1 Cell-Free Optimized Production of Protoporphyrin IX

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4 KEYWORDS: Cell-free, Cell-free Metabolic Engineering, Bioproduction, Porphyrins

5 ABSTRACT

Background The asymmetric and aromatic structures of porphyrins enable semiconducting properties
allowing them to absorb light to initiate complex photocatalytic activity. These properties coupled with
biological origins have garnered these molecules and their derivatives wide interest as a biotechnological
platform. However, porphyrin production in cells is challenging due to limited titers, long production
timescales, and difficult purification.

Results A cell-free metabolic engineering platform was constructed to produce protoporphyrin IX (PPIX) from
 E. coli crude extracts. Using acoustic liquid-handling, design of experiments for high-throughput buffer
 optimization and co-culturing techniques for extract production, our cell-free reactions effectively produced
 0.109 mg/mL quantities of porphyrins.

15 Conclusions The use of cell-free metabolic engineering as a bioproduction platform could improve the 16 production of toxic or inefficient biomolecules such as PPIX. The engineering strategies applied in this study 17 provide a roadmap towards increasing the scale of cell-free metabolic engineering by elucidating batch to batch 18 variability, as well as the need for batch specific optimization of reaction conditions.

19 Keywords Cell-Free, Metabolic Engineering, Co-cultivation, porphyrins

20 Background

Porphyrins are molecules composed of one or more cyclic tetrapyrroles whose aromaticity enable semiconductor-like properties, making them useful in a broad range of applications, including artificial photosynthesis and light harvesting, catalysis, single-molecule electronics, sensors, nonlinear optics, and chemical warfare agent degradation ^{1–6}. Chemical syntheses and isolation of porphyrins from living cells using organic extraction or enzymatic hydrolysis is complex and poses significant challenges for scaling their

bioproduction⁷⁻⁹. The production of porphyrins in cells can be limited by a variety of factors depending on the
context, including complex metabolic regulation, slow enzymatic catalysis, and post-production processing¹⁰⁻
¹². In the case of heme production, the cells require extensive reengineering in order to export the major
product¹³. These bottlenecks in their metabolism and isolation showcase an excellent opportunity to produce
porphyrins outside of the biological limitations imposed by a cell.

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32 One potential solution to these limitations is cell-free metabolic engineering (CFME), where enzymatic 33 pathways are reconstituted outside the cell. CFME offers an excellent opportunity to biologically produce 34 molecules with complex metabolic pathways or difficult to implement growth regimes. Removing biological 35 production from a cellular context offers significant advantages as toxic products, deleterious growth 36 conditions, and even lethal metabolic states can be implemented without the need to maintain cellular 37 viability^{13,14}. Moreover, CFME can enable far higher throughput than genetic manipulation of cells. While some 38 CFME work uses purified enzymes, here we focus on overexpressed enzymes in crude lysates due to the 39 partially intact cellular metabolism, simpler workflow, and reduced expense. In addition, applications in 40 healthcare settings incentivize protoporphyrin production outside of a cellular context, making cell-free 41 production an even more attractive method for the development of medically relevant molecules^{15,16}.

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Despite these advantages there are several limitations of CFME. For one, taking advantage of the highthroughput capacity of CFME is typically limited by slow and time-consuming chromatographic characterization methods^{17,18}. Additionally, CFME extract production relies on growing and processing separate extracts for each node in a metabolic pathway and often adding expensive cofactors, significantly increasing the burden of using extracts for both prototyping and scaled production, especially for complex pathways. As a result, reported CFME efforts have so far remained at the bench instead of proceeding as a scalable biomanufacturing platform.

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51 In this work we take advantage of porphyrins as both a molecule of interest and as an easily detectable product 52 in a cell-free extract to i) show our ability to produce porphyrins using enriched cell-free extracts, ii) explore 53 consolidating the extract source cells into a single co-culture fermentation in order to limit the need for multiple

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extract productions, and iii) rapidly generate ideal cofactor and substrate mixtures using DBTL-cycles powered
by Design of Experiments (DOE). We chose one porphyrin molecule, protoporphyrin IX (PPIX), as our target
molecule due to its utility in chemical warfare agent degradation⁶. We showcase the production of PPIX in cellfree extracts and provide insights into how the production of extracts for CFME can be scaled and optimized
towards cell-free biomanufacturing beyond the lab scale.

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60 Methods

61 Cell-Free Extract Preparation

62 Cell extracts were prepared from *E. coli* BL21(DE3)pLysS cells transformed with one of seven plasmids to 63 express PPIX synthesis pathway enzymes. All seven plasmids were assembled using a pY71 backbone 64 expression vector containing a T7 promoter, and kanamycin resistance cassette. The hemA gene from 65 Rhodobacter capsulatus (GenBank accession number X53309) was purchased as a gene fragment, then inserted 66 into the PCR-linearized plasmid backbone using NEBuilder HiFi DNA assembly⁶. The sequence of the complete pY71 HemA assembly is available on GenBank (MK138544). The other six enzymes of the pathway were 67 68 amplified from the *E. coli* chromosome and inserted into the same expression vector. Sequence information is 69 provided in Supplementary Table 3. Cells were grown at 37 °C in 2xYPT (16 g L-1 tryptone, 10 g L-1 yeast 70 extract, 5 g L-1 NaCl, 7 g L-1 KH2PO4, 3 g L-1 K2HPO4). Unless otherwise noted, cell extracts were prepared by 71 seeding with 2.5% v/v of overnight culture and inducing with IPTG at 1 mM at an OD600 of 0.6-0.8. 200-mL or 72 1 L cultures were grown in 500 mL or 2 L baffled Erlenmeyer flasks, respectively. Cells were harvested by 73 centrifugation at 5000×g for 10 min and washed with S30 buffer (14 mM magnesium acetate, 60 mM 74 potassium acetate, and 10 mM Tris-acetate, pH 8.2) by resuspension and centrifugation. The pellets were 75 weighed, flash-frozen, and stored at -80 °C. Extracts were prepared by thawing and resuspending the cells in 76 0.8 mL of S30 buffer per gram of cell wet weight. The resuspension was lysed using 530 J per mL of suspension 77 at 50% tip amplitude with ice water cooling. Homogenization was performed as described previously using a 78 Microfluidizer (Microfluidics M-110P) on a cell suspension (prepared the same as the sonication protocol)

using one pass followed by centrifugation¹⁹. Following sonication or homogenization, tubes of cell extract were
centrifuged twice at 21,100×g for 10 min at 4 °C, aliquoted, frozen with liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C.

81 CFME Reaction Set-up

PPIX production reactions were carried out at 37°C in 4 µL volumes without shaking. Unless otherwise noted,
each reaction contained 2.5 mM succinate, 1.25 mM Acetyl-CoA, 1.25 mM ATP, 18.76 mM glycine, and 10 mM
Pyridoxal 5'-phosphate. Unless otherwise noted extracts were added to a final protein concentration of 13.5
mg/mL as measured by Bradford assay. Reaction components were directly dispensed into a clear-bottom-384
well plate using an Echo 525 Liquid Handler (Beckman Coulter).

87 Analysis and Quantification of Porphyrins

88 PPIX levels were quantified using a standard curve method using synthesized PPIX standard purchased from 89 Frontier Scientific Inc. (Logan, UT, USA, P562-9), read with a Synergy Neo2 Multi-Mode Microplate Reader 90 (Biotek) set to an excitation and emission of 410 and 633 nm, respectively. Plate reader experiments were 91 performed using 384-well assay plate (Corning, Kennebunk, ME, 04034, USA) covered with a plate sealer 92 (Thermo Scientific, Rochester, NY, 14625, USA) HPLC analysis was performed using Agilent 1290 Infinity II 93 equipped with a diode array detector (DAD) reading at 410 nm and a BDS Hypersil C18 column 150 × 2.1 mM, 94 2.4 µm particle size (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA, 28102–152130). A mobile phase of A: 0.1% formic 95 acid in ultrapure water, and solvent B: 0.1% formic acid in methanol was used at a flow rate of 0.4 mL/min. 96 Injections of 20 µL were separated by a linear gradient transitioning from 100% solvent A to 100% solvent B 97 over 20 min, followed by 100% B solvent for 10 minutes.

98 DOE and Statistical Analysis

99 DOE designs and models were prepared using Stat-Ease Design-Expert 13 and SAS JMP® Pro 15. DOE data 100 analysis was performed using Functional Data Analysis (FDA) applied via the "Functional Data Explorer" 101 platform within SAS JMP® Pro 15 software²⁰. A Functional Principal Components (FPC) decomposition was 102 then applied to the response curves. Optimized reaction conditions were found via the Stat-Ease Design-Expert

- 103 13 Numerical Optimization feature SAS JMP® Pro 15 software Prediction Profiler Platform. Further data
 analysis and plots were prepared using custom python scripts.
- 105
- 106
- 107 **Results**

108 PPIX production using individually enriched extracts

109 The previously-characterized C4 pathway examined here involves seven enzymes for over-production of PPIX 110 (HemA-G) and starts with a condensation of glycine and succinyl CoA (Figure 1A)²¹. Our initial experiments 111 were performed by heterologously overexpressing each of these enzymes from plasmids in separate E. coli 112 cultures and lysing the cells to produce extracts enriched with enzymes for each step in the PPIX pathway, 113 referred to as individually enriched extracts for the rest of the manuscript (Figure 1B). CFME reactions were 114 assembled by combining individually enriched extracts with substrates and cofactors to reactivate the 115 complete pathway outside of the cell. The reaction mixtures contain ATP, Succinate, Glycine, Pyridoxal 5'-116 phosphate (P5P), and Coenzyme A (CoA) and were incubated at 37°C. Importantly, we found that the CFME 117 reactions expressing HemA-F and HemA-G both showed measurable amounts of a porphyrin that was 118 identified as PPIX by HPLC compared to porphyrin standards. However, the concentration considerably 119 decreased in the absence of HemF indicating its importance towards producing PPIX (Supplemental Figure 120 1A-B). Towards rapid optimization of this pathway, all further experiments were measured using plate reader 121 fluorescence measurements of the entire CFME reaction (EX410nm/EM:633nm) and quantified by standard 122 curve (Supplemental Figure 1C-D). Though the upstream products of PPIX also fluoresce at these 123 wavelengths, the single PPIX peak in the chromatograms supported the assumption that the fluorescence signal 124 was largely derived from PPIX for the purposes of rapid screening. Individually enriched extracts were mixed 125 in several different combinations and the relative levels of extracts were varied to reveal trends in the 126 production of PPIX fluorescence (Figure 1B). None of the individual extracts produced high protoporphyrin 127 levels on their own, yet leave-one-out mixtures of the full set still resulted in some PPIX being produced for 128 some enzymes. This observation indicates that some endogenous PPIX pathway enzymes were active in the E.

- 129 *coli* lysates, though the amount of PPIX produced was much less than reactions where all seven enriched
- 130 extracts were combined²¹.



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Figure 1. Production of PPIX with CFME. A. The C4 pathway for biosynthesis of PPIX. B. The full metabolic pathway is
 reconstituted in cell-free extracts by overexpressing individual enzymes in separate *E. coli* strains and combining enriched
 extracts in various combinations and relative levels to produce PPIX as measured by fluorescence (EX410nm/EM:633nm).

135 An empty square indicates the absence of the reagent and black indicates double the concentration. Data for bar plots were 136 acquired using $n \ge 3$ biological replicates. Error bars represent standard deviation of the replicates.

137 A co-culture approach to produce CFME extracts

138 Since the labor and cost of producing individually enriched extracts is directly proportional to the number of 139 nodes in the metabolic pathway of interest, producing CFME materials for complex pathways can become 140 laborious. While cell-free protein synthesis can be used to produce the enzymes for CFME post-extraction, the 141 reactions are generally more productive if the enzymes are pre-enriched in the cells prior to extract 142 preparation^{22,23}. We decided to explore if it was possible to simplify the extract preparation process by growing 143 all of the source strains, each expressing only one enzyme, in a co-culture within the same flask, thus allowing 144 for a single fermentation to generate the full metabolic pathway (Figure 2A). In this scheme, the pathway is 145 optimized with a high degree of control using individual enriched extracts, followed by using a pooled 146 inoculation to scale reactions in a single fermentation.

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148 Our first attempt to reduce the number of fermentations required to produce an active CFME pathway used a 149 base co-culture extract grown from equal inoculations of each of the 7 strains expressing nodes in the PPIX 150 pathway, termed Hem(AG) to indicate the enzymes coming from the same culture and extraction. This first co-151 culture lysate had low detected production of PPIX. To troubleshoot, the co-culture Hem(AG) extract was 152 supplemented with an extract of each of the individually expressed nodes (Hem(AG)+HemA, etc.) (Figure 2B). 153 Supplementing several of the extracts enriched with single enzymes increased the amount of PPIX produced 154 from the base extract. HemA, the only enzyme not endogenously expressed in E. coli, had the greatest effect. 155 These results suggest that some strains are being outcompeted in the co-culture, highlighting the limitations of 156 removing the more fine-tuned control possible with reactions built from the individually enriched extracts. To 157 combat this issue, we sought to tune growth by increasing the inoculum of strains expressing each node in the 158 pathway. We prepared CFME extracts as before, but with doubled inoculums of each strain in turn. We found 159 that the extracts with increased inoculations of HemB, HemC and HemG had improved final protoporphyrin 160 yield (Figure 2C). However, differences between replicates of the equal inoculum Hem(AG) experiment and

161 inconsistent trends from supplementation of individually enriched extracts and altering inoculum ratios



162 pointed to more complex factors impacting observed production from co-culture exracts.

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Figure 2. **A.** Cell-free metabolic engineering extract production strategy relying on a single co-culture consisting of all of the strains in the pathway with increased inoculations of lynchpin enzymes. **B.** Productivity of PPIX in CFME reactions created using a base co-culture extract derived from equal inoculation of strains each expressing one enzyme, HemA-G. The base extract was used at a concentration of 13.5 mg/mL total protein and additional reactions were supplemented with 1 μL individually enriched extract for each pathway enzyme. **C.** Productivity of PPIX in CFME reactions made with co-cultured cell extracts (Hem(AG)) expressing HemA-G, one enzyme expressed per co-cultured strain, with double inoculation of one strain and equal inoculation of all others.

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To further explore the factors contributing to observed differences in production, we performed additional replicates of the equal inoculum Hem(AG) case and tested modifying the growth protocol, resulting in substantial batch-to-batch variability (**Supplemental Figure 2**). We attribute this variability to a complex

175 relationship between small variations in inocula that are amplified by exponential growth, growth competition, 176 and burden elicited by heterologous protein production at induction. Moreover, since the proteome^{24,25} and metabolic state of the extracts are influenced by the growth state of the cells at harvest, the mixed states of the 177 178 different strains likely influences CFME reaction productivity in complex, unknown ways. Though activity in a 179 co-cultured Hem(AG) extract can be tuned by supplementation with individually enriched extracts, resolving 180 batch-to-batch variation will likely require methods of regulating growth to produce a consistent co-culture 181 extract. This point is further evidenced by the variability in growth dynamics seen for each of the cells with and 182 without induction. The presence of IPTG significantly impairs the growth of several of the strains, particularly 183 cells carrying the plasmid for HemF, and elicits a general burden on the cells that causes variability within 184 replicates (**Supplemental Figure 3**). Though less common in cell-free metabolic engineering applications, 185 batch-to-batch variability in cell-free extracts has been explored as a factor impacting cell-free protein 186 synthesis^{26–28}. Strategies to control the dynamics of cell populations use tools like auxotrophies, or lysis circuits, 187 but impart a further burden on the cells that may limit their bioproduction relevance^{29,30}.

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189 Tuning substrate and co-factor concentrations

190 Despite the need for improved control for reproducibility in co-cultured CFME extracts, promising product 191 titers incentivized us to further characterize and optimize these combined reactions. The Hem(AG) co-culture 192 extract prepared with a double inoculation of HemC, termed Hem(AG-2xC) for the remainder of this work, was 193 used to further explore the effects of optimizing concentrations of CFME ingredients and scaling lysate 194 preparation. The levels of each fed substrate and cofactor can greatly impact productivity, and some of these 195 molecules represent substantial portions of the cost of the CFME reaction (Supplemental Table 1). We 196 performed a set of titrations for each of the components, starting with a Hem(AG-2xC) extract prepared from a 197 0.2 L shake flask culture volume. The control reaction uses 2.5 mM succinate, 1.25 mM CoA, 1.25 mM ATP, 18.76 198 mM glycine, and 10 mM P5P. Large changes in PPIX bioproduction occurred when modifying the mixtures and 199 results indicated that for this 0.2 L scale lysate, the CoA, glycine, and P5P were all essential to the function of 200 the system (Figure 3A). Interestingly, while the yield of PPIX from 37.5 mM glycine was only 2.39%, the overall 201 PPIX titer of reactions reached 0.063 mg/mL, comparable with previous efforts producing a similar product 202 (up to 0.240 mg/mL of heme produced in fed batch engineered *E. coli* cultures)¹⁰. The observed yield likely

draws from the background metabolism still active in the extract^{29,30}. With respect to cost reduction, CoA, ATP, and P5P are the most expensive reagents **(Supplemental Table 1)**. The results showed that ATP could be removed completely to decrease cost without dramatically reducing yields; CoA was required but could possibly be reduced without loss of yield; and P5P concentration increased yield, contrary to cost reduction goals.

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Little has been published to date on how CFME reactions perform across scales. To begin to address this 209 210 knowledge gap, we explored how larger culture volumes would impact the production of CFME lysate and the 211 resulting PPIX product titers. We examined the PPIX productivity of a CFME extract produced from 0.2 and 3 L 212 flask fermentations. In addition to culture volume differences, the 3 L extracts were lysed using a microfluidizer 213 while the 0.2 L culture was processed by sonication. The 0.2 L cultures regularly reach a final OD600 of 5-8, but 214 the 3 L fermentation only reached a final OD600 of \sim 3.0. We found that each lysate gave a substantially different 215 PPIX yield using the same energy mixture with higher culture-volume extract reaching 28% of the titer of the 216 0.2 L fermentation (Figure 3B). Given our prior findings with respect to reproducibility in co-cultured extracts 217 even for the same conditions, we cannot attribute any observed differences specifically to the scale of the 218 culture.

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220 We next evaluated the substrate and cofactor dependence of CFME reactions derived from the 3 L culture. Given 221 that prior results from a 0.2 L extract in Figure 2D showed limited dependence on ATP and the possibility to 222 reduce CoA concentrations, we titrated these components. We found no clear dependence on either component 223 over the ranges tested for the 3L lysate (Figure 3C). Interested in this observation, we further titrated the 224 concentration of CoA compared to succinate, finding that neither was essential in the presence of the other for 225 the reaction to function (Figure 3D). This implied that a cofactor pool was still present. Succinate and CoA 226 could produce the essential precursor, succinyl CoA, through independent pathways, the former by completing 227 a loop through the TCA-cycle and the latter by serving as co-factor in a number of reactions that produce 228 succinyl-CoA. CoA was essential in CFME reactions prepared from 0.2 L scale cultures that reached a higher 229 OD perhaps because cofactors like CoA are depleted at higher OD. Previous work has shown that cofactor pools 230 are significantly different depending on the growth stage of the culture, with cofactor levels depleting heavily

- over time^{31,32}. Though not explicitly measuring cofactors, further evidence that varying growth conditions
- substantially impacted the metabolism and proteome of a cell-extract was shown with changes to the media
- and the OD at harvest³³.
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Figure 3. A. PPIX production following a cofactor titration in a CFME extract with a double inoculation of HemC. Data for plots were acquired using $n \ge 3$ biological replicates. Error bars represent standard deviation of the replicate. B. PPIX production following a cofactor titration in a CFME extract with a double inoculation of HemC. Data for plots were acquired using $n \ge 3$ biological replicates. Error bars represent standard deviation of the replicates. C. Heatmap of PPIX productivity from 3L-scale extract with titrations of cofactors CoA and succinate. D. Heatmap of PPIX productivity from 3L-scale extract with titrations of reduced concentrations of CoA and ATP supplements.

242 A DOE approach to rapid productivity and cost optimization

Since there are so many factors to explore in the design of CFME reactions, we decided to apply a Design of Experiments (DOE) approach to more quickly find optima and identify trends in the search space using a design-build-test-learn (DBTL) cycle (**Figure 4A**). Design of Experiments (DOE) is a statistical multifactorial approach to both design and analyze an experimental process. DOE experiments modify a number of factors simultaneously and measure the resultant effect on the system. DOE provides an excellent tool to rapidly define the ideal reaction compositions and develop robust and economical cell-free bioproduction platforms.

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250 We aimed to maximize the amount of PPIX produced using the 3 L scaled-CFME extract by creating an initial 251 exploratory model modifying the relevant cofactors and substrates, specifically succinate, CoA, ATP, Glycine, 252 and P5P, to produce a predictive model of the interactions. An I-optimal design composed of 300 experiments 253 capable of estimating linear blending effects and non-linear blending effects between the substrates and 254 cofactors produced several combinations capable of activating PPIX production (Figure 4B). To validate the 255 DOE model, we picked 10 predicted optimal reaction conditions using two objective functions (Figure 4C). The 256 first objective function was set to maximize the production of PPIX (mg/mL) while the second was set to 257 maximize production at the lowest cost (\$/mg) (Supplemental Table 2). All the predicted optimal reactions 258 yielded final titers greater than 0.03 mg/mL aside from 4 of the cost-optimized reactions that had no PPIX 259 production. Both models showed that Glycine and P5P were overwhelmingly the most important reagents. 260 Interestingly, in both cases the need for CoA was removed without much change to the overall yield of the 261 reaction. As has previously been noted, changes in growth conditions can have significant impacts on the proteome and resultant metabolome of a cell lysate^{13,33}. Additionally, draining cofactor pools could have a 262 263 substantial effect on the overall function of the extract and indicate why cofactors with large internal pools 264 earlier in the growth, such as CoA would not need to be supplemented³¹. Overall, the highest titer presented in 265 this work of 0.109 mg/mL resulted in a cost of \$14.26/mg. The application of the DOE reduced the cost by about

266 90% with the best reaction reaching a cost of \$1.41/mg, though a lower titer (0.049 mg/mL) was reached

267 (Supplemental Table 2).

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Figure 4. A. Graphic illustration of the DBTL cycle used to explore the combinatorial space of CFME compositions. Initial
tests of cofactors and substrates defined an initial DOE matrix that was tested, and the resulting data used to define a
predictive model for active and optimal reagent concentrations. **B.** 300-experiment DOE heatmap of PPIX produced from
the addition of varied cofactors to a HemAG(2xC) CFME extract. **C.** Predicted optimal mixtures for both performance and
cost were measured for fluorescence.

275 **Conclusions**

As CFME systems are implemented to produce an expanding range of molecules, an understanding of the underlying mechanisms that control their productivity will need to expand in kind. In this study, the sevenmember PPIX synthesis pathway was explored, both to improve the prospects of bioproduction for this

279 interesting molecule, and to uncover factors with the greatest impact on CFME productivity. To start, the ability 280 to produce PPIX in a CFME reaction was confirmed by mixing seven individually enriched extracts for each 281 enzyme in the pathway. Following successful identification of the product, we pursued two approaches to 282 improve productivity and reduce cost. The first approach examined a co-culture method to produce a multi-283 strain CFME extract with a single fermentation. We found that co-culture cell-extracts produced PPIX and titers 284 could be increased by supplementing individually enriched extracts post-lysis or increasing inoculums of 285 specific strains in the co-culture. Though removing substantial amounts of labor as fewer fermentations are 286 required, very high levels of variability both in the growth of the individual strains and the resultant product 287 titers incentivize further process improvements to maintain stable communities such as using antibiotics 288 during growth, engineering auxotrophies to limit loss of community members, and chromosomal integration 289 to reduce burden on the cell.

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291 The second approach established that a larger fermentation volume also produced PPIX, but the effects of 292 culture volume could not be disentangled from co-culture variability. Nonetheless, to show that a given extract 293 preparation could be improved, we applied a high throughput DOE DBTL cycle to the optimization of the 294 cofactors and substrates required for the reaction. We saw that the DOE model could accurately predict 295 formulations with improved productivity or lower cost per yield. Importantly in the context of a manufacturing 296 process, the DBTL cycle can easily be performed in less than 24-hours. Though the reactions from the 3-liter 297 extract did not reach the same titer as those assembled with individually expressed-enzyme extracts, the final 298 cost of each reaction was substantially lower both in terms of reagents and labor as only a single extract needed 299 to be prepared compared to the 7 required for the highest yield seen in this work. These results shed light on 300 challenges to control both enzyme and small molecule content in different lysate preparations for CFME, yet at 301 the same time show how direct supplementation of additives allow for rapid optimization to partially 302 compensate for variability.

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The work demonstrated here establishes the foundation for a fuller understanding of the principles that underpin CFME as a biomanufacturing technology. We expect that future work will significantly expand on our efforts by limiting culturing variability and directly correlating in-depth metabolic and proteomic analysis to

307	the resultant productivity phenotype of the extract ^{34,35} . These efforts, together with engineered chassis
308	designed to increase fluxes, improved reaction conditions, and DBTL cycles to optimize reaction formulas, will
309	enable cell-free bioproduction strains to be optimized to meet the technical and economic benchmarks for
310	industrial biomanufacturing.

311

312 Supplementary Information

313 Author's Contribution

314 DG, MFL, and MWL, designed the study; DG and JD carried out the experiments; KR aided with extract

315 production; DG, MFL, and MWL wrote the manuscript; MFL and MWL supervised the study and secured the

316 funding. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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321 Data Availability

- 322 The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on
- 323 reasonable request.
- 324

325 Declarations

- 326 Ethics approval and consent to participate.
- 327 Not Applicable.
- 328 Consent for publication
- 329 Not Applicable
- 330 Competing interests
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- 334

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407

408 Supplemental Figures



409

410 Supplemental Figure 1. Representative chromatograms of PPIX standards and CFME samples. A. A peak is seen for purified 411 PPIX at 21.6 minutes. B. The same peak is seen at 21.6 minutes when the complete pathway is present in a CFME reaction, 412 but nearly disappears when the last enzyme in the pathway is absent. A small amount of PPIX is detectable as expected 413 without HemG as E. coli naturally produces the enzyme, but not in sufficient quantities to be noticeable by fluorescence 414 measurements. C. PPIX standard curve produced using purified reagent. D. PPIX producing cell-free samples measured with 415 a plate reader, extracted, and cross-referenced to the purified PPIX curve.



417



418 Supplemental Figure 2. PPIX-producing enriched extracts were prepared using the same inoculation conditions. Following
419 induction with 1mM IPTG, the cells were allowed to grow at 30° C for varying amounts of time or until a specific OD600 as

 $\label{eq:420} noted in the legend. The CFME reactions were prepared using the conditions noted in the methods and reported from .$



422 Supplemental Figure 3. Growth curves of *E. coli* cells expressing PPIX pathway enzymes individually and combined in
423 2xYPT medium with no antibiotics. Top: Cells were inoculated without the presence of IPTG. Lower: Cells were inoculated

424 with 1mM IPTG at t=0. Data for line plots were acquired using $n \ge 4$ biological replicates. Error bars represent standard

425	deviation of the replicates.
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- 426
- 427
- 428

429 **Supplemental Table 1**: Reagent costs for cofactors and substrates. Cost based on Sigma Aldrich Checked

Reagent	MW	Cost/L(\$)
Succinate(100 mM)	118.09	0.21
Glycine(500 mM)	75.07	0.16
P5P(100 mM)	265.16	99.91
CoA(20 mM)	767.53	2264.21
ATP(100 mM)	551.14	315.53

430

431 Supplemental Table 2: Predicted optimal reaction mixtures from DOE models. Costs were calculated based
432 substrates and cofactors required for each reaction. Reagent concentrations and costs are noted in
433 supplemental table 1.

Predicte							
d		Со	AT		Р5		
Optimal	Succinat	A(n	P(n	Glycin	P(n	Titer(mg/m	Cost/mg(
Number	e(nL)	L)	L)	e(nL)	L)	L)	\$)
			15		42		
Opt 1	25	0	0	400	5	0.038	5.91

			17		42		
Opt 2	0	0	5	400	5	0.048	5.09
			12		42		
Opt 3	50	0	5	400	5	0.052	3.96
			20		40		
Opt 4	0	0	0	400	0	0.06	4.31
					42		
Opt 5	100	0	75	400	5	0.056	2.96
			15		40		
Opt 6	25	0	0	425	0	0.05	4.36
			10		45		
Opt 7	100	0	0	350	0	0.052	3.68
					42		
Opt 8	125	0	50	400	5	0.054	2.68
					42		
Opt 9	175	0	25	375	5	0.052	2.42
					42		
Opt 10	175	0	0	400	5	0.045	2.39
Cost Opt					35		
1	225	0	0	425	0	0.05	1.76
Cost Opt					35		
2	200	0	0	450	0	0.054	1.62

Cost Opt					37		
3	200	0	0	425	5	0.06	1.56
Cost Opt					27		
4	250	0	0	475	5	0.049	1.41
Cost Opt					42		
5	0	0	25	550	5	0.042	2.97
Cost Opt					42		
6	0	0	0	575	5	0.041	2.62
Cost Opt							
7	0	25	0	25	25	0	N/A
Cost Opt							
8	0	0	0	525	0	0	N/A
Cost Opt							
9	1000	0	0	0	0	0	N/A
Cost Opt							
10	0	25	0	0	0	0	N/A
Base							
Reactio					40		
n	100	250	50	150	0	0.109	14.26

434

435

436 **Supplemental Table 3:** Plasmid sequence information for Hem pathway enzymes

Plasmid Name,	Insert gene	Insert Sequence
accession number		
mslpl004, pY71 HemA,	Hem A (<i>R</i> .	atggactacaatctcgcgctcgacaaagcgatccagaaactccacgacgagggacgttacc
Genbank MK	capsulatus)	gcacgttcatcgacatcgaacgcgagaagggcgccttccccaaggcgcagtggaaccgcc
		ccgatggcggcaagcaggacatcaccgtctggtgcggcaacgactatctgggcatgggcca
		gcacccggtcgttctggccgcgatgcatgaggcgctggaagcggtcggggccggttcgggc
		ggcacccgcaacatctcgggcaccacggcctatcaccgccgtctggaagccgagatcgccg
		atctgcacggcaaggaagcggcgcttgtcttctcctcggcctatatcgccaatgacgcgacg
		ctctcgacgctgcggctgcttttccccggcctgatcatctattccgacagcctgaaccacgcct
		cgatgatcgaggggatcaagcacaatgccgggccgaagcggatcttccgtcacaatgacgt
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		ggcagccacatcgttccggtggtcatcggtgaccccgtgcacaccaaggcggtgtcggaca
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		cacatctcacggtcactgcggtgtgctgtgcgagcatggcgtcgacaacgacgcgactctgg
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