 2008)), it was necessary to

introduce a nonsense mutation in the *parB* locus (Choi et al., 2018). Primers 191 P17 (with point mutation of *parB*, red font) and P18 (with point mutation of *parB*, 192 red font) were used to insert the point mutation into parB. Then, Gibson 193 assembly of this single PCR fragment was performed to obtain the pHCP 194 plasmid, and pCES208 and pHCP were used as backbones to construct the 195 valerolactam biosynthetic pathway. Primers P19 (containing part of the H1 196 sequence) and P20 (containing part of the RBS for davB and the RBS sequence 197 is from (Shin et al., 2016)) were used to amplify H1-davA from the synthesized 198 codon-optimized davA plasmid. Primers P21 (containing the RBS for davB) and 199 P22 (containing the RBS (Rohles et al., 2016) for act/orf26/caiC) were used to 200 amplify the davB fragment from the synthesized codon-optimized davB plasmid. 201 202 Primers P23 and P24 were used to amplify the act fragment from the synthesized codon-optimized act plasmid, and then primers P19 and P24 were 203 used for fusion PCR of the H1-davA, davB and act fragments to obtain the H1-204 davAB-act fragment. Primers P25 and P26 were used to amplify the pHCP 205 backbone from the pHCP plasmid, and then Gibson assembly of the pHCP 206 backbone and H1-davAB-act was performed to obtain the pHCP-H1davAB-act 207 plasmid. For pCES208-H1davAB-act plasmid construction, primers P25 and 208 P26 were used to amplify the pCES208 backbone from the pCES208 plasmid, 209 and then Gibson assembly of the pCES208 backbone with the H1-davAB-act 210 fragment was performed to obtain the plasmid. For pCES208-H1davAB plasmid 211 construction, primer P19 and primer P27 were used to amplify the H1davAB 212

fragment from H1davAB-act, and then Gibson assembly of pCES208 with
H1davAB was performed to obtain the plasmid.

For pHCP-H1davAB-H1act plasmid construction, primers P21 and P28 were used to amplify *davB*-H1 from the synthesized codon-optimized *davB* plasmid. Primer P19 and primer P24 were used to amplify the H1-*act* fragment from the synthesized codon-optimized *act* plasmid, and then primers P19 and P24 were used for fusion PCR of the H1-*davA*, *davB*-H1 and H1-*act* fragments to obtain the H1-davAB-H1-act fragment. Gibson assembly of the H1-davAB-H1-act fragment with the pHCP backbone was used to obtain the plasmid.

For pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-chnR plasmid construction, primers P21 and P29 222 were used to amplify davB-Pb from the synthesized codon-optimized davB 223 plasmid. Primers P30 and P31 were used to amplify the Pb fragment from 224 pBbSlactam, primers P32 and P33 were used to amplify the Pb-act fragment 225 226 from the synthesized codon-optimized act plasmid, primers P34 and P35 were used to amplify the chnR fragment from pBbSlactam, primers P19 and P29 227 were used for fusion PCR of H1-davA and davB-Pb to obtain the H1-davAB-Pb 228 fragment, primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion PCR of Pb, Pb-act and 229 chnR to obtain the Pb-act-chnR fragment, and then Gibson assembly of the H1-230 davAB-Pb, Pb-act-chnR and pHCP backbone was used to obtain the plasmid. 231

For construction of the other valerolactam biosynthetic pathway, many of the same primers were used to amplify the mutants from the different templates.

For example, for pHCP-H1davAB-E1act construction, primers P30 and P31 were used to amplify Pb-E1 from the pBbS-E1 plasmid, primers P32 and P24 were used to amplify *act* from the synthesized codon-optimized *act* plasmid, and primers P30 and P24 were used for fusion PCR of Pb-E1 and *act* fragments to obtain the E1-act fragment. Gibson assembly of H1-*davA*, *davB*, and E1-act was carried out to obtain **pHCP-H1davAB-E1act**.

For construction of dynamic regulation of *act* by ChnR/Pb-E1 system. Primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion PCR of Pb-E1, Pb-*act* and *chnR* to obtain the E1-*act*-chnR fragment, and then Gibson assembly of the H1-davAB-Pb, E1*act*-chnR and pHCP backbone was performed to obtain **pHCP-H1davAB-E1act-chnR**.

For construction of dynamic regulation of *act* by ChnR-B1/Pb system. Primers
P34 and P35 were used to amplify the *chnR*-B1 fragment from pBbS-E1B1,
then primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion PCR of Pb, Pb-*act* and *chnR*B1 to obtain the Pb-*act*-B1 fragment. Next, Gibson assembly of the H1-davABPb, Pb-*act*-B1 and pHCP backbone was performed to obtain pHCP-H1davABPb-act-B1.

For construction of dynamic regulation of *act* by ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system. Primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion PCR of Pb-E1, Pb-*act* and *chnR*-B1 to obtain the E1-*act*-B1 fragment, and then Gibson assembly of the H1-davAB-Pb, E1-*act*-B1 and pHCP backbone was performed to obtain **pHCP-H1davAB**-

255 **E1-act-B1**.

For construction of ORF26 as the catalysts for the cyclization step of valerolactam biosynthesis. Primers P36 and P37 were used to amplify the *orf26* fragment from the synthesized codon-optimized orf26 plasmid, then primers P19 and P37 were used for fusion PCR of the H1-*davA*, *davB* and *orf26* fragments to obtain the H1-davAB-orf26 fragment. Next, Gibson assembly of the pHCP backbone and H1-davAB-orf26 was used to obtain the **pHCP-H1davAB-orf26** plasmid.

For construction of dynamic regulation of *orf26* by ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system. Primers P36 and P38 were used to amplify Pb-orf26 from the synthesized codon-optimized orf26 plasmid, and primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion PCR of Pb-E1, Pb-*orf26* and *chnR*-B1 to obtain the E1-orf26-B1 fragment. Then, Gibson assembly of the H1-davAB-Pb, E1-*orf26*-B1 and pHCP backbone was performed to obtain the **pHCP-H1davAB-E1-orf26-B1** plasmid.

For construction of CaiC as the catalysts for the cyclization step of valerolactam biosynthesis Primers P39 and P40 were used to amplify the *caiC* fragment from the synthesized codon-optimized *caiC* plasmid, then primers P19 and P40 were used for fusion PCR of the H1-*davA*, *davB* and *caiC* fragments to obtain the H1-davAB-caiC fragment. Next, Gibson assembly of the pHCP backbone and H1-davAB-caiC was used to obtain the **pHCP-H1davAB-caiC** plasmid.

For construction of dynamic regulation of *caiC* by ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system.

Primers P39 and P41 were used to amplify Pb-*caiC* from the synthesized
codon-optimized *caiC* plasmid, and primers P30 and P35 were used for fusion
PCR of Pb-E1, Pb-*caiC* and *chnR*-B1 to obtain E1-*caiC*-B1. Then, Gibson
assembly of the H1-davAB-Pb, E1-*caiC*-B1 and pHCP backbone was
performed to obtain pHCP-H1davAB-E1-caiC-B1.

All the above Gibson assembly reactions were transformed into *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$ , and the plasmids were sequenced.

283

### 284 **2.3 Promoter analysis**

The constructed pH1-mCherry, pH2-mCherry, pH9-mCherry, and pH10-285 mCherry plasmids were transformed into C. glutamicum XT1 using electro 286 transformation (Ruan et al., 2015). Three randomly selected colonies from each 287 plate were inoculated into 3 mL of LBHIS with 25 µg/mL kanamycin and 288 incubated at 30 °C and 200 rpm shaking for 16-18 hours. Then the cells were 289 inoculated (1:100) into 96-deep well plates containing 1 mL of LBHIS and 25 290 µg/mL kanamycin. The cells in the 96-deep well plates were cultured in a high-291 speed shaker at 30 °C and 800 rpm. One hundred microliters of culture medium 292 were removed at 12 h, 24 h, 36 h, and 48 h for mCherry fluorescence signal 293 analysis ( $\lambda_{ex}$ =575 nm,  $\lambda_{em}$ =620 nm) with an Infinite 200 PRO (TECAN, San Jose, 294 CA). 295

296

### 297 **2.4 Mutant library construction and biosensor engineering**

For valerolactam biosensor engineering, the primers P42 and P43 were used 298 to amplify sfGFP from pMD19-sfGFP, which was a kind gift from Prof. Fu's 299 laboratory (SIAT, Shenzhen, China). The primers P44 and P45 were used to 300 amplify the backbone from pBbSlactam, and then Gibson assembly of the 301 backbone and sfGFP was performed to obtain pBbS-sfGFP. Primers P46 and 302 P47 (N in red font was indicated as the putative binding site of the transcription 303 factor ChnR (Cheng et al., 2000), Table S2) were used to amplify the Pb site-304 saturated mutant library fragments followed by Gibson assembly and 305 transformation into E. coli DH10B to obtain the Pb mutant library. Then, 20-30 306 colonies were randomly selected for sequencing to analyze the quality of the 307 library. E. coli DH10B with the Pb mutant library was sorted with 1 mM 308 valerolactam by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS, BD Aria III, San 309 Jose, USA) to obtain the colonies with the highest 1% sfGFP signal. These 310 colonies were plated on LB agar with 25 µg/mL chloramphenicol. Approximately 311 500 colonies were randomly placed into 96-deep well plates with 1 mL of LB 312 (including 25 µg/mL chloramphenicol and 1 mM valerolactam) and cultured for 313 12 hours at 37 °C and 800 rpm in a high-speed shaker. Samples (100 µL) were 314 then placed into 96-well plates for sfGFP fluorescence analysis ( $\lambda_{ex}$ =488 nm, 315  $\lambda_{em}$ =520 nm). A mutant Pb-E1 (5'-3': TGTAGCCCACC) showed a much higher 316 sfGFP signal in response to 1 mM valerolactam than the wild type (5'-3': 317 ttgtttggatc). The plasmid with this mutation was named pBbS-E1. 318

Primers P48 and P49 were used for error-prone PCR (epPCR) of the *chnR* 

gene to engineer the transcription factor ChnR to generate a mutant with a 320 higher binding affinity for valerolactam. epPCR was performed according to the 321 instruction manual of the GeneMorph II Random Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent 322 Technologies, #200550). To obtain a library with both low and medium mutation 323 frequencies of ChnR, 4 tubes (50 µL) were used for epPCR with 300 ng-500 ng 324 of target DNA, which were conducted as follows: 95 °C for 2 min, 23× (95 °C 325 for 30 s, 55 °C for 30 s, 72 °C for 1 min and 15 s), and 72 °C for 10 min. The 326 epPCR products were subjected to gel extraction for library construction. 327 Primers P50 and P51 were used to amplify the E1 backbone from pBbS-E1 328 followed by Gibson assembly of the *chnR* epPCR products and E1 backbone, 329 and the Gibson reaction products were transformed into E. coli DH10B 330 competent cells to obtain the ChnR random mutant library (~1\*10^6 colonies 331 were obtained). Approximately 40 colonies from the ChnR library were 332 randomly selected for sequencing to assess the quality of the mutant library. 333 The library was cultured with 1 mM valerolactam for 12 h, and the colonies with 334 the top 1% sfGFP signal were sorted by FACS. These colonies were recultured 335 with 1 mM valerolactam for a second round of FACS. Approximately 1000 336 colonies from the second round of FACS were randomly placed into 96-deep 337 well plates with 1 mL of LB (including 25 µg/mL chloramphenicol and 1 mM 338 valerolactam) and cultured for 12 hours at 37 °C and 800 rpm in a high-speed 339 shaker. Then, 100 µL samples were placed in 96-well plates for sfGFP 340 fluorescence analysis ( $\lambda_{ex}$ =488 nm,  $\lambda_{em}$ =520 nm), and a new mutant, ChnR-B1 341

(S63G, V121A) showed a much higher sfGFP signal to 1 mM valerolactam than
the control pBbS-E1. The plasmid with this ChnR (S63G, V121A) mutation was
named pBbS-E1B1.

345

## 2.5 Flask culture of the *C. glutamicum* strains to produce L-lysine and recombinant *C. glutamicum* XT1 to produce valerolactam

To compare the L-lysine production by C. glutamicum ATCC13032 and XT1, the 348 strains from the glycerol stock were cultured on LBHIS agar for 24 hours, and 349 350 then three randomly picked colonies were recultured on new LBHIS agar for 24 hours for the second round of activation. Three colonies each of C. glutamicum 351 WT and XT1 from the second-round activation plates were cultured in LBHIS 352 353 medium at 30 °C and 200 rpm shaking for 17-18 hours as the seed culture. For flask culture, the seed culture was added to a 250 mL flask containing 25 mL of 354 growth medium (100 g/L glucose, 1 g/L MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 1 g/L K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 1 g/L KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 355 1 g/L urea, 40 g/L (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 10 g/L yeast extract, 100 µg/mL biotin, 10 mg/L 356 β-alanine, 10 mg/L thiamine HCI, 10 mg/L nicotinic acid, 1.3 mg/L (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub>MoO<sub>24</sub>, 357 40 mg/L CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 mg/L FeSO<sub>4</sub>, 10 mg/L MnSO<sub>4</sub>, 5 mg/L CuSO<sub>4</sub>, 10 mg/L 358 ZnSO<sub>4</sub>, and 5 mg/L NiCl<sub>2</sub>) to have an initial OD<sub>600</sub>=0.1, which was modified 359 based on previous research (Shin et al., 2016). Each flask contained 0.75 g of 360 CaCO<sub>3</sub> to maintain the pH at ~7.0 during cultivation, and the flasks were 361 cultured at 30 °C with shaking at 220 rpm. Then, 500 µL samples were removed 362 at 24 hours, 48 hours and 72 hours for quantitative analysis of L-lysine. 363

To examine whether increasing the expression of valerolactam biosynthetic 364 pathway genes can improve valerolactam production, the plasmids pCES208-365 H1davAB, pCES208-H1davAB-act and pHCP-H1davAB-act were transformed 366 into C. glutamicum XT1. To compare the strong constitutive promoter and the 367 dynamically upregulated system of act for valerolactam biosynthesis, the 368 pHCP-H1davAB-act, pHCP-H1davAB-H1act, and pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-369 chnR plasmids were transformed into C. glutamicum XT1. To compare the 370 engineered biosensor system-assisted dynamic upregulation of act for 371 valerolactam biosynthesis, the pHCP-H1davAB-E1-act, pHCP-H1davAB-E1-372 act-chnR, pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-B1, and pHCP-H1davAB-E1-act-B1 373 plasmids were transformed into C. glutamicum XT1. To determine whether the 374 engineered biosensor system could assist in the dynamic upregulation of 375 ORF26 and CaiC to produce more valerolactam than the strong consistent 376 promoter, the plasmids pHCP-H1davAB-orf26 and pHCP-H1davAB-E1-orf26-377 B1, pHCP-H1davAB-caiC, and pHCP-H1davAB-E1-caiC-B1 were transformed 378 into C. glutamicum XT1. Three randomly selected colonies from the above 379 transformation plates were cultured in LBHIS medium with 25 µg/mL kanamycin 380 at 30 °C and 200 rpm shaking for 17-18 hours as seed culture. For flask cultures, 381 the seed culture was added to a 250 mL flask containing 25 mL of fermentation 382 medium to have an initial OD<sub>600</sub>=0.1, the fermentation medium was the same 383 as the L-lysine production medium, plus 25 µg/mL kanamycin. Each flask 384 contained 0.75 g of CaCO<sub>3</sub> to maintain the pH at ~7.0 during cultivation. The 385

culture conditions were 30 °C at 220 rpm for 48 hours, and 1 mL samples were
 removed for measuring the OD<sub>600</sub> and quantitative analysis of L-lysine, 5-AVA
 and valerolactam.

389

### **2.6 Fed-batch fermentation to produce valerolactam**

The glycerol stocks of C. glutamicum XT1 pHCP-H1davAB-E1-act-B1, C. 391 glutamicum XT1 pHCP-H1davAB-E1-orf26-B1, and C. glutamicum XT1 pHCP-392 H1davAB-E1-caiC-B1 were first cultured on LBHIS agar with 25 µg/mL 393 kanamycin, and after 24 hours, the activated colonies were transferred to a new 394 LBHIS plate with 25 µg/mL kanamycin for the second generation cultures. The 395 second generation cultures were collected and inoculated into a 250 mL flask 396 with 50 mL of seed medium, which was the same as that previously reported 397 (Shin et al., 2016), and grown at 30 °C and 220 rpm for 17-18 hours. 398 Approximately 40 mL of seed medium was added as the inoculum to 400 mL of 399 fermentation medium (initial  $OD_{600}$ =1.5-2.0) with 25 µg/mL kanamycin in a 1.2 400 L fermenter. The fed-batch fermentation medium was the same as that used by 401 Shin et al., 2016, except that the biotin concentration was 1.8 mg/L. An 402 Eppendorf-DASGIP parallel bioreactor system (Hamburg, Germany) equipped 403 with eight 1.2-L jars was used for all fed-batch cultivation experiments. The 404 temperature and agitation were maintained at 30 °C and 1200 rpm, respectively, 405 and the pH was maintained at 7.0 by the addition of a 28% (v/v) ammonia 406 solution. Foaming was suppressed by adding 10% (v/v) antifoam 204 (Sigma-407

Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). A 50% (w/v) glucose solution was added when
the residual glucose level was below than 5 g/L. Samples were taken every 12
hours to analyze the L-lysine, 5-aminovaleric acid, and valerolactam contents,
the residual glucose was analyzed with a SBA-40E Biosensor analyzer (Jinan
Yanhe Biotechnology Co., LTD, Jinan, China), and the OD<sub>600</sub> was measured
with a cell density meter Ultrospec 10 (Biochrom, Cambridge, UK).

414

### 415 **2.7 Quantitative analysis of L-lysine, 5-AVA and valerolactam**

A high-performance liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) 416 instrument (Agilent 1290-6470, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) 417 fitted with an EC-C18 column (4.6 × 100 mm; Agilent Technologies) was 418 operated at 37 °C to determine the L-lysine, 5-AVA and valerolactam 419 concentrations in the culture broth (flask culture and fed-batch culture). 420 Samples were removed from the cultured medium and placed in 2.0 ml 421 Eppendorf tubes, and 100 µL of supernatant was obtained by centrifugation at 422 11600 x g for 3 min. Then, the 100  $\mu$ L of supernatant was treated with a freeze 423 dryer (Christ Alpha-2LDplus, Osterode, Germany) for 2-3 hours and 424 resuspended in 1 mL of 5% MeOH. This solution was diluted 1000-fold before 425 each sample was subjected to LC-MS analysis. The method for valerolactam 426 quantitation was modified based on a previous report (Chae et al., 2017). The 427 mobile phase was composed of solvent A (H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.1% formic acid) and solvent 428 B (MeOH), and elution was performed with the following gradient: 0-10 min, 429

5%-30% B at 0.5 mL/min; and 10-16 min, 5% B at 0.5 mL/min. The eluent was 430 directed to the mass spectrometer, which was operated in electrospray 431 ionization (ESI) positive ion mode with the following conditions: gas 432 temperature, 350 °C; gas flow, 10.0 L/min; nebulizer, 45 psi; and capillary 433 voltage, 3.5 kV. Multiple reaction monitor (MRM) mode was selected as the 434 scan mode to detect precursor-to-product ion transitions. The m/z transitions 435 were 100.1 to 44.1 (fragmentor: 110; CE: 40) and 100.1 to 56.1 (fragmentor: 436 110; CE: 21). For the guantitation of L-lysine and 5-AVA, the mobile phase was 437 applied from 0-10 min with 5% B (MeOH) at a flow rate of 0.2 mL/min. The same 438 mass spectrometry parameters were used, except MRM mode was set to 147 439 to 130.1 (fragmentor: 80; CE: 9) and 147 to 84.1 (fragmentor: 80; CE: 17) for L-440 lysine, and the 5-AVA m/z transitions were 118 to 101(fragmentor: 80; CE: 9) 441 and 118 to 55.1 (fragmentor: 80; CE: 2). Standards of L-lysine (Sigma-Aldrich), 442 5-AVA (Sigma-Aldrich) (each 5.0 mg/L, 2.5 mg/L, 1.25 mg/L, 0.625 mg/L and 443 0.3125 mg/L) and valerolactam (Sigma-Aldrich) (each 4.0 mg/L, 2.0 mg/L, 1.0 444 mg/L, 0.5 mg/L, 0.25 mg/L and 0.125 mg/L) were used to generate standard 445 curves. Statistical analysis was performed with GraphPad Prism 8.0.1 (La Jolla, 446 CA, USA), and the results are reported as the mean with SD (n=3). 447

448

449 **3. Results** 

450 **3.1. Construction of the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway in an L-lysine-**

### 451 producing *C. glutamicum* mutant.

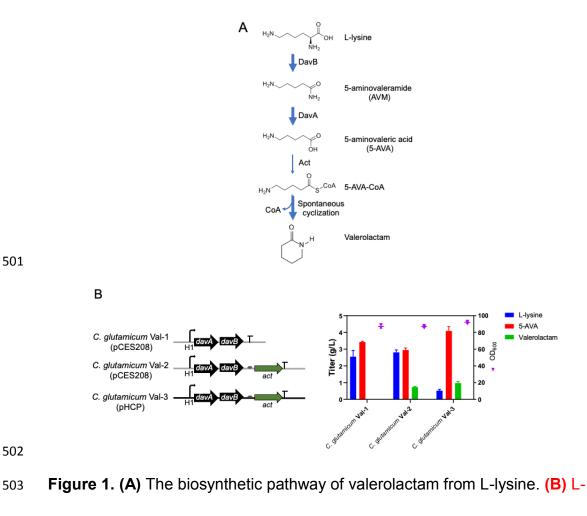
Three enzymatic reactions are needed to convert L-lysine into valerolactam 452 (Fig. 1A). To eliminate the need to add extracellular L-lysine to the reaction, we 453 constructed a chassis strain that produces L-lysine. We chose C. glutamicum 454 ATCC13032 as the base strain for L-lysine production because it is Generally 455 Recognized as Safe (GRAS) and is already considered a strain that can be 456 used for industrial L-lysine production (Becker et al., 2011). The wild-type lysC 457 in the genome of C. glutamicum ATCC13032 was replaced with a mutant lysC 458 (C932T) to construct the mutant strain C. glutamicum XT1. The aspartokinase 459 encoded by *lysC* is a key regulatory enzyme in L-lysine biosynthesis, and the 460 point mutation C932T can increase L-lysine production by reducing feedback 461 462 inhibition by L-lysine (Fig. 1B) (Ohnishi et al., 2002)(Becker et al., 2011). This strain produced 5.23 g/L L-lysine within 48 hours in flask culture (Fig. 1B). Using 463 lysine-producing C. glutamicum XT1 as the chassis strain for valerolactam 464 biosynthesis, we then designed, constructed, and tested various strategies for 465 gene regulation to produce valerolactam. 466

Act, encoding the β-alanine CoA transferase from *Clostridium propionicum*(Chae et al., 2017), ORF26, encoding the acyl-CoA ligase from *Streptomyces aizunensis*, and CaiC, encoding a crotonobetaine CoA ligase from *E. coli*(Zhang et al., 2017b), have been reported to be catalysts for the cyclization step
of valerolactam biosynthesis, and together with DavB and DavA from *P. putida*,
they compose the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway. Act was selected first to

473 metabolically engineer a valerolactam biosynthetic pathway to improve the titer
474 of valerolactam in *C. glutamicum* XT1.

The strengths of the previously characterized strong constitutive C. 475 alutamicum promoters H1, H2, H9 and H10, which showed strength similar to 476 or greater than the widely used strong promoter pH36 (Wei et al., 2018), were 477 revalidated in C. glutamicum XT1 with mCherry as a reporter. As indicated by 478 mCherry fluorescence, promoter H1 showed the highest strength (Fig. S1) and 479 was selected to drive the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway genes for 480 subsequent research. According to previous research, the high copy number 481 plasmid pHCP was constructed based on pCES208; compared with pCES208 482 (4-5 copies/cell), the copy number of pHCP increased 10-fold (Choi et al., 2018). 483 484 The strongest constitutive promoter, H1, was used to drive expression of DavA, DavB and Act, which were integrated into both pCES208 and pHCP to obtain 485 pCES208-H1davAB-act and pHCP-H1davAB-act, respectively, whereas H1-486 driven DavA and DavB (no Act) were ligated into pCES208 to obtain pCES208-487 H1DavAB as a negative control. These plasmids (pCES208-H1DavAB, 488 pCES208-H1davAB-act, and pHCP-H1davAB-act) were transformed into C. 489 glutamicum XT1 yielding strains C. glutamicum Val-1, C. glutamicum Val-2, and 490 C. glutamicum Val-3, respectively, to test their corresponding valerolactam titers. 491 In flask cultures, 0.73 g/L valerolactam was produced by C. glutamicum Val-492 2, which was 25-fold more than that with the same pathway genes in E. coli 493 under flask culture conditions (29 mg/L) (Chae et al., 2017); moreover, 0.97 g/L 494

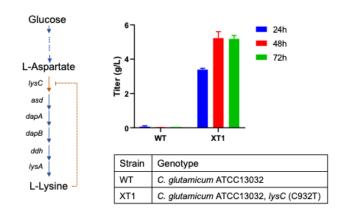
valerolactam was produced by *C. glutamicum* Val-3 (Fig. S2). In *C. glutamicum*Val-3, most of the L-lysine was transformed into 5-AVA by the overexpressed
DavA and DavB by increasing the plasmid copy number, whereas in Val-2 there
were approximately equal amounts of L-lysine and 5-AVA (Fig. S2). Hence, we
concluded that the cyclization of 5-AVA into valerolactam by Act is the ratelimiting step for valerolactam biosynthesis.



<sup>504</sup> Iysine, 5-AVA, and valerolactam production by *C. glutamicum* XT1 mutants

with different versions of the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway. 5-AVA (5-

506 aminovaleric acid).

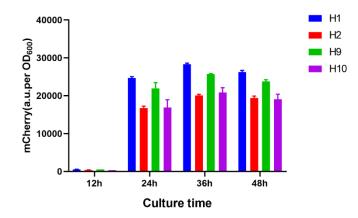




508 Figure S1. The L-lysine biosynthetic pathway from glucose in

509 Corynebacterium glutamicum and the titer of L-lysine produced by C.

510 glutamicum ATCC13032 (WT) and mutant (XT1) in flask cultures.



511

512 **Figure S2.** Strengths of the strong constitutive promoters evaluated in *C*.

513 glutamicum XT1.

514

515 **3.2 Design of a dynamic upregulation system to amplify the expression of** 

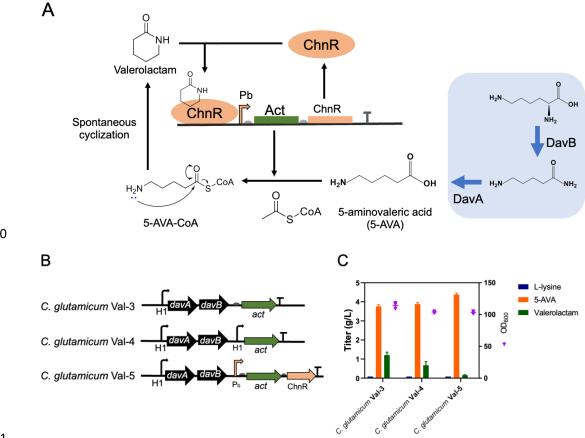
516 **Act** 

To further improve the titer of valerolactam, our primary task became how to obtain much higher expression of Act than in *C. glutamicum* Val-3. We first tried to add another strong promoter, H1, to drive Act to further increase its expression level, resulting in plasmid pHCP-H1davAB-H1act (Fig. 2B). In

addition, a dynamic upregulation strategy was also used to further amplify the 521 expression of Act. Previously this positive feedback loop (dynamic 522 upregulation)-based gene amplifier was shown to dramatically increase the 523 expression of the regulated GFP gene (Nistala et al., 2010). Thus, we designed 524 the valerolactam biosensor ChnR/Pb system as a positive feedback amplifier 525 to regulate the expression of Act (Fig. 2A). The promoter H1 was used to drive 526 the expression of valerolactam biosynthetic pathway genes with Act regulated 527 by the ChnR/Pb system to obtain the pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-chnR plasmid 528 (Fig. 2). We hypothesized that the promoter H1 would initiate expression of Act 529 and ChnR, and then the valerolactam produced from the cyclization reaction of 530 5-AVA would bind with ChnR to form a ChnR-valerolactam complex that would 531 532 regulate expression of the Pb promoter (Zhang et al., 2017a), thus initiating the dynamic upregulation system (positive feedback amplifier) (Fig. 2A). 533

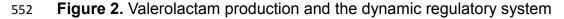
Comparing the valerolactam titers in the flask cultures of C. glutamicum 534 Val-4 and C. glutamicum Val-5, which are C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-535 H1davAB-H1act and pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-chnR, respectively, with that from 536 the C. glutamicum Val-3 control, 0.67 g/L and 0.15 g/L valerolactam were 537 produced with C. glutamicum Val-4 and C. glutamicum Val-5, respectively, 538 which were both lower than the valerolactam produced with the C. glutamicum 539 Val-3 control (Fig. 2C). This decrease in valerolactam production with the extra 540 H1 promoter for Act in C. glutamicum Val-4 may have been explained by 541 (Rohles et al., 2022), who found that an additional promoter of the second gene 542

in a two-gene operon can sometimes decrease the expression levels of the
genes. To our surprise, the valerolactam pathway dynamically upregulated in *C. glutamicum* Val-5 showed less valerolactam production than the control (Fig.
2C). We suspected that the main reason for this result was due to the lower
sensitivity (1-50 mM) and poor dynamic output range (2.4) of the original
valerolactam biosensor (ChnR/Pb system) (Zhang et al., 2017a), which limited
the expression of Act.





551



developed here. (A) Schematic of the ChnR/Pb system for dynamic

<sup>554</sup> upregulation of the expression of Act in the valerolactam biosynthetic pathway.

(B) Valerolactam biosynthetic gene cluster with three different regulatory

systems. (C) Production of L-lysine, 5-AVA, and valerolactam in flask cultures
at 48 hours. 5-AVA (5-aminovaleric acid).

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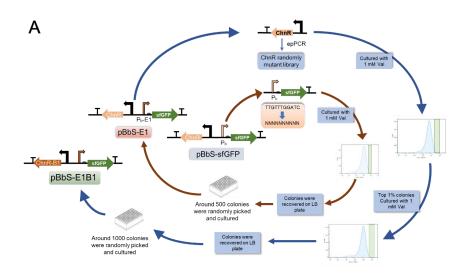
# 3.3. Improving the sensitivity and dynamic output range of the valerolactam biosensor.

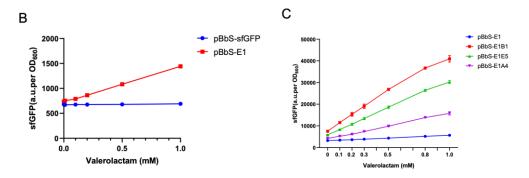
The sensitivity and dynamic output range of the biosensor in the ChnR/Pb 561 system determine the expression time and maximum expression level of Act. 562 To improve the sensitivity and dynamic output range of the biosensor, the 563 binding affinities of the transcription factor ChnR for the promoter Pb and 564 substrate valerolactam should be modified (Snoek et al., 2020). The original 565 valerolactam biosensor (ChnR/Pb system) was characterized in E. coli DH10B 566 (Zhang et al., 2017a), and mutant library construction, sorting and 567 characterization of the valerolactam biosensor were also performed in E. coli 568 DH10B. Cheng et al. proposed a putative ChnR binding region (5'-3': 569 TTGTTTGGATC) in the promoter Pb (Cheng et al., 2000), so we constructed a 570 Pb site-saturation mutagenesis library based on the predicted ChnR binding 571 region with sfGFP as the reporter. The Pb mutant library was cultured with 1 572 mM valerolactam for 12 hours and then sorted by FACS for the mutants with 573 the top 1% sfGFP signal (Fig. S3A). Approximately 500 colonies from the FACS-574 sorted group were further tested with 1 mM valerolactam. The biosensor mutant 575 E1 (5'-3': TGTAGCCCACC) showed a higher sfGFP signal than the original 576 biosensor pBbS-sfGFP after treatment with 1 mM valerolactam. The biosensor 577

with this Pb mutation (E1) was named pBbS-E1. The fluorescence output of 578 strains harboring biosensor plasmids pBbS-E1 and pBbS-sfGFP were 579 compared for valerolactam concentrations in the range 0-100 mM. The results 580 from pBbS-E1 showed a linear correlation in the fluorescence intensity with 0-581 1 mM valerolactam, while there was no response from pBbS-sfGFP with 0-1 582 mM valerolactam (Fig. S3B), indicating the increased sensitivity of pBbS-E1 583 compared with the original biosensor pBbS-sfGFP. Moreover, the dynamic 584 output range of pBbS-E1 was much higher than that of pBbS-sfGFP for 0-100 585 586 mM valerolactam (Fig. 3).

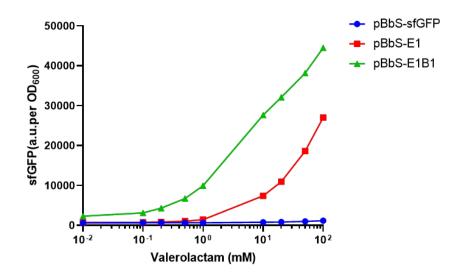
Engineering the valerolactam binding domain in the transcription factor 587 ChnR should further increase the dynamic output range (Snoek et al., 588 2020)(Mannan et al., 2017); however, the valerolactam binding domain in ChnR 589 is not yet defined. Therefore, a random ChnR mutagenesis library was 590 constructed based on the pBbS-E1 plasmid by error-prone PCR (epPCR). This 591 mutant library was then cultured with 1 mM valerolactam for FACS sorting. After 592 two rounds of FACS sorting for the colonies with the top 1% sfGFP signal in 593 response to 1 mM valerolactam, approximately 1000 colonies were randomly 594 selected for testing with 1 mM valerolactam (Fig. S3A). There were three 595 biosensor mutants that showed a higher sfGFP signal in response to 1 mM 596 valerolactam than biosensor pBbS-E1: M-B1 (S63G and V121A), M-E5 (N22T 597 and S63G) and M-A4 (T281N). The M-B1 mutant showed the largest dynamic 598 output range with 0-1 mM valerolactam, which was 3.0-fold higher than the 599

pBbS-E1 control (Fig. S3C). We found that the valerolactam biosensors with 600 these ChnR mutants had a higher dynamic output range with increased leaky 601 expression, especially the biosensor with the M-B1 mutant, which showed the 602 highest leaky expression among these biosensors (Fig. S3C). The output 603 fluorescence signal intensity of the biosensor with the M-B1 mutant with 0 mM 604 valerolactam was even higher than that of the control pBbS-E1 at 1 mM 605 valerolactam (Fig. S3C). The leaky expression of this biosensor with the M-B1 606 mutant may help initiate the dynamic upregulation at an early stage and hence 607 increase the expression of Act to a greater extent than the other ChnR mutants. 608 The biosensor with this M-B1 mutation with the highest dynamic output range 609 was named pBbS-E1B1 (Fig. 3) (ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system) and was chosen for 610 611 subsequent engineering.





614	Figure S3. (A) Schematic of engineering the valerolactam biosensor. We
615	started with the pBbS-sfGFP biosensor. Red arrow indicates engineering the
616	ChnR binding site in Pb promoter. The Pb site-saturation mutagenesis library
617	was sorted by FACS for the colonies with top 1% GFP signal, and these
618	colonies were further verified in 96-well plates with 1 mM valerolactam to get
619	biosensor pBbS-E1. Blue arrow indicates improving the binding affinity of
620	ChnR for valerolactam (Val) by two rounds of FACS sorting. The ChnR
621	mutants selected from the second round of FACS sorting were further verified
622	in 96-well plates with 1 mM valerolactam to get the biosensor mutant pBbS-
623	E1B1 with the highest fluorescence signal. (B) Comparison of the outputs of
624	the biosensor mutant pBbS-E1 with the original valerolactam biosensor pBbS-
625	sfGFP for 0-1 mM valerolactam. (C) Comparison of the output from promoter
626	Pb with different ChnR mutants with the pBbS-E1 control for 0-1 mM
627	valerolactam.





**Figure 3.** Comparison of the outputs of the evolved biosensor pBbS-E1 and

pBbS-E1B1 with the original biosensor pBbS-sfGFP in different

632 concentrations of valerolactam.

633

## **3.4. The ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system improved valerolactam production.**

The engineered ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system (from pBbS-E1B1) can be used to 635 increase the titer of valerolactam. ChnR-B1 and Pb-E1 were used to replace 636 wild-type ChnR and Pb, respectively, in the dynamic upregulation pathway (Fig. 637 2). The Pb-E1 mutant without ChnR was used as a negative control to regulate 638 the expression of Act, and the combinations of Pb-E1 with ChnR and Pb with 639 ChnR-B1 were also constructed and tested (Fig. 4). These different 640 combinations of ChnR and Pb helped us determine the best promoter regulator 641 for our dynamic regulation system. The valerolactam biosynthetic pathway 642 plasmids were transformed into C. glutamicum XT1, and C. glutamicum Val-3, 643 with the highest titer of valerolactam thus far, was set as a control. After 48 644 hours of flask culture, C. glutamicum Val-9 with the ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system 645

(pHCP-H1davAB-E1-act-B1) produced 2.46 g/L valerolactam, an increase in
the titer of more than 100% compared with the *C. glutamicum* Val-3 control
(1.21 g/L) (Fig. 4B).

We also noticed that C. glutamicum Val-8 with the ChnR-B1/Pb system 649 (pHCP-H1davAB-Pb-act-B1) was able to produce much more valerolactam 650 (2.11 g/L) than the C. glutamicum Val-3 control (Fig. 4B). In contrast, C. 651 glutamicum Val-6 (Pb-E1 negative control) and C. glutamicum Val-7 (ChnR/Pb-652 E1 system) produced much less (0.11 g/L and 0.16 g/L, respectively) than the 653 654 control. From these flask culture results, we found that the strains using ChnR-B1 for the dynamic upregulation of Act were able to produce more valerolactam 655 than the C. glutamicum Val-3 control, while the strains with wild-type ChnR for 656 the dynamic upregulation of Act produced a limited amount of valerolactam. 657 These results indicate that the properties of the transcription factor ChnR play 658 a key role in our designed dynamic upregulation system to increase the 659 expression level of Act. Since C. glutamicum Val-9 with the ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 660 system regulates the expression of Act and produces a higher titer of 661 valerolactam than the promoter H1 control, we were interested in whether this 662 dynamic upregulation system can be used to increase the expression of the 663 other enzymes (ORF26 and CaiC) to improve the production of valerolactam. 664

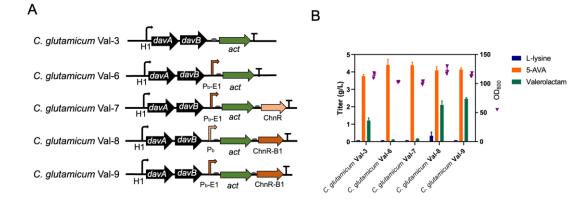




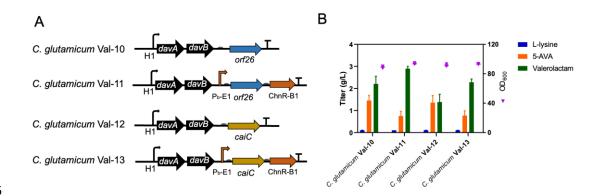
Figure 4. Dynamic upregulation of Act with the different regulator-promoter
systems for valerolactam biosynthesis. (A) Design of the valerolactam
pathway with different ChnR and Pb mutant combinations. (B) Flask culture
results of the different valerolactam biosynthesis pathways indicated in (A). 5AVA (5-aminovaleric acid).

671

# 672 3.5. Dynamic upregulation of ORF26 and CaiC for valerolactam 673 production in *C. glutamicum* XT1.

To test whether the engineered ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system can be used for 674 dynamic upregulation of the expression of ORF26 and CaiC in valerolactam 675 biosynthesis, C. glutamicum codon optimized versions of ORF26 and CaiC 676 were constructed as catalysts for the cyclization step in the valerolactam 677 biosynthetic pathway. These genes were introduced into the various plasmids 678 in place of act creating pHCP-H1davAB-orf26 and pHCP-H1davAB-caiC (the 679 controls) and pHCP-H1davAB-E1-orf26-B1 and pHCP-H1davAB-E1-CaiC-B1 680 (ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 regulated systems) (Fig. 5A). After transformation into C. 681 glutamicum XT1, flask culture was carried out for 48 hours. The results showed 682

that C. glutamicum Val-11 (C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-H1davAB-E1-683 orf26-B1) and C. glutamicum Val-13 (C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-684 H1davAB-E1-CaiC-B1) produced 2.90 g/L and 2.28 g/L valerolactam, 685 respectively, both of which generated more valerolactam than the promoter H1 686 controls C. glutamicum Val-10 (C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-H1davAB-687 orf26) and C. glutamicum Val-12 (C. glutamicum XT1 harboring pHCP-688 H1davAB-caiC), which produced 2.21 g/L and 1.39 g/L valerolactam, 689 respectively (Fig. 5B). We noticed that the ORF26 group produced the highest 690 titer of valerolactam compared with the Act and CaiC constructs (Fig. 4B and 691 Fig. 5B); however, C. glutamicum Val-11 did not show a significant improvement 692 in valerolactam production compared with C. glutamicum Val-10 (Fig. 5B), and 693 the solubility of ORF26 (Zhang et al., 2017b) may be the main reason for this 694 result. 695



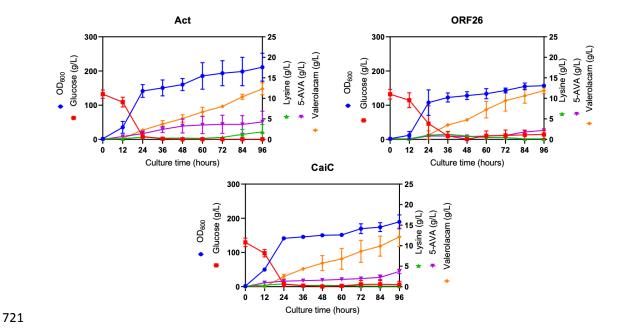
696

Figure 5. Dynamic upregulation of the ORF26 and CaiC with ChnR-B1/Pb-E1
 system for valerolactam biosynthesis. 5-AVA (5-aminovaleric acid).

#### 700 3.6. Fed-batch fermentation for valerolactam biosynthesis in C.

701 glutamicum XT1.

To demonstrate that dynamic regulation can further improve the titer of 702 valerolactam in fed-batch cultivation, glucose-fed batch cultures of C. 703 glutamicum Val-9 (Act), C. glutamicum Val-11 (ORF26) or C. glutamicum Val-704 13 (CaiC) were performed in a 1.2-L lab-scale bioreactor system, and 50% (w/v) 705 glucose was added according to the glucose levels in the media. The time 706 profiles of these three fed-batch cultures are shown in Fig. 6 (indicated as Act, 707 ORF26, and CaiC, respectively). Growth of the Act, ORF26 and CaiC strains 708 entered the stationary phase at 24 hours. Glucose feeding started immediately 709 once there was less than 1 g/L glucose in the medium, and the cells continued 710 to grow to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 211 (Act), 157 (ORF26), and 190 (CaiC) at 96 hours (Fig. 711 712 6). The valerolactam titers of these mutants reached 12.33 g/L (Act), 11.88 g/L (ORF26), and 12.15 g/L (CaiC) at the end of fed-batch fermentation (Fig. 6, 713 Table 2), which are the highest levels reported thus far. In particular, the 714 valerolactam titer of the Act mutants was 10-fold higher than that in previous 715 research (1.18 g/L), which used a valerolactam biosynthetic pathway in E. coli 716 with a constitutive promoter that drove the same enzymes used here (DavA, 717 DavB, Act) (Chae et al., 2017). 5-AVA accumulated in these three cultures, 718 indicating that the titer of valerolactam can be further increased by engineering 719 the enzyme activity of Act/ORF26/CaiC (Fig. 6, Table 2). 720



**Figure 6.** Fed-batch fermentation of valerolactam production in *C. glutamicum* 

Val-9 (Act), C. glutamicum Val-11 (ORF26) and C. glutamicum Val-13 (CaiC).

(There are two replicates for *C. glutamicum* Val-11, and three replicates for *C.* 

*glutamicum* Val-9 and *C. glutamicum* Val-13)

726

**Table 2.** Fermentation results summary of the *C. glutamicum* XT1 with different

valerolactam biosynthetic pathway.

Strains	Valerolactam	5-aminovaleric
Strains	titer (g/L)	acid titer (g/L)
C. glutamicum Val-9	12.33±1.44	4.26±2.61
(Act)	12.00±1.44	4.20 <u>-</u> 2.01
C. glutamicum Val-11	11.88±0.70	2.19±0.24
(ORF26)	11.00±0.70	2.19±0.24
C. glutamicum Val-13	12.15±2.37	3.71±0.52
(CaiC)	12.10±2.37	3. <i>1</i> I±0.52

## 730 4. Discussion

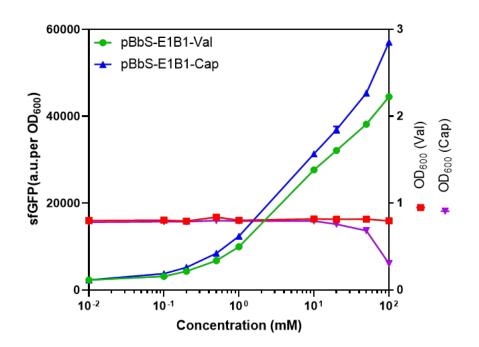
The complete biosynthesis of valerolactam has been studied in E. coli, and 731 the major rate-limiting step in its production is the cyclization of 5-AVA to 732 valerolactam (Gordillo Sierra and Alper, 2020)(Zhang et al., 2017b). In this study, 733 we found that the Act-catalyzed activation of 5-AVA followed by the 734 spontaneous cyclization to valerolactam was also a limiting step in our system 735 (Fig. S2). A valerolactam biosensor-based dynamic upregulation system 736 (positive feedback loop) was designed to enhance production of this rate-737 limiting enzyme (Fig. 2A), and the final titer of valerolactam from this pathway 738 with dynamic upregulation of Act increased to 12.33 g/L in fed-batch culture. 739 This dynamic upregulation system was also used to overexpress ORF26 and 740 CaiC, which have been reported to be important for the cyclization of 5-AVA to 741 valerolactam, and the valerolactam titers of these two strains reached 11.88 g/L 742 and 12.15 g/L, respectively, in a glucose fed-batch fermentation, the titer of 743 valerolactam with dynamic upregulation system in this research is also much 744 higher than Cheng et al., reported 6.88 g/L valerolactam which was synthesized 745 from L-lysine by a combination of enzymatic catalysis and pH optimization 746 (Cheng et al., 2021). 747

To increase the titer of valerolactam, traditional metabolic engineering methods, such as optimizing the promoter activity and increasing the plasmid copy number, have been tested, and the results showed that these methods

contribute little to increasing the titer of valerolactam but instead to conversion 751 of L-lysine to 5-AVA (Fig. 2 and Fig. S2), the precursor to valerolactam. Thus, 752 we speculated that the cyclization of 5-AVA to valerolactam by Act limits the 753 production of valerolactam, and we therefore need to increase the expression 754 of Act to solve this bottleneck. A genetic signal amplifier was designed based 755 on a LuxR positive feedback loop and showed a great ability to increase the 756 expression of the regulated gene (Nistala et al., 2010). We developed the 757 ChnR/Pb system as a valerolactam biosensor. Thus, we first constructed a 758 gene amplifier in a positive feedback loop with the valerolactam biosensor 759 ChnR/Pb system to regulate the expression of Act (Fig. 2). However, the results 760 from flask culture indicated that the Act overexpressed by dynamic upregulation 761 762 (ChnR/Pb system) was not sufficient to improve the titer of valerolactam. We found that the sensitivity and dynamic output range of the biosensor pBbS-763 sfGFP (ChnR/Pb system) for valerolactam may limit the maximum expression 764 level of Act under the control of dynamic upregulation. Based on a previous 765 transcription factor engineering method (Snoek et al., 2020), a valerolactam 766 biosensor mutant with higher sensitivity and a larger dynamic output range was 767 obtained (pBbS-E1B1 in Fig. 3). After testing with different combinations of 768 promoter-regulator systems, compared with the strong constitutive control in C. 769 glutamicum Val-3, the titer of valerolactam was increased by 103% in C. 770 glutamicum Val-9 (ChnR-B1/Pb-E1 system) under the same culture conditions 771 (Fig. 4B). The flask culture results indicated that the dynamic upregulation 772

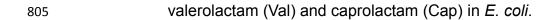
system with the ChnR-B1 mutation can significantly increase valerolactam 773 production, while the dynamic upregulation system designed based on wild-774 type ChnR showed no effect on valerolactam biosynthesis (Fig. 2B and Fig. 4B). 775 In addition, we noticed that the titer of valerolactam from C. glutamicum Val-7 776 (ChnR/Pb-E1 system) was similar to that from C. glutamicum Val-5 (ChnR/Pb 777 system); however, the dynamic output range of biosensor pBbS-E1 (ChnR/Pb-778 E1 system) with valerolactam was much higher than that of pBbS-sfGFP 779 (ChnR/Pb system). We suspect that the performance of our designed dynamic 780 upregulation system, a positive feedback amplifier for regulating the expression 781 of the rate-limiting enzymes, is mainly affected by the properties of the 782 transcription factor ChnR-B1. Furthermore, our dynamic upregulation system 783 784 was used to amplify the expression of ORF26 and CaiC for valerolactam biosynthesis, and the titer of valerolactam increased by approximately 31% and 785 64%, respectively, compared with that of the strong promoter H1 control under 786 flask culture conditions (Fig. 5B). From the flask culture and fed-batch 787 fermentation results, 5-AVA accumulated as a byproduct (Fig. 5B, Table 2), and 788 the lower catalytic activity of these enzymes to activate 5-AVA for its cyclization 789 into valerolactam may be the main reason. Previous research from our lab 790 showed that ORF26 is insoluble, which may affect the growth of C. glutamicum 791 Val-11 in the fed-batch fermentation (Fig. 6), has an optimal pH of 8.0 and 792 catalyzes significant ATP and ADP hydrolysis (Zhang et al., 2017b), while C. 793 glutamicum growth should occur at pH 7.0. Thus, engineering an ORF26 794

mutant with reduced ATP and ADP hydrolysis, an optimal pH of 7.0 and 795 increased solubility may further increase the titer of valerolactam from C. 796 glutamicum. In addition, our engineered valerolactam biosensor pBbS-E1B1 797 showed a higher dynamic output range for caprolactam than valerolactam (Fig. 798 S4), and there was no effect of caprolactam on the growth C. glutamicum (Fig. 799 S5); thus, we suppose that our dynamic upregulation system (ChnR-B1/Pb-E1) 800 can also be used to design a method for caprolactam biosynthesis in C. 801 glutamicum. 802

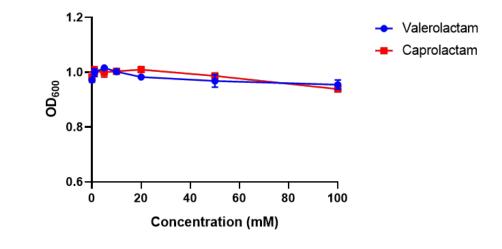


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**Figure S4.** Biosensor characterization of pBbS-E1B1 sensitivity to



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**Figure S5.** The effect of valerolactam and caprolactam on growth. of *C*.

glutamicum XT1.

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926	

## 927 Author contributions

Xixi Zhao: Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis,
Investigation, Writing-original Draft, Visualization. Yanling Wu: Methodology,
Validation, Investigation. Tingye Feng: Validation, Investigation. Junfeng Shen:
Resources. Huan Lu: Validation. Yunfeng Zhang: Validation. Howard C. Chou:
Conceptualization, Writing-review & editing. Xiaozhou Luo: Conceptualization,
Writing-review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding
acquisition. Jay D. Keasling: Conceptualization, Writing-review & editing,

935 Supervision, Funding acquisition.

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#### 950 Conflict of Interest

X.L. has a financial interest in Demetrix and Synceres. J.D.K. has a financial
interest in Amyris, Lygos, Demetrix, Maple Bio, Napigen, Apertor Pharma, Ansa
Biotechnologies, Berkeley Yeast, and Zero Acre Farms.

# 954 Supplementary Material

# **Table S1.** Plasmids used in this study

Plasmids	Description	Source
pK18mobsacB	Kana <sup>r</sup> , <i>sacB</i> from <i>B.subtilis</i>	Schäfer
		et al.,
		1994
pK18-lysC	pK18mobsacB derivate, harboring lysC gene	This
	with point mutation at C932T and 588 bp	study
	lysC downstream fragment from the C.	
	glutamicum ATCC13032 genome	
pEC-XK99E	E. coli and C. glutamicum shuttle vector,	Lab
	Kana <sup>r</sup>	Stock
pH1-mCherry	pEC-XK99E derivate, H1-mCherry	This
		study
pH2-mCherry	pEC-XK99E derivate, H2-mCherry	This
		study
pH9-mCherry	pEC-XK99E derivate, H9-mCherry	This
		study
pH10-mCherry	pEC-XK99E derivate, H10-mCherry	This
		study
pCES208	Shuttle vector between <i>E. coli</i> and <i>C.</i>	Park et
	<i>glutamicum</i> , Kana <sup>r</sup>	al., 2008
pCES208-	pCES208 derivate, H1, codon-optimized	This

H1davAB	davA, davB	study
pCES208-	pCES208 derivate, H1, codon-optimized	This
H1davAB-act	davA, davB and act	study
рНСР	pCES208 derivate, <i>parB</i> nonsense mutation,	This
	Kana <sup>r</sup>	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
act	<i>davB</i> and <i>act</i>	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
H1act	<i>davB</i> and H1- <i>act</i>	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
Pb-act-chnR	<i>davB</i> and Pb- <i>act</i> -chnR	study
pBbSlactam	Lactam biosensor, harboring the chnR from	Zhang et
	Acinetobacter sp. and mCherry under control	al.,
	of Pb (the promoter of chnB from	2017a
	Acinetobacter sp.), Cm <sup>R</sup>	
pBbS-sfGFP	pBbSlactam derivate, mCherry was replaced	This
	with sfGFP	study
pBbS-E1	pBbS-sfGFP derivate, with mutation in the Pb	This
	of ChnR binding site, and sfGFP under control	study
	of the Pb mutant (Pb-E1)	
pBbS-E1B1	pBb-E1 derivate, with a <i>chnR</i> mutant (ChnR-	This
	M-B1)	study
pBbS-E1E5	pBb-E1 derivate, with a <i>chnR</i> mutant (ChnR-	This
	M-E5)	study
pBbS-E1A4	pBb-E1 derivate, with a <i>chnR</i> mutant (ChnR-	This

	M-A4)	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
E1-act	<i>davB</i> and Pb-E1- <i>act</i>	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
E1-act-chnR	<i>davB</i> and Pb-E1- <i>act</i> -chnR	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
Pb-act-B1	<i>davB</i> and Pb- <i>act</i> -ChnR-B1	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
E1-act-B1	<i>davB</i> and Pb-E1- <i>act</i> -ChnR-B1	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
orf26	davB and orf26	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
E1-orf26-B1	davB and Pb-E1-orf26-ChnR-B1	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
caiC	<i>davB</i> and <i>caiC</i>	study
pHCP-H1davAB-	pHCP derivate, H1, codon-optimized davA,	This
E1-caiC-B1	davB and Pb-E1-caiC-ChnR-B1	study

# **Table S2.** Primers used in this study

Prim er	Sequence (5' to 3')
P1	cgtaatcatggtcatagctg
P2	agtcgacctgcaggcatg
P3	atgcctgcaggtcgactATGGCCCTGGTCGTACAG

- P4 CGAGGGCAGGTGAAGATGATGTCGGTGGTGC
- P5 ATCTTCACCTGCCCTCGTTC
- P6 ctatgaccatgattacgCATCATGGACGAACTCAACG
  - GCTATATATGCTTATACTGGGCTAAATTAGAGCCTTAGCGAAAGGATGG
    - GCatgcgtaaaggagaagaag
- P8 cgactctagtttgtatagttcatccatg
- P9 actatacaaactagagtcgacctgcagg

TATAAGCATATATAGCCGGCGCAAGCAAGTACGAGACTCAAGAGCGAG

Cattcaccaccctgaattgac

GTCGAGGAATACTGTATACTATTTAAAATTCATTGGATAGCAAAGGACG

P11

P10

P7

GATatgcgtaaaggagaag

TATACAGTATTCCTCGACAGAATACCAGGCACAGTAAGTCGAGACAGA P12 GCattcaccaccctgaattgac

CATTCTGGTAAGGTACGATCCTAGAGTCTTAAGAGAACGGAAAGGAATT P13 GCatqcqtaaaqqaqaaqaaq

GTACCTTACCAGAATGTCGCCCTGAAAACTAATATGTATACCATGGGAG

P14

Cattcaccaccctgaattgac

GCGTATGGTAAGCTCTGTTATGTATAGTCCGAGCACGGCGAAAGGATA

P15

CTCatgcgtaaaggagaagaag

AGAGCTTACCATACGCCGCCGGCTTAGAGCCGACCGGTAAGGGTTGA

- P16 GCattcaccaccctgaattgac
- P17 ccaccgCAGTAGGCtCAACTGATTCG
- P18 ttgAgcctactgcggtggcctgattc

GCTATATATGCTTATACTGGGCTAAATTAGAGCCTTAGCGAAAGGATGG

P19 GCATGCATCACCATCACCATCATC

- P20 ATTTTCCTCCTTTttagcctttacgcaggtgc
- P21 taaaggctaaAAAGGAGGAAAATCatgaac
- P22 TGTATGTCCTCCTGGACTTCttaatctgccagggcgatc
- P23 AAGTCCAGGAGGACATACAATGAAGCGCCCTCTCGAAGG
- P24 tactgccgccaggcagcggccgcTTAGATGACGTTCTTCTCC
- P25 cgctgcctggcggcagtag

TATAAGCATATATAGCCGGCGCAAGCAAGTACGAGACTCAAGAGCGAG P26 Ccagcttttgttccctttagtg

P27 tactgccgccaggcagcggccgcttaatctgccagggcgatcg

AGTATAAGCATATATAGCCGGCGCAAGCAAGTACGAGACTCAAGAGCG

AGCttaatctgccagggcgatcg

- P29 gtgatatcccgcggccattaatctgccagggcgatcg
- P30 tggccgcgggatatcactag
- P31 tATGTCCTCCTGGACTTCtgaatttattcaaaatctgc

AAGTCCAGGAGGACATACAATGCATCACCATCACCATCATCATAAGCGC

#### P32 CCTCTCGAAG

- P33 gtctgtgctcatATTCATCCTTTTTAGATGACGTTCTTCTCC
- P34 AAAGGATGAATatgagcacagacaaagc
- P35 actgccgccaggcagcggccgctcaaaaaacaatagaggag

AAGTCCAGGAGGACATACAATGCATCACCATCACCATCATCATACCGCA

#### P36

P28

AAAATCTTTGCCG

- P37 actgccgccaggcagcggccgcTTATTCGGCTGCCATGCGGG
- P38 gctcatATTCATCCTTTTTATTCGGCTGCCATGCG
- P39 gattaaGAAGTCCAGGAGGACATACAATGGACATTATCGGTGGC
- P40 actgccgccaggcagcggccgcTTACTTGAGGTTCTTGC

- P41 gtctgtgctcatATTCATCCTTTTTACTTGAGGTTCTTGCGG
- P42 tttgtacagttcatccatac
- P43 atgcgtaaaggcgaagagc
- P44 tggatgaactgtacaaatgaggatccaaactcgagtaagg
- P45 tcttcgcctttacgcatggtaccctccattacgac
- P46 tctcttttagttgcaagcttc
- P48 agagtcaattcagggtggtg
- P49 gagattggtgtgttcctgtc
- P50 aggaacacaccaatctcgtgtctg
- P51 caccetgaattgactetette

**Table S3.** Sequence of codon optimized *davA* and *davB* genes from *P. putida*,

960 *act* gene from *C. propionicum*, *orf*26 gene from *S. aizunensis*, *caiC* gene from

961 *E. coli*.

Gene	Codon optimized sequence
	atgcgcatcgcactgtaccaaggcgcacccaagccactagacgttcctggtaaccttcaacggctgcg
	gctacaacattggcctggcccaagtcgaacgtctcgccgaagccgcagatggcccagcagcaatga
davA	
	gagctatctacaactccgttcagttgatcgatgcgcatggacgatctctgtcaaattatcgcaagacgca
	cttgttcggtgaactcgatcgctcgatgttctcccctggtgcggaccacttcccagtcgtggaactggaag
	gctggaaggttggacttcttatctgttacgacatcgagttcccagagaacgcccgtcgactagcgttggat

atgaacaagaagaatcgacaccccgccgacggcaagaagccgattaccattttcggaccagatttcc cttttgctttcgatgattggctagaacacccagcaggcctgggaagcattccagctgagcgccatggag aagaggtggctatcgtcggagctggtatcgctggcctcgtagcggcatacgagctgatgaagctgggcgacgggatcgttgccgagctgggtggcatgcgcttcccagtgtcttccactgccttctaccactacgtcga caaattgggcctggaaacgaaacccttccccaatcctttgaccccagcttccggaagtacggttattgat cttgaaggacagacctattacgccgagaaacctacagaccttccacaactgtttcatgaggttgccgac gcatgggctgatgctctggagtcgggtgcgcagttcgccgatatccagcaggcaatccgcgatcgtgatgtaccacgccttaaggaattatggaacaagttggttccactgtgggacgaccgtaccttctacgacttcgt cgctacctctcgctcctttgctaaactgagctttcaacacagagaagtgtttggccaggtcggtttcggcaccggcggttgggattcggacttccctaacagtatgttggaaatcttccgcgtggttatgaccaactgcgacg accaccagcacctggttgttgggggtgtgggaacaagtcccacaaggaatctggcgccacgtgccgga acgttgtgtgcattggccagaagggactagcctgagcacgctgcatggtggcgcaccgcgtaccggtg tcaagcgcattgcccgcgcatccgatggccgcttggcagtcacggacaactggggtgatacccgcca ctattccgcagtactagctacctgtcagacatggttgcttaccactcaaatcgactgcgaagaatctctgtt ctcgcaaaagatgtggatggcactggaccggacccgctacatgcagtcgtctaaaacctttgtcatggt cgacaggccgttctggaaggataaggaccctgagaccggtcgtgacctgctgagcatgaccctcact gatcgtctcactcgcggcacttatctttttgataacggtaacgataaacccggggtgatctgcctgtcatac tcatggatgtctgatgcgctgaagatgctgccacacccggtggagaagcgcgtacagcttgccctggat gcgctcaagaagatttatccgaaaaccgatatcgcaggccatatcatcggcgatccaatcacggtttcc

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orf26 atgaccgcaaaaatctttgccgtggactccgtccgcccaatcgacgagttcgaacaagatgcactgcg cgtcgccgacgtgattcgcgaacgtggcgtgtgtttaggcgatcgcgtgatgctcaaggctggtaactcc

act

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atggacattatcggtggccagcatttacgccaaatgtgggacgacctcgcagatgtctacggtcacaag accgctttaatttgcgaatcctccggtggcgtcgtgaatcgttactcctacctcgagctcaaccaagaaat caatcgcaccgccaatctgttctacactttaggcatccgcaagggcgacaaggtggcactgcatttaga caactgccccgaattcatcttctgctggttcggtttagcaaaaatcggcgcaatcatggtgcctatcaatg cccgtttactgtgtgaggaatccgcatggattttacagaactcccaagcttgtttactggtgacctctgccc agttttacccaatgtaccagcagatccaacaagaagacgcaacccagctgcgccacatctgtctcacc

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