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Cellulose production is coupled to sensing of the pyrimidine biosynthetic pathway via c-di-GMP production by the DgcQ protein of Escherichia coli.

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1 Originality-Significance Statement

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3 How bacteria sense and react to specific signals has deep implications for their interaction 4 with their environment. In Escherichia coli, cellulose production (a stress response 5 mechanism in this bacterium) is coupled to the pyrimidine salvage pathway, in turn activated 6 by the availability of exogenous pyrimidines (e.g., uracil), via a signal transduction pathway 7 involving the second messenger c-di-GMP. The main sensor is the diguarylate cyclase DgcQ, 8 which is inhibited by N-carbmoyl aspartate, while being activated by UTP. This provides an 9 elegant mechanism to monitor which pathway the cell is using to make UTP, and to respond 10 accordingly. Since uracil positively affects the innate immune response, we speculate that the 11 connection between uracil sensing and cellulose production might have developed as a 12 preemptive defense mechanism against the host immune systems.

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1 Abstract

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3 Production of cellulose, a stress response-mediated process in enterobacteria, is 4 modulated in *Escherichia coli* by the activity of the two pyrimidine nucleotide biosynthetic 5 pathways, namely, the *de novo* biosynthetic pathway, and the salvage pathway, which relies 6 on the environmental availability of pyrimidine nitrogenous bases. We had previously 7 reported that prevalence of the salvage over the *de novo* pathway triggers cellulose production 8 via synthesis of the second messenger c-di-GMP by the DgcQ (YedQ) diguanylate cyclase. In 9 this work, we show that DgcQ enzymatic activity is enhanced by UTP, whilst being inhibited 10 by N-carbamoyl-aspartate, an intermediate of the *de novo* pathway. Thus, direct allosteric 11 control by these ligands allows full DgcQ activity exclusively in cells actively synthesizing 12 pyrimidine nucleotides via the salvage pathway. Inhibition of DgcQ activity by N-carbamoyl-13 aspartate appears to be favored by protein-protein interaction between DgcQ and PyrB, a 14 subunit of aspartate transcarbamylase, which synthesizes N-carbamoyl-aspartate. Our results 15 suggest that availability of pyrimidine bases might be sensed, somehow paradoxically, as an 16 environmental stress by E. coli. We hypothesize that this link might have evolved since stress 17 events, leading to extensive DNA/RNA degradation or lysis of neighbouring cells, can result 18 in increased pyrimidine concentrations and activation of the salvage pathway.

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2 Introduction

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In the majority of bacteria, even the most basic cellular processes are directed by 4 5 environmental conditions: for instance, the main regulatory mechanism of DNA replication is 6 mediated by sensing of intracellular ATP concentrations (Skarstad and Katayama, 2013), 7 which is in turn a function of the energy sources available in the growth milieu. Similarly, 8 organic compounds, such as sugars or amino acids, can act as signal molecules to regulate the 9 expression of the genes involved in their own metabolism, in systems often known as 10 paradigmatic examples of gene regulation, such as the lactose operon (Miller, 1980). 11 Interestingly, however, in addition to regulating their own metabolic genes, organic molecules 12 often control the expression of genes involved in seemingly unrelated functions: for instance, 13 glucose availability in the g/L concentration range regulates production of virulence factors in 14 several pathogenic bacteria (Fleming and Camilli, 2016; Eisenreich and Heuner, 2016; Wu et 15 al., 2016; Rossi et al., 2016), due to the fact that glucose at such concentrations can almost 16 exclusively be found in environmental niches associated with a host. Likewise, several other 17 environmental conditions, for example temperature or iron availability, not only control the 18 regulation of genes required to deal with the specific stress, but also impact genes involved in 19 adaptation to the host and/or of virulence factors through various forms of transcriptional and 20 post-transcriptional regulation (Falconi et al., 1998; Vasil and Ochsner, 1999; Llamas et al., 21 2014; Righetti et al., 2016; Gu et al., 2016).

In motile bacteria such as *Escherichia coli*, one of the most important adaptation responses to environmental signals is the switch between planktonic mode, characterized by flagellar motility, and sessile (biofilm) mode. Flagellar expression and activity negatively correlate with production of extracellular polysaccharides (EPS), thus promoting a switch

1 from motile/planktonic cells to sessile cell aggregates, in a process directed by the bacterial 2 second messenger c-di-GMP (Simm et al., 2004; Hickman and Harwood, 2008; Boehm et al., 3 2010; Irie et al., 2012; Purcell and Tamayo, 2016). Intracellular c-di-GMP levels are 4 determined by the activity of diguarylate cyclases (DGCs), which synthesize the signal 5 molecule, and c-di-GMP phosphodiesterases (PDEs) that degrade it. Genes encoding proteins 6 involved in c-di-GMP turnover can be present in high numbers, especially in the genomes of 7 Gram negative bacteria (Römling et al., 2005); although a precise function has been assigned 8 to only a minority of c-di-GMP turnover genes, many of them appear to be involved in the 9 switch between planktonic and sessile lifestyle, with a variety of different mechanisms and in 10 response to various environmental signals (Römling et al., 2013).

11 In a previous report (Garavaglia et al., 2012), we provided genetic evidence that 12 production of curli and cellulose, two main determinants for cell aggregation in E. coli, is 13 linked to the pyrimidine biosynthetic pathway. Cellulose production is activated in the 14 presence of exogenous uracil and inhibited by N-carbamoyl-aspartate, an intermediate of the 15 *de novo* pyrimidine biosynthesis pathway, in a manner dependent on the DgcQ (formerly 16 YedQ) diguanylate cyclase. In this work, we show that the DgcQ protein can bind both UTP 17 and N-carbamoyl-aspartate, which affect its DGC activity in opposite fashions. Direct sensing 18 of these two molecules by DgcQ provides an elegant mechanism for coupling cellulose 19 production to the availability of exogenous pyrimidines and to the activity of the salvage pyrimidine biosynthetic pathway, likely perceived as a stress condition by the bacterial cell. 20 21 We discuss the possible evolutionary significance of this regulatory mechanism.

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1 **Results**

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3 Cellulose production is affected by exogenous uracil and by mutations in the *de novo* 4 pyrimidine biosynthetic pathway in a *dgcO*-dependent manner. Cellulose is produced by 5 many enterobacteria, including E. coli, mostly as a defense mechanism against environmental 6 stresses, such as nutrient starvation or desiccation (White et al., 2006; Gualdi et al., 2008). 7 Consistently, production of cellulose, and of other extracellular factors such as curli fibers, 8 typically takes place at suboptimal growth temperatures (30°C or lower, (Zogaj et al., 2001)). 9 However, this can vary in different E. coli isolates; for example, fecal isolates constitutively 10 produce cellulose at both 30°C and 37°C, while UTI isolates preferentially synthetize 11 cellulose at 37°C (Bokranz et al., 2005). The E. coli laboratory strain MG1655 produces very 12 small amounts of cellulose, and exclusively at 30°C or lower; such low level cellulose 13 production is due to the presence of a stop codon in the bcsQ gene in some K-12 strains, 14 which results in reduced expression of the genes encoding cellulose synthase (Serra et al., 15 2013). However, overexpression of the AdrA diguanylate cyclase, a positive regulator of 16 cellulose synthase activity (Zogaj et al., 2001) or of CsgD, an activator of adrA transcription, 17 can overcome the effects of the *bcsQ* mutations, enhancing cellulose production (Gualdi *et* 18 al., 2008). In a previous work, we showed that, when grown in the presence of an excess of 19 exogenous uracil (0.25 mM), MG1655 mutants impaired in either the *carB* or the *pvrB* genes, 20 which encode proteins involved in the first two steps of the *de novo* pyrimidine biosynthetic 21 pathway (summarized in Figure 1A), display a white mucous phenotype on media 22 supplemented with Congo red and are fluorescent in the presence of Calcofluor (Garavaglia et 23 al., 2012), two dyes able to binding various extracellular structures. As shown in Figure 1, 24 phenotypes on Congo red (CR)- and Calcofluor (CF)-supplemented media correlate with 25 cellulose production (Figure 1D) and are totally abolished by deletion of the *bcsA* gene,

1 encoding the major subunit of cellulose synthase (Figure 1B, 1C), thus indicating that they are 2 dependent on cellulose production. Albeit at a much lower extent, exogenous uracil promotes 3 cellulose synthesis also in the MG1655 wild type, as well as in mutants in the downstream 4 steps of *de novo* pathway, such as *pvrC* ((Garavaglia *et al.*, 2012); Figure 1). Interestingly, 5 addition of 0.25 mM uracil, but not adenine, to LB1/4 medium supplemented with Calcofluor 6 strongly enhanced fluorescence in LF82, an adhering-invasive E. coli (AIEC) strain, 7 suggesting that induction of cellulose production by exogenous uracil is indeed a *bona fide* 8 regulatory mechanism in *E. coli* strains other than MG1655 (Figure 1C).

9 These observations suggest that uracil-dependent stimulation of cellulose production is 10 strongly enhanced in strains unable to synthesize N-carbamoyl-aspartate, regardless whether 11 they are unable to synthesize carbamoyl-phosphate (carB mutant) or if they accumulate this 12 intermediate (pyrB mutant). In E. coli, the cellulose biosynthetic machinery responds to c-di-13 GMP, and more specifically to the activity of two distinct DGCs, DgcC (formerly known as 14 YaiC or AdrA; (Zogaj et al., 2001; Monteiro et al., 2009)) and DgcQ (YedQ), which appears 15 to play a particularly important role in cellulose regulation in the commensal E. coli strain 16 1094 (Da Re and Ghigo, 2006). DgcQ, but not DgcC, is required for induction of cellulose by 17 exogenous uracil ((Garavaglia et al., 2012), Figure 1), suggesting a specific link between 18 DgcQ activity and pyrimidine biosynthesis.

19 Identification of DgcQ interactors by co-purification experiments. Expression levels of 20 the dgcQ gene were not affected by addition of 0.25 mM uracil to the growth medium (Figure 21 S1A) indicating that exogenous uracil might affect DgcQ activity, rather than regulate its 22 expression. Thus, we sought for possible uracil-sensing regulatory proteins that might interact 23 with DgcQ, using pull-down experiments. To this aim, we expressed the DgcQ cytoplasmatic 24 domain, corresponding to the amino acid residues 381-564, located immediately at the C-25 terminus of the second transmembrane domain (DgcQ_{cvt}, Figure 2A). The DgcQ_{cvt} domain,

1 linked to a histidine tag, was expressed and purified using a cobalt affinity column. The 2 overexpressed DgcQ_{cvt} domain was found in the soluble fraction of the cell extracts only upon 3 expression at 18 °C (see Materials and Methods), remained soluble throughout purification 4 and could be fully recovered by imidazole elution. However, after purification, it precipitated 5 in aqueous solutions after ca. 48 hours regardless of the storage conditions (data not shown). 6 Despite lack of stability after imidazole elution, DgcQ_{cvt} remained soluble when bound to the 7 column matrix as it could be eluted in a soluble form with 500mM imidazole even after prolonged incubation (data not shown). The column-bound DgcQ_{cyt} protein was used as a 8 9 "bait" to capture DgcQ interactors from cell extracts of E. coli MG1655 grown in LB1/4 10 medium either with or without 0.25 mM uracil supplementation. Proteins binding to DgcQ_{cyt} 11 were recovered by elution of the histidine-tagged DgcQ_{cvt} protein from the column with 250 12 mM imidazole, and identified by mass spectrometry, using Multidimensional Protein 13 Identification Technology (MudPIT; (Mauri, 2005)).

14 A full overview of MudPIT identification analysis is provided in the Supplementary Information File S1. Interestingly, the pattern of cellular proteins interacting with DgcQ_{cyt} 15 16 changed significantly when we used cell extracts from *E. coli* grown either with or without 17 0.25 mM uracil. As shown in Table 1, several proteins were found to co-purify with DgcQ_{cyt} 18 in a manner strictly dependent on the growth conditions. In extracts of E. coli cells grown in 19 the absence of supplemented uracil, the main DgcQ_{cvt} interactors appeared to be the Dcm 20 DNA methyltransferase, the putative phospholipid transporter MlaC, and the PyrB and PyrI 21 proteins (Table 1). The latter two proteins constitute the two subunits of aspartate 22 carbamoyltransferase, *i.e.*, the enzyme catalyzing the synthesis of N-carbamoyl-aspartate from 23 aspartate and carbamoyl-phosphate (Figure 1A). This observation would suggest that the 24 apparent inhibitory activity of N-carbamoyl-aspartate on DgcQ-dependent cellulose 25 production (Figure 1B; (Garavaglia et al., 2012)) might be mediated by direct protein-protein

1 interaction between DgcQ_{cyt} and aspartate carbamoyltransferase. In contrast, neither PyrB nor 2 PyrI were detected among the DgcQ_{cvt}-interacting proteins found in extracts of cells grown in 3 the presence of 0.25 mM uracil (Table 1): this could be expected, as UTP synthesized from 4 exogenous uracil via salvage pathway in turn negatively controls protein activity and 5 expression of several genes in the *de novo* pathway, including the *pyrBI* operon, through 6 complex feedback mechanisms (Turnbough and Switzer, 2008). We verified that uracil 7 supplementation in the medium would indeed result in downregulation of *pvrB* expression in 8 the strain under the conditions we used. We observed that *pyrB* expression was strongly 9 dependent on growth phase in our experimental conditions, being higher in mid-exponential 10 phase (Figure S1B). When LB1/4 medium was supplemented with 0.25 mM uracil, we 11 detected a 14-fold reduction in *pyrB* transcript levels in mid-exponential phase (Figure S1B), 12 suggesting that lack of DgcQ_{cvt}-PyrBI interaction in cell extracts from MG1655 grown in 13 uracil-supplemented medium (Table 1) is due to low intracellular PyrBI concentrations 14 resulting from downregulation of *pyrBI* expression.

15 In extracts from cells grown under this condition, the main DgcQ_{cvt} interactors were 16 proteins involved in post-transcriptional tRNA modifications, namely, TruD (a pseudouridine 17 synthase) and TrmA (a 54-uridine methyltransferase), and the IF-1 initiation factor of protein 18 synthesis (Table 1). These results might suggest a possible role of DgcQ in important cell 19 processes other than cellulose production, such as tRNA processing and protein synthesis. 20 However, although the possible interaction between DgcQ with these proteins is intriguing, 21 we decided to concentrate our attention on the validation of DgcQ interaction with the 22 PyrB•PyrI aspartate carbamoyltransferase, whose biological significance, in the light of our 23 genetic data ((Garavaglia et al., 2012); Figure 1), appears more straightforward.

24 Confirmation of DgcQ and PyrB•PyrI interaction by bacterial two hybrid system 25 (BACTH). In order to validate the results of the co-purification experiments, we verified

1 protein-protein interaction between DgcQcvt and either PyrB or PyrI, using the bacterial two 2 hybrid system (BACTH). The BACTH system relies on the expression of target proteins 3 fused with Bordetella pertussis adenylate cyclase subunits T18 and T25 in the E. coli 4 BTH101 strain. Upon positive interaction between two fusion proteins activity of adenylate 5 cyclase is reconstituted leading to transcriptional activation of the LacZ reporter (Karimova et 6 al., 1998). As shown in Figure 2B and 2C, DgcQ_{cvt} showed strong protein-protein interaction 7 with PyrB, *i.e.*, the catalytic subunit of aspartate carbamoyltransferase, but not with PyrI, 8 whose function is to regulate PyrB activity. Likewise, no interaction was detectable between 9 DgcQ_{cvt} and the PyrC protein, which catalyzes dihydroorotate formation using N-carbamoyl-10 aspartate as a substrate. Although the BACTH assay can only provide a semiquantitative 11 measurement of protein-protein interaction, co-expression of DgcQ_{cvt} and PyrB resulted in 12 CyaA activity levels in the same order of magnitude as PyrB-PyrI, which were used as a 13 positive control in our experiment (Figure 2B and 2C), suggesting strong interaction between 14 the two proteins.

15 As DgcQ_{cyt} interacts with PyrB, the catalytic subunit of aspartate carbamoyltransferase, but 16 not with the regulatory subunit PyrI, we asked ourselves whether PyrB-mediated N-17 carbamoyl-aspartate synthesis would somehow be necessary for this interaction: thus, we 18 performed BACTH assays in both $\triangle carB$ and $\triangle pyrB$ isogenic mutants of the E. coli BTH101 19 strain, unable to synthesize carbamoyl-phosphate, in turn a substrate for the aspartate 20 carbamoyltransferase PyrB, and N-carbamoyl-aspartate itself, respectively (Figure 1A). 21 $DgcQ_{cvt}$ -PyrB interaction appears unaffected in the $\Delta pyrB$ mutant strain, as determined by 22 CyaA activity levels (Figure 2B and 2C); however, the T25-PyrB fusion is fully functional 23 and complements the loss of the *pyrB* chromosomal gene (data not shown), thus allowing N-24 carbamoyl-aspartate synthesis and restoring a wild type-like phenotype. In contrast, in the 25 AcarB genetic background, co-expression of DgcQ_{cyt} and PyrB failed to induce any detectable 1

2 of its substrate carbamoyl-phosphate, impairs its interaction with DgcQ_{cvt} (Figure 2B and 2C). 3 Finally, we used BACTH assays to investigate whether, in addition to downregulation 4 of the *de novo* biosynthetic genes by exogenous uracil, it might be possible that an increased 5 UTP availability via the salvage pathway might directly affect DgcQ-PyrB interaction. To 6 assess this possibility, we performed BACTH assays, using the T18-DgcQ_{cyt} and the T25-7 PyrB plasmids, in the presence of 0.25mM exogenous uracil: no significant changes in 8 DgcQ_{cyt}-PyrB interaction were detected, suggesting that, despite downregulation of the de 9 novo pathway by exogenous uracil, PyrB is still enzymatically active in these conditions and 10 can fully interact with DgcQ_{cyt}.

CyaA activity, strongly suggesting that lack of enzymatic activity by PyrB, due to the absence

11 Interaction of DgcQ_{cvt} with small ligands in vitro. The observations that cellulose 12 production is stimulated in mutants unable to produce N-carbamoyl-aspartate, and that DgcQ_{cvt} interacts directly with PyrB in a manner dependent on its carbamoyltransferase 13 14 activity (Figure 2B and 2C) might suggest that N-carbamoyl-aspartate might itself be a ligand 15 for DgcQ and as such promote DgcQ_{cvt}-PyrB interaction. To assess protein-ligand 16 interactions, we performed a thermal denaturation temperature shift assay (Figure 3), which 17 relies on the stabilization of a protein (or domain) structure by ligand binding, in turn 18 resulting in higher denaturation temperatures (Cossu et al., 2010). In addition to N-19 carbamoyl-aspartate, we tested the possibility that uracil, which, when provided to growth 20 media, also seems to affect DgcQ activity in vivo (Figure 1B) and its ability to interact with 21 other proteins (Table 1), might also be a ligand for this protein. GTP, as the known substrate 22 of DGC proteins, was used as a positive control in thermal denaturation temperature shift 23 assays, and indeed it resulted in an increase in DgcQ_{cvt} denaturation temperature ranging 24 between 1.4 and 3.6 °C. Interestingly, the highest temperature shift was observed at the lowest 25 GTP concentration tested (0.25 mM). This phenomenon might depend on different

1 conformations assumed by DgcQ_{cvt} upon binding on either one or more GTP molecules and 2 on initial conversion of 2 GTP molecules to c-di-GMP, with consequent allosteric product 3 inhibition, as already observed for other DGC enzymes (Schirmer, 2016). N-carbamoyl-4 aspartate also induced a significant change (up to 3.9°C) in DgcQ_{cvt} denaturation temperature, 5 although at higher concentrations than GTP (2.5-5 mM). Uracil, in contrast, failed to show 6 any detectable change in the denaturation kinetics at any concentration used (Figure 3). 7 However, we reasoned that, once taken up by the bacterial cell, uracil is converted to UTP via 8 the pyrimidine salvage pathway (Figure 1). When tested in thermal denaturation temperature 9 shift assays, UTP, at a concentration as low as 0.25 mM, induced a slight shift in DgcQ_{cvt} 10 denaturation temperature (1.1-1.3 °C, Figure 3), that is, to a lower extent than GTP or N-11 carbamoyl-aspartate, and below the 3°C threshold considered significant for these assays 12 (Cossu et al., 2010). However, neither ATP (Figure 3) nor CTP (data not shown) induced any detectable change in DgcQcvt denaturation temperature, suggesting that UTP-induced 13 14 temperature shift, albeit small, might indeed be due to a conformational change in DgcQ_{cvt} 15 upon UTP binding. Thermal stabilization of the DgcQ cytoplasmic domain indicates that 16 DgcQ might directly bind N-carbamoyl-aspartate and, possibly, UTP suggesting that its 17 activity might be also influenced by either ligand.

UTP and N-carbamoyl-aspartate affect DgcQ_{cyt} activity in opposite ways. As thermal 18 19 denaturation temperature shift assays suggest that both UTP and N-carbamoyl-aspartate can 20 bind the DgcQ_{cyt} protein, we assessed their effect on DgcQ_{cyt} catalytic activity in a 21 diguanylate cyclase assay. c-di-GMP formation was monitored by HPLC, as described in 22 Materials and Methods. Despite its poor stability, DgcQcyt retained its DGC activity, showing an enzymatic activity level of 41.5 nmol c-di-GMP min⁻¹ mg⁻¹, *i.e.*, similar to what previously 23 24 reported for other DGCs, such as WspR and PleD (De et al., 2009; Antoniani et al., 2013). 25 However, reduced stability within 48 hours precluded replicating experiments on the same

DgcQ_{cyt} purification batch. Attempts to express different DgcQ_{cyt} constructs in order to 1 2 improve long term stability were unsuccessful, as deletion of even few amino acids after 3 residue 381, although greatly improving protein stability, resulted in complete loss of its 4 enzymatic activity (data not shown). Despite these difficulties, we were able to assess the 5 effects of UTP and N-carbamoyl-aspartate on DgcQ_{cyt} enzymatic activity on at least three 6 independent fresh purifications. In the presence of 2.5 mM N-carbamoyl-aspartate, activity 7 was reduced by more than 10-fold, consistent with direct binding of N-carbamoyl-aspartate to DgcQ_{cyt} suggested by thermal denaturation experiments (Figure 3), and with its inhibitory 8 9 effects on DgcQ activity in vivo (Figure 1). In contrast, UTP, already at 0.1 mM, resulted in a 10 2.5-fold increase in DgcQ_{cyt} activity; higher UTP concentrations (up to 2.5 mM) did not lead 11 to further stimulation (data not shown). Consistent with thermal denaturation assays shown in 12 Figure 3, ATP at concentrations up to 2.5 mM did not significantly affect DgcQ_{cyt} activity 13 (data not shown). Since UTP and N-carbamoyl-aspartate impact DgcQcyt activity in opposite ways, we tested 14 15 the possible dominance of either ligand: however, the results showed very high variability, 16 suggesting that the contemporary presence of UTP and N-carbamoyl-aspartate might further

17 destabilize the DgcQ_{cyt} protein in our assay conditions.

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20 Discussion

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In this report, we have shown that allosteric control of DgcQ activity by both UTP (positive effector) and N-carbamoyl-aspartate (negative effector) allows coupling of cellulose production to the pyrimidine salvage pathway in *E. coli*. When pyrimidine nucleotides are synthesized via the *de novo* pathway, of which N-carbamoyl-aspartate is an intermediate, c-

1 di-GMP synthesis by DgcQ and, consequently, cellulose production, are inhibited. On the 2 contrary, when the salvage pathway is active, leading to UTP synthesis from uracil and consequent repression of the *de novo* pathway, DgcQ activity and cellulose production are 3 fully activated. Finally, in the absence of active pyrimidine synthesis by either pathway, 4 5 DgcQ is active at reduced efficiency, and it is likely completely turned off if, in addition to 6 UTP, also intracellular GTP (the substrate for DgcQ) concentrations drop below a given 7 threshold. Thus, dependence of full DgcQ activity on UTP would allow modulation of 8 cellulose production as soon as intracellular concentrations of this nucleotide decrease. It can 9 also be expected that low UTP concentrations will result in a decreased intracellular pool for 10 UDP-glucose, the precursor of cellulose synthesis, thus directly affecting the efficiency of the 11 bacterial cellulose synthase complex. Arresting cellulose synthesis would save energy, and 12 might possibly represent an initial step in promoting biofilm dispersal and release of 13 planktonic motile cells in response to starvation. Indeed, cellulose turnover and biofilm 14 dispersal can be increased by starvation in a manner dependent on intracellular c-di-GMP 15 concentration (Giermansen et al., 2010).

16 In vitro DGC activity assays indicate that N-carbamoyl-aspartate can inhibit the DgcQ 17 protein at a millimolar concentration range. Although a precise estimation of intracellular N-18 carbamoyl-aspartate concentrations is not available, it is likely that normal intracellular 19 concentrations for this molecule are lower, even in E. coli cells actively synthesizing 20 pyrimidines. However, direct protein-protein interaction between DgcQ and enzymatically 21 active PyrB (Table 1, Figure 2) would locally increase N-carbamoyl-aspartate concentrations 22 available to the DgcQ protein. This notion would be consistent with the mode of action of 23 other DGC proteins, whose activity is often linked to specific protein-protein interaction 24 (Lindenberg et al., 2013; Rybtke et al., 2015). Future experiments will also address how c-di-25 GMP synthesis by DgcQ might in turn affect its interaction with PyrB and, possibly, with

1 other proteins found in co-purification experiments. From our results, it could be envisaged 2 that, as long as the *de novo* pyrimidine biosynthetic pathway is active, DgcQ activity, and thus 3 cellulose production, cannot be fully active. However, concentrations of exogenous uracil in 4 the order of 0.25 mM can repress expression of the *pyrBI* operon (Figure S1B), likely 5 preventing PyrB production and its interaction with DgcQ (Figure S1B, Table 1, File S1). 6 Consistent with feedback control of *de novo* pyrimidine synthesis, growth in media 7 supplemented with 0.25 mM uracil results in a 2-fold increase in cellulose production in E. 8 *coli* MG1655 (Figure 1D), and this effect is further amplified in mutants unable to synthesize 9 N-carbamoyl-aspartate (Garavaglia et al., 2012). Our observations suggest that DgcQ 10 allosteric control by both UTP and N-carbamoyl-aspartate allows efficient induction of 11 cellulose production in response to presence of exogenous uracil in the environment, well 12 below millimolar concentrations. The regulatory network connecting pyrimidine biosynthesis, 13 DgcQ activity, and cellulose production is shown in Figure 5.

14 Cellulose protects E. coli from harsh environmental conditions such as desiccation 15 (White et al., 2006; Gualdi et al., 2008) and its production is part of the general stress 16 response controlled by the *rpoS* gene (Weber *et al.*, 2006). Thus, it can appear 17 counterintuitive that it is also induced in response to pyrimidine availability; however, it can 18 be argued that an increase in the availability of exogenous nucleotides and nitrogenous bases 19 might also follow stressful events such as extensive lysis of neighbouring cells, for instance 20 due to phage infections. Likewise, it is possible that pyrimidine and purine salvage pathways 21 might be activated by extensive DNA/RNA degradation, again following environmental 22 insults. We have not investigated whether intermediates of the *de novo* purine synthesis can 23 also trigger cellulose production either in a DgcQ-dependent or independent way. However, it 24 is remarkable that, in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, mutations in the pyrimidine, but not in the 25 purine biosynthetic pathway, affect biofilm formation (Ueda et al., 2009). Likewise, addition

1 of exogenous uracil, but not adenine, results in fluorescence of Calcofluor-supplemented 2 plates in adherent-invasive Escherichia coli (Figure 1C), suggesting a specific effect of pyrimidines on cellulose production. Interestingly, uracil can be found at sub-millimolar 3 4 concentrations in the gastro-intestinal tract of both invertebrates and mammals (Vogel-Scheel 5 et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2013), mostly as a product of the gut microbiota. Bacterial-produced 6 uracil is a strong inducer of mucosal immunity and of generation of reactive oxygen species 7 in Drosophila (Lee et al., 2013). As cellulose also plays an important role as a defense 8 mechanism against oxidative stress in Enterobacteria (White et al., 2006), it is conceivable 9 that the link between exogenous uracil sensing and cellulose production via the DgcQ protein 10 might have evolved as a preemptive defense mechanism against the host immune system. 11 Similarly, a recent work reported that, in *Salmonella* Typhimurium, cellulose production is 12 triggered by exogenous arginine via the DgcQ-homologue STM1987 (Mills et al., 2015): 13 thus, it might be tempting to speculate that relaying cellulose production to the availability of 14 exogenous metabolites is a widespread mechanism in Enterobacteria.

15 These results, and also our observations that the pyrimidine-sensing DgcQ protein 16 might also interact with proteins not involved in cellulose production, such as for instance 17 tRNA modification enzymes (Table 1), expand previous observations showing that 18 pyrimidine biosynthesis is hardwired to important processes such as biofilm formation, 19 virulence factor production, antimicrobial resistance, and even evolutionary strategies (Haugo 20 and Watnick, 2002; Beaumont et al., 2009; Ueda et al., 2009; Guo et al., 2016), thus 21 suggesting that pyrimidine biosynthesis flow can represent a pivotal sensing mechanism in 22 bacteria.

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25 Materials and Methods

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Strains and growth media, phenotypic assays and cellulose determination. Strains used in this work are listed in Table S1. For strain construction and routine manipulation, bacteria were grown in LB medium (10 g/l tryptone, 5 g/l yeast extract, 5 g/l NaCl) or LB-agar medium (LB medium with 15 g/L agar). When necessary, antibiotics were added to the growth medium at the following concentrations: ampicillin, 100 µg/ml; chloramphenicol, 50 µg/ml; kanamycin, 50 µg/ml.

8 For all other experiments, bacteria were grown either in 1:4 diluted LB medium (LB1/4) or on 9 LB1/4-agar medium (LB1/4 medium with 15 g/L agar). LB1/4 medium was used since it 10 favors biofilm formation and adhesion factor production compared to the full strength LB 11 (Perrin *et al.*, 2009), while retaining its complexity and supporting growth of the $\Delta carB$ and 12 $\Delta pyrB$ mutants, auxotroph for pyrimidines (data not shown). If not otherwise stated 13 experiments were performed at 30°C. Uracil was dissolved in 50% dimethyl sulfoxide 14 (DMSO) to a 10 mM concentration and supplemented at a 0.25 mM final concentration. 15 DMSO at a 1.25% final concentration was always added to control cultures. Congo red- (CR) 16 and calcofluor (CF)-binding phenotypic assays were essentially carried out as previously 17 described (Garavaglia et al., 2012), spotting selected overnight cultures on LB1/4-agar media 18 containing uracil, supplemented with either 0.004% Congo red and 0.002% Coomassie blue 19 (CR-medium) or 0.005% Calcofluor (CF-medium) after autoclaving. Bacteria were grown for 20 24 h at 30 °C; phenotypes were better detected after a further 24–48 h incubation at 4 °C. 21 Cellulose determination was performed as previously described (Gualdi et al., 2008)1.

22 Molecular biology techniques and gene expression analysis. *Escherichia coli* MG1655 and 23 BTH101 mutant derivatives were constructed through homologous recombination using the 24 λ -red technique, (Datsenko and Wanner, 2000); PCR products for mutant construction were 25 obtained using primer pairs listed in Table S2. Plasmids used in this work, listed in Table S1, were constructed by standard methods, inserting PCR fragments obtained using primers pairs
 reported in Table S2 into vectors using restriction enzymes. The correctness of all newly
 constructed plasmids was verified by sequencing.

Gene expression levels were measured through quantitative real-time qRT-PCR as described previously (Garavaglia *et al.*, 2012), using 16S RNA as reference gene. RNA was extracted from cultures grown either in LB1/4 or in LB1/4(ura) at 30°C in full aeration (constant shaking at 100 r.p.m) either after overnight growth or during late exponential phase ($OD_{600} =$ 0.8). The complete list of primers used for amplification is reported in Table S2.

9 DgcQ cytoplasmic domain (DgcQ_{cvt}) expression and purification. E. coli BL21(DE3) strain harboring the pQE80L-dgcQcyt was grown in LB medium at 37 °C under shaking 10 11 condition (120 rpm), until cultures reached cellular density corresponding to $OD_{600} = 0.6$. The 12 temperature was lowered to 18 °C, shaking increased to 150 rpm, and 6xHis-tagged protein 13 expression was induced adding 0.5 mM isopropyl β -D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG). After 14 16 h of growth, cells were harvested by centrifugation at 7,000 rpm for 15 min at 4 °C, 15 resuspended in 1/50 vol. of cold Buffer A (50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 20 mM 16 imidazole), supplemented with 100 µg/ml lysozyme, 1 mM 4-(2-Aminoethyl) benzene-17 sulfonyl fluoride hydrochloride (AEBSF) and 100 µl of Protease Inhibitor (P8849, Sigma-18 Aldrich) and incubated for 30 min on ice. After cell lysis by sonication (10 cycles of 10 s 19 bursts with 30 s pauses between them), cell debris and non-soluble proteins were removed by centrifugation at 18,000 rpm at 4 °C for 1 h. The supernatant, containing the soluble protein 20 21 fraction, was loaded on a gravity chromatography column containing 1 mL of TALON® 22 metal affinity resin (Clontech), equilibrated with 5 volumes of cold Buffer A. To avoid non-23 specific interactions, the resin was washed with 10 volumes of cold Buffer A supplemented 24 with 1 mM AEBSF, followed by 10 volumes of 90% Buffer A + 10% Buffer B (50 mM Tris-25 Cl, pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 500 mM imidazole). Proteins were eluted on a single step using 5

volumes of 50% Buffer A + 50% Buffer B. Imidazole was immediately removed by multiple
PD-100 Desalting columns (GE Healthcare Life Sciences), followed by wash and elution in
Storage Buffer (50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 5% glycerol). If
required, AEBSF was added to a final concentration of 1 mM. Purified DgcQ_{cyt} protein in
Storage Buffer was used within 24 h for biochemical assays, as the proteins precipitated over
longer times.

7 $DgcQ_{cyt}$ co-purification (pull down) experiments. $DgcQ_{cyt}$ was expressed and loaded by 8 gravity on a chromatography column containing metal affinity resin as described in the 9 previous section. After the first wash with 10 volumes of cold Buffer A, the DgcQ_{cvt}-carrying 10 column was loaded with 5 mL of cleared cellular lysate deriving from cultures of MG1655 11 strain grown for 16 h either in presence or absence of 0.25 mM uracil. The column was then 12 washed with 10 volumes of cold Buffer A, followed by 5 vol. of 90% Buffer A + 10% Buffer B. Finally, DgcQ_{cyt} and co-eluting proteins were eluted using 5 volumes of 50% Buffer A + 13 14 50% Buffer B. An aliquot of the recovered protein's complexes were treated with RapiGest 15 SF (Waters), digested with trypsin and identified through MudPIT (Multidimensional Protein 16 Identification Technology) analysis, as previously described (Longo et al., 2016). In order to 17 identify specific proteins co-eluting with 6xHis-tagged DgcQ_{evt} in presence or absence of 0.25 18 mM uracil, outputs were analyzed with the in-house software MAProMa (multidimensional 19 algorithm protein map) (Mauri and Dehò, 2008). Different protein amounts were estimated by 20 means of the DAve (differential average) algorithm of MAProMa (Mauri, 2005). A DAve 21 value higher than 10 (or lower than -10) indicates that a given protein is present in different 22 amounts in the samples analyzed; a DAve value of either 200 or -200 indicates that a protein 23 is exclusively present in one sample.

Bacterial two-hybrid (BACTH) assays. For the Bacterial Adenylate Cyclase Two-Hybrid
System (BACTH), proteins of interest were fused to T25 and T18 fragments of *B. pertussis*

1 adenylate cyclase in vectors pKT25 and pUT18, respectively, and the BACTH assay was 2 performed essentially as previously described (Longo et al., 2016). Briefly, pKT25 and pUT18 plasmids derivatives (see Table S2) were used to co-transform in various 3 4 combinations the *E. coli* BTH101 or its isogenic $\triangle carB$ and $\triangle pyrB$ mutants. Resulting 5 transformants were cultured in LB medium and spotted on either LB-agar medium containing 6 100 μg/ml ampicillin, 50 μg/ml kanamycin, 40 μg/ml 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-β-D-7 galactopyranoside (X-gal) and 0.5 mM IPTG. Interactions between different hybrid proteins 8 were visualized after 48 h of incubation at 30 °C. For a quantitative measurement of protein-9 protein interactions, β -galactosidase activity was measured on 100 μ l of the same LB cultures 10 grown for 16 h at 30°C by standard Miller Assay (Miller, 1972).

11 **Biochemical assays.** Thermal denaturation temperature shift assays were essentially 12 performed as previously described (Cossu et al., 2010). DgcQ_{cvt} (20 µM), was mixed with 3.5 13 µl of Sypro orange (Sigma) diluted 60-fold, 50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.5, and either ATP, or UTP, 14 or uracil, or N-carbamoyl-aspartate, at different concentrations. Ligands were all prepared 15 fresh in 50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.5 at a stock concentration of 25 mM. Tris-Cl, pH 7.5 was used 16 in place of ligands in negative controls. The assay was carried out using a MiniOpticon Real 17 Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad), designed originally for PCR; sample plates were 18 heated from 4 °C to 99 °C at a heating rate of 0.2 °C/5 s. The fluorescence emission intensity 19 was measured over the 540–700 nm wavelength range by excitation at 470–505 nm. For 20 analysis and visualization purposes, output melting curves were manually inspected, then 21 normalized, smoothed and fitted with a 4-parameters logistic function using a custom python 22 script in order to calculate the melting temperature (T_m) .

23 Diguanylate cyclase (DGC) activity of $DgcQ_{cyt}$ was measured following the *in vitro* 24 production of the reaction product c-di-GMP at 30 °C using reverse-phase HPLC. Briefly, 25 freshly purified $DgcQ_{cyt}$ (20 μ M) in Storage Buffer was added to a reaction solution

containing 10 mM MinCl ₂ , 200 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris, pH 7.5. After an incubation time of 5
min at 30 °C, 0.5 mM GTP was added to start the reaction. Aliquots were taken at different
time points between 0 and 3 h, showing that c-di-GMP synthesis was linear during at least the
first 2 h of reaction; thus, a 2 h-incubation time was chosen for the DGC assays in the
presence of various ligands. The reaction mixture was separated on reverse-phase 12.5 cm
Supelcosil LC-18-DB, 3 µm particle size, column using a methanol-phosphate gradient
(Buffer A: 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.0; Buffer B: Buffer A containing 20%
methanol) as previously described (Antoniani et al., 2010). Reaction products were identified
by comparison to standard nucleotides GTP (Fermentas) and synthetic c-di-GMP (Biolog,
Bremen, Germany). To test the effects of different ligands on DgcQ _{cyt} activity, ATP, UTP,
uracil, N-carbamoyl-aspartate, and combinations of them, were added, at different
concentrations to in vitro reaction mixtures and then incubated for 5 min at 30 °C, after which
the reaction was started by addition of the substrate GTP, as before. All ligands were freshly
prepared in 50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 7.5, at stock concentration of 25 mM and used within 1 h.
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13 Figure legends

14

15 Figure 1. Link between pyrimidine biosynthesis and cellulose production in E. coli MG1655. 16 (A) Schematic representation of *de novo* (light blue background) and salvage (light brown 17 background) pathways for pyrimidine biosynthesis in *Escherichia coli*. The metabolic 18 intermediate N-carbamoyl-aspartate and the nitrogenous base uracil, which belongs 19 respectively to the *de novo* and salvage pathways for pyrimidine biosynthesis are highlighted 20 in green and orange. Shared reaction between the two pathways are highlighted in a purple 21 background. Solid lines represent a single reaction driven by an enzymatic complex encoded 22 by genes indicated on the right. Dashed lines represent multiple consecutive reactions carried 23 out by the products of the genes listed on the right. (B) Phenotypes of E. coli MG1655 and its 24 mutant derivatives affected in pyrimidine biosynthesis or cellulose production on LB1/4 25 medium added with Congo red (CR) with or without 0.25 mM uracil. Infographic below the

1 picture summarises the ability of each strain to synthesize the metabolic intermediate N-2 carbamoyl-L-aspartate (NcAsp) (green=able; grey=unable). (C) Upper panels: Phenotypes on LB1/4 medium added with the fluorescent dye Calcofluor (CF) with or without 0.25 mM 3 4 uracil. In the absence of added uracil, no strain showed any detectable fluorescence; E. coli 5 MG1655 is shown as a representative of the CF-negative phenotype. Lower panel: CF 6 phenotype of adherent-invasive E. coli (AIEC) strain LF82 with or without the addition of 7 uracil (ura) and adenine (ADE). For both CR and CF phenotype experiments, bacterial strains 8 were grown at 30°C for 24 hours and plates were incubated at 4°C for at least 48 hours to 9 enhance CR and CF binding. (D) Determination of cellulose in LB1/4 medium with or 10 without supplementation with 0.25 mM uracil.

11

12 Figure 2. DgcQ diguanylate cyclase and its interaction with components of the aspartate 13 transcarbamylase enzyme. (A) Schematic representation of the DgcQ protein and its 14 artificially expressed shorter variants 6xHis-DgcQ_{cvt} and T18-DgcQ_{cvt} comprising only the 15 cytoplasmic domain of the protein fused with a histidine tag and the T18 subunit of 16 Bordetella pertussis adenylate cyclase, respectively. (B) Bacterial Adenylate Cyclase Two-17 Hybrid (BACTH) assays on X-gal-supplemented plates. E. coli BTH101 wild-type (WT) 18 strain, and its isogenic derivatives mutated in either the *carB* or *pyrB* genes, were transformed 19 with a combination of two-hybrid vector plasmids (pKT25, T25; pUT18, T18), allowing 20 expression of the indicated proteins. Only relevant combinations are presented (for the full set 21 of interactions refer to Panel C of this figure). Blue colour is indicative of a reconstituted 22 adenylate cyclase activity, *i.e.*, of protein-protein interaction. Strains harbouring pUT18 and 23 pKT25 empty vectors are considered as negative control, while strain co-expressing the T25-24 Zip and T18-Zip fusion proteins represents the positive control. The infographic on the right 25 highlight the ability of each strain to synthesize carbamoyl-phosphate (carbamoyl-P in the

Figure), the precursor of *N*-carbamoyl-aspartate. (C) Full set of protein interactions and their strength in BACTH assay measured as β -galactosidase activity on overnight cultures grown in LB medium at 30°C. Results obtained in either the BTH101 strain or its $\Delta pyrB$ mutant, both proficient for the synthesis of *N*-carbamoyl-aspartate precursor, carbamoyl-phosphate, are highlighted by a green background; a grey background highlights results in the $\Delta carB$ mutant, unable to synthesize carbamoyl-phosphate. Single experiments are represented by dots, and a minimum of three independent replicate is reported. Standard deviations are shown.

8

Figure 3. DgcQ_{cyt} thermal denaturation temperature shift assays. In the presence of a ligand, a shift in the melting curve can be appreciated. The difference in 50% melting temperature $(\Delta T_m, \text{ reported in the table})$ is calculated at the temperature in which 50% of total fluorescence is observed. Curves and ΔT_m reported in the table are the average of three independent measurements. Standard deviations for ΔT_m are shown.

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15 Figure 4. In vitro diguanylate cyclase (DGC) activity of the purified DgcQ_{cvt} protein. c-di-16 GMP production was measured through high-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) 17 analysis. For each sample, purified DgcQ_{cvt} (20 µM) was incubated for 5 minutes at 30°C in 18 the reaction buffer (see Materials and Methods) supplemented, when necessary, with either 19 0.1 mM UTP or 2.5 mM N-carbamyl-aspartate (NcAsp). The reaction was started by adding 20 the substrate GTP (0.5 mM) and run for 2 hours at 30°C. c-di-GMP levels (ca. 0.8 µM) of the 21 control reaction containing GTP only was set to 1, and relative amounts are shown. Results 22 are mean \pm standard errors of the mean of three independent experiments. The asterisks 23 denote significant differences (* $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$ Holm-Šídák multigroup analysis).

Figure 5. Schematic representation of the possible molecular network connecting pyrimidine biosynthesis, DgcQ activity, and cellulose production. Dashed lines indicate missing reactions if connecting metabolic intermediates. Green lines indicate a positive effect on the activity of the protein, while red lines indicate a negative one. IM: inner membrane; OM: outer membrane; PG: peptidoglycan; UDP-Glu: UDP-glucose.

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Supplementary Figure S1. Relative expression of the (A) *yedQ* and (B) *pyrB* genes determined using Real-Time RT-PCR on RNA extracted from cultures in late exponential (Late exp., $OD_{600} = 0.8$) and stationary (Stat., 24h of growth) phase. 16S RNA transcript was used as reference gene. Δ Ct values between the genes of interest and 16S RNA were set at 1.0 for MG1655 in Late exponential phase in LB1/4 medium without addition of uracil. Transcript levels in other growth conditions are expressed as relative values. Experiments were repeated at least three times, each time in duplicate; standard deviations are shown.

Accession	Protein name	Description	Score ^a		DAve ^b
n.°				uracil	
NP_417225.1	TruD	tRNA(Glu) pseudouridine(13) synthase	0	40.21	200
NP_415404.1	InfA	translation initiation factor IF-1	0	34.28	200
NP_418400.1	TrmA	tRNA m(5)U54 methyltransferase, SAM-dependent	0	30.24	200
NP_417659.1	MlaC	ABC transporter maintaining OM lipid asymmetry, periplasmic binding protein	36.26	0	-200
NP_416470.1	Dcm	DNA cytosine methyltransferase	35.24	0	-200
<u>NP_418666.1</u>	<u>PyrB</u>	aspartate carbamoyltransferase, catalytic subunit	<u>40.3</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>-200</u>
NP_418665.1	<u>Pyrl</u>	aspartate carbamoyltransferase, regulatory subunit	<u>40.31</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>-200</u>

Table 1. Proteins co-eluted with DgcQ_{cyt} in pull-down experiments.

Cell extracts were from *E. coli* grown in LB1/4 medium (-) or LB1/4 medium supplemented with 0.25mM uracil (uracil)

Score and DAve are both algorithms of the MAProMa software (42).

^a Score is a function of the number of uniquely identified peptides in each sample. ^b DAve provides a relative amount ratio between the two samples. Values of ≥ 1 or ≤ -1 indicate different relative protein amounts between two samples (positive values: higher amount in extracts from cells grown in LB1/4 + 0.25mM uracil; negative values: higher amount in extracts from cells grown in LB1/4 with no uracil supplementation); a DAve value of either 200 or –200 indicates that a given protein is exclusively present in either sample (with or without uracil, respectively).

PyrB and PyrI, the catalytic and regulatory subunits of aspartate carbamoyltransferase, are underlined.





Figure 1

157x121mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 2

162x132mm (300 x 300 DPI)



	$\Delta T_m (T_m (Iigand) - T_m (no ligand))$			
	0.25 mM	0.5 mM	2.5 mM	5 mM
GTP	3.6 ± 1.1	1.8 ± 0.1	1.4 ± 0.1	2.1 ± 0.4
ATP	-0.5 ± 0.1	-0.6 ± 0.3	0.1 ± 0.4	0.7 ± 0.4
UTP	1.3 ± 0.5	1.1 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.6	1.2 ± 0.3
Uracil	0.0 ± 0.2	-0.5 ± 0.1	-0.4 ± 0.4	-0.1 ± 0.4
N-carbamoyl-aspartate	0.1 ± 0.1	0.0 ± 0.1	1.5 ± 0.1	3.9 ± 0.3



172x149mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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Figure 4

95x95mm (300 x 300 DPI)





Figure 5

154x152mm (300 x 300 DPI)

