Channeling Anabolic Side Products toward the Production of Nonessential Metabolites: Stable Malate Production in *Synechocystis* sp. PCC6803

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**ABSTRACT:** Powered by (sun)light to oxidize water, cyanobacteria can directly convert atmospheric CO₂ into valuable carbon-based compounds and meanwhile release O₂ to the atmosphere. As such, cyanobacteria are promising candidates to be developed as microbial cell factories for the production of chemicals. Nevertheless, similar to other microbial cell factories, engineered cyanobacteria may suffer from production instability. The alignment of product formation with microbial fitness is a valid strategy to tackle this issue. We have described previously the "FRUITS" algorithm for the identification of metabolites suitable to be coupled to growth (i.e., side products in anabolic reactions) in the model cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC6803. However, the list of candidate metabolites identified using this algorithm can be somewhat limiting, due to the inherent structure of metabolic networks. Here, we aim at broadening the spectrum of candidate compounds beyond the ones predicted by FRUITS, through the conversion of a growth-coupled metabolite to downstream metabolites via thermodynamically favored conversions. We showcase the feasibility of this approach for malate production using fumarate as the growth-coupled substrate in *Synechocystis* mutants. A final titer of ∼1.2 mM was achieved for malate during photoautotrophic batch cultivations. Under prolonged continuous cultivation, the most efficient malate-producing strain can maintain its productivity for at least 45 generations, sharply contrasting with other producing *Synechocystis* strains engineered with classical approaches. Our study also opens a new possibility for extending the stable production concept to derivatives of growth-coupled metabolites, increasing the list of suitable target compounds.

**KEYWORDS:** cyanobacteria, strain stability, growth-coupled production, malate production, thermodynamically favored reactions

**INTRODUCTION**

Cyanobacteria are promising microbial hosts that can be designed as cell factories to enable the development of sustainable production processes. Energized by (sun)light through their photosynthetic systems, engineered cyanobacteria can directly convert inorganic carbon dioxide into a number of chemicals such as alcohols and derived fuels (ethanol, butanol), chemical building blocks (isoprene, lactate, polyhydroxybutyrate), and fine chemicals.

Classical strain improvement aims to rewire cellular metabolism to enhance the production of valuable native compounds or to endow cells with the ability to newly produce non-native ones. However, the diversion of carbon fluxes and energy toward the production of compounds of interest implemented by the introduction and/or modification of biosynthetic pathways interferes with cellular functionalities that are subject to multilevel (e.g., proteome-, metabolic-, population-, and environmental) constraints. The host cells could therefore experience notable pressure to opportune reallocate resources between biomass precursors and target compound formation. Strong evolutionary pressure favors revertant cells with impaired production, challenging the feasibility and sustainability of the industrial exploitation of cyanobacteria as cell factories. Although negative results are seldom shown, the issue of production instability in cyanobacteria engineered to obtain valuable products such as ethylene, lactic acid, isopropanol, mannitol, and fatty acids has been reported in a handful of reports.

Developing cyanobacterial-producing strains in biotechnological setups requires minimizing the negative impact of instability raised by the loss of fitness of engineered strains. Therefore, one approach is to make the growth of the engineered strain dependent on the synthesis of the compound...
that is to be produced (i.e., coupling the product forming pathway to microbial growth). In this way, the selection acting on engineered strains during their evolutionary trajectories allows producing strains to outcompete the nonproducing ones. This growth-coupled production has been implemented computationally using the FRUITS algorithm—“Finds Reactions Usable in Tapping Side-products”—and experimentally validated in \textit{Synechocystis} sp. PCC6803 (hereafter, \textit{Synechocystis}) engineered to independently accumulate either acetate\textsuperscript{24} or fumarate.\textsuperscript{25} The biotechnologically relevant compounds obtainable through this approach are defined as the side products of anabolic pathways. Those side products can be accumulated by disrupting endogenous enzymatic reactions responsible for reintroducing them back into metabolism within a resource-efficient usage framework. In summary, the compounds resulting from this approach are growth-coupled since they are obligate side products of the formation of essential precursor metabolites. However, the number of candidates for implementing this growth-coupled strategy is limited to the metabolites that meet such criteria under the conditions for which it is determined using FRUITS. For \textit{Synechocystis}, using model iJN678\textsuperscript{26} constrained to simulate photoautotrophic growth, this is restricted to nine metabolites.\textsuperscript{24} The metabolic strategy shown in the present study broadens the aforementioned limitations inherent to the FRUITS approach. Based on a combination of metabolic modeling and genetic engineering solutions, we show how we could exploit a growth-coupled metabolite previously identified in \textit{Synechocystis}\textsuperscript{25} to achieve the production of a metabolite positioned immediately downstream of the growth-coupled product itself. Specifically, we report the first stable malate-producing strain of \textit{Synechocystis} obtained by exploiting the stoichiometrically growth-coupled metabolite fumarate as a supply for the accumulation of malate, the direct subproduct of fumarate in \textit{Synechocystis}.

Figure 1. Malate metabolism in \textit{Synechocystis} and mutant construction. (a) Schematic representation of malate-producing and consuming pathways, as reported by the genome-scale metabolic model (GSMM).\textsuperscript{26} The genes deleted in this study are indicated in red, the overexpressed gene is indicated in green. (b) Thermodynamic analysis of the reaction catalyzed by the FumC. Calculations were obtained using eQuilibrator\textsuperscript{31} for the reaction fumarate + H\textsubscript{2}O \rightarrow malate. The dashed lines indicate the equilibrium point of the reaction ($\Delta$G\textsubscript{r} = 0). (c) PCR confirmation of the strains constructed for markerless deletion of \textit{me} and \textit{mdh}. With the primers on each side of the upstream and downstream homologous region (H1 and H2 of \textasciitilde 1 kb each), a markerless construct gave a PCR product of 1.5 and 1.8 kb for \textit{Δme} and \textit{Δmdh}, respectively. (d) PCR confirmation of the \textit{fumC} overexpression strain. The integration of \textit{fumC} gene in the neutral site slr0168 gave a PCR product of 4 kb. The genomic DNA of the WT and pBB1 were used as negative and positive controls, respectively.
Malate is a C4-dicarboxylic acid with a wide range of industrial applications since it is used as an acidulant in the feed and food industry, building block for bioplastic and resin production and a component of drug delivery systems. Given the manifold applications and the increasing market demand, alternative and sustainable production systems for malate are highly advisable, for instance, in a photoautotrophic host.

In this study, we created the markerless deletion *Synechocystis* mutants with impaired malate consumption pathways and further improved the production by overexpressing the enzyme that converts fumarate into malate, namely, fumarase C (FumC). The rationale behind the latter is that cells would then accumulate the target product malate because (i) the reactions that consume malate have been deleted and (ii) the formation of its direct precursor, fumarate, has been previously shown to be a strict requirement for cell growth. Moreover, we validated the stability of the malate production of the engineered strains over prolonged continuous cultivation. The strains obtained by implementing our new metabolic engineering strategy represent the first report of stable cyanobacterial production of malate via the conversion of the closest upstream growth-coupled compound, fumarate. It provides a starting point for the application of this novel engineering strategy to the next stages of industrial exploitation.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**In Silico Simulation for Malate Production.** In *Synechocystis* under photoautotrophic conditions, malate is exclusively produced from the precursor fumarate. The latter is mainly produced as a side product of urea and purine anabolism, and it is subsequently recycled via anaerobic reactions. First, the FumC enzyme catalyzes the conversion of fumarate into malate (Figure 1a). Then, malate is converted either into oxaloacetate by malate dehydrogenase (Mdh) or into pyruvate by the malic enzyme (Me) through oxidative decarboxylation (Figure 1a). It has previously been demonstrated that fumarate can be produced in a growth-coupled manner, as also highlighted by the correlation existing between fumarate productivity and the growth rate of the engineered strain. Considering that for *Synechocystis* fumarate is a nonessential metabolite that can be produced in a growth-coupled fashion, it is conceivable that channeling fumarate toward the accumulation of its first derivative metabolite, malate, would not cause major fitness impairments. This hypothesis is supported by Flux Variability Analysis (FVA) of the genome-scale metabolic model (GSM) of *Synechocystis* iJN678, which predicted that if enzymatic reactions are responsible for the consumption of malate are deleted, either of the latter or fumarate would then be accumulated without affecting the growth capabilities. In particular, according to FVA, the single knockout of me or mdh genes would neither enhance malate accumulation nor affect *Synechocystis* growth (Tables 1 and 2), since one could take over the function of each other in simulations. On the other hand, the double deletion of the two target genes would induce the accumulation of malate up to a total amount of 0.860 mM gDW⁻¹, with a small negative effect on cell growth (Table 2). The reaction catalyzed by the FumC is reversible and, according to a biochemical thermodynamic analysis performed through eQuilibrator, the conversion of fumarate into malate is allowed until the equilibrium of the reaction is reached, which corresponds to a molar ratio malate:fumarate of 4:1 under standard conditions (Figure 1b). For this reason, a residual amount of fumarate is always to be expected.

To experimentally validate the feasibility of our approach by introducing the necessary genetic modifications, three markerless deletion mutants of *Synechocystis* as Δme, Δmdh, and ΔmeΔmdh were constructed (Figure 1c) and further characterized.

### Malate Production of Δme, Δmdh, and ΔmeΔmdh in a Batch Photobioreactor.

Growth and production capabilities of engineered and WT strains were monitored by photoautotrophic cultivation under continuous light illumination in the Multi-Cultivator. Δmdh grew similarly to the WT until the end of the experiment, while Δme and ΔmeΔmdh showed a measurably slower growth rate (0.052 and 0.050 h⁻¹, respectively) in the exponential phase compared to the WT (0.055 h⁻¹) (Figure 2a and Table 2). A similar negative effect on the growth rate due to the disruption of the gene encoding for the malic enzyme has been observed before. Comparison of fumarate and malate extracellular production between the WT and engineered strains allowed assessing the impact of deleting me and mdh genes on the metabolism of *Synechocystis*. As expected from previous work investigating the secretion of organic metabolites by *Synechocystis* grown under photoautotrophic conditions, neither fumarate nor malate was detected in significant amount in the supernatant of WT (Figure 2b,c). In contrast to the in silico analysis carried out, which predicted a null malate yield for the Δme strain (Table 2), this mutant was able to accumulate modest amounts of malate, suggesting that the conversion of malate into oxaloacetate by Mdh is less effective than the conversion of malate into pyruvate mediated by Me. This result is in partial

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**Table 1. List of Plasmids and Strains Used in This Study**

| plasmids and strains | description | reference |
|----------------------|-------------|-----------|
| pFL-AN              | BioBrick “T” vector with AvrII and Nhel on each side | 42 |
| pWD42               | Amp’Km’, containing the selection cassette | 43 |
| pWD71               | pFL-AN derivative, Amp’, containing mdh upstream and downstream homologous regions | this study |
| pWD72               | pFL-AN derivative, Amp’, containing the selection cassette flanked by mdh upstream and downstream homologous regions | this study |
| pWD73               | pFL-AN derivative, Amp’, containing me upstream and downstream homologous regions | this study |
| pWD74               | pFL-AN derivative, Amp’, containing the selection cassette flanked by me upstream and downstream homologous regions | this study |
| pHKH001             | Amp’Km’, integration vector at srf0168 genomic locus | 3 |
| pBB1                | pHKH001 derivative, Amp’Km’, fumC (from Escherichia coli) expressed under the cpcBA promoter | this study |
| Synecochocystis sp. PCC6803 | Synecochocystis sp. PCC6803 wild type | D. Bhaya |
| WD163               | Synecochocystis sp. PCC6803 mdh gene knockout mutant | this study |
| WD169               | Synecochocystis sp. PCC6803 me gene knockout mutant | this study |
| WD170               | Synecochocystis sp. PCC6803 me and mdh gene knockout mutant | this study |
| WD198               | Synecochocystis sp. PCC6803 fumC overexpressing mutant | this study |
| WD199               | Synecochocystis sp. PCC6803 me and mdh gene knockowt, fumC overexpressing mutant | this study |
| SAA023              | Synecochocystis sp. PCC6803 expressing L-lidh gene from Lactococcus lactis | 36 |

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agreement with 13C flux analysis showing that during continuous illumination, similar to that of our setup, the high levels of ATP generated inhibit the pyruvate kinase, which converts phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) into pyruvate (Figure 1a),\(^{34,35}\) inducing cells to convert malate for supplying the necessary pyruvate. In this context, indeed, the higher activity of Me compared to Mdh could be functional to provide pyruvate, thus compensating the bottleneck through the pyruvate kinase. In accordance with model predictions (Table 2), both compounds were released in the extracellular broth by ΔmeΔmdh strain, which also showed higher yields compared to Δme strain (Figure 2b,c). For the ΔmeΔmdh strain, the maximum titers of malate and fumarate observed were to 1.2 and 1.0 mM, respectively, after 14 days of batch cultivation (Figures 2b,c and S1) and the maximum malate to fumarate molar ratio was about 1 (Figure 2d).

**Overexpression of FumC for Improving Malate Accumulation.** When considering the ΔmeΔmdh strain, which was the mutant with the highest malate production (Figures 2b and S1), the presence of a considerable amount of

| strains | growth rate (μ, h\(^{-1}\)) | malate yield (Y\(_{p/x, mM gDW^{-1}}\)) | fumarate yield (Y\(_{p/x, mM gDW^{-1}}\)) |
|---------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
|         | model prediction measured   | model prediction measured             | model prediction measured           |
| wild type | 0.052 0.055 ± 0.001         | 0 0                                   | 0 0                                  |
| Δme     | 0.052 0.052 ± 0.000         | 0 0.067 ± 0.019                       | 0 0.274 ± 0.014                      |
| Δmdh    | 0.052 0.055 ± 0.000         | 0 0                                   | 0 0                                  |
| ΔmeΔmdh | 0.050 0.050 ± 0.001         | 0−0.860 0.607 ± 0.091                 | 0−0.860 0.557 ± 0.002                |

\(^{4}\)FVA was used for evaluating the robustness of the network and predicting the expected range for malate and/or fumarate production. The biomass equation was always used as the primary objective function in all FBA and FVA simulations. The experimental data are referred to the batch cultivation reported in Figure 2.
fumarate in the culturing broth (Figure 2c) suggests that the intracellular conversion of fumarate into malate catalyzed by FumC might be limited. The possible enzymatic bottleneck related to the low availability of the enzyme and/or restricted access to the substrate has been explored by overexpressing fumC. Two strains based on the WT strain and on the background of ΔmeΔmdh mutant, i.e., ΔNSI::fumC and ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC, have been engineered by inserting the fumC gene from E. coli in the chromosomal neutral site slr0168 (Figure 1d). The E. coli fumC gene overexpressed is only 59.4% identical to the native one of Synechocystis, which avoids the occurrence of undesired recombination events.

The fumC overexpressing strains were cultured photo-autotrophically in the Multi-Cultivator under the same conditions as the deletion mutants. The growth curve of ΔNSI::fumC was similar to that of the WT, whereas ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC showed a slower growth during the exponential phase when compared to the ΔNSI::fumC (Figure 3a). Conversely, ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC grew similarly to the ΔmeΔmdh in the first stages of growth, reaching the steady state earlier than the double mutant (Figure 3a). Concerning malate and fumarate extracellular production, the overexpression of fumC alone in Synechocystis was not sufficient to enhance the secretion of detectable quantities of neither of the two compounds (Figure 3b). On the other hand, ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC was capable of releasing in the extracellular environment higher titers of malate and lower titers of fumarate compared to the ΔmeΔmdh strain (Figure 3b; Figure S1 normalized by biomass content), determining a higher molar ratio of malate over fumarate in the extracellular broth throughout the entire cultivation (Figure 3c). When analyzing the malate productivity (calculated as the ratio between the variation of the malate production and the difference in biomass observed between two consecutive sampling points), the highest productivity was observed during the exponential phase for both the ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC and ΔmeΔmdh strains (Figure 3d). In this growth phase, the malate productivity of the overexpressing triple mutant was significantly higher than that of the double deletion mutant, once more indicating an improved ability of conversion of fumarate into malate in the ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC mutant.

Testing the Stability of ΔmeΔmdh and ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC. The engineering approach adopted to build the ΔmeΔmdh strain is based on the removal of the two consumption pathways of malate. Cyanobacterial strains engineered adopting an analogue deletion method have been shown to be stable and productive over dozens of generations. Consequently, also the ΔmeΔmdh strain is expected to be phenotypically stable. Most importantly, malate production should be stably maintained due to the grounds...
that its precursor, fumarate, is a growth-coupled metabolite. In the ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC strain, more cellular resources are involved in the synthesis of an extra amount of heterologous FumC, thus potentially introducing an additional protein burden to the cell. Therefore, assessing the phenotypic stability of this strain is of utmost pertinence.

Phenotypic stability of the most productive strains, ΔmeΔmdh and ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC, was assessed through a serial propagation experiment in which cultures were kept in exponential growth (OD730 between ~0.6 and 1) over a period of ~2 months to ensure a constant selective pressure.15 As a control strain, we used SAA023, a lactate-producing mutant of Synechocystis, which carries L-LDH that converts pyruvate into L-lactate.16 SAA023 has been shown to be unstable during prolonged culturing since spontaneous revertants with mutations in the ldh cassette become dominants after a few generations.17 The production instability of this strain is associated with the metabolic engineering strategy used that imposes a high trade-off between biomass growth and product formation because an essential metabolite of the central metabolism, here pyruvate, is depleted.

Throughout our laboratory evolution experiment, each culture was monitored between 42 and 50 generations, depending on the specific growth rate of the strain. ΔmeΔmdh and ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC maintained a similar ability to accumulate malate in the extracellular environment until the end of their serial propagations (Figure 4a), albeit with some fluctuations along time. In contrast, a clear drop in lactate extracellular concentration was recorded for the SAA023 strain (Figure 4b). To check whether this decrease in lactate was due to the presence of mutations in the ldh cassette, the gene encoding for the L-LDH and the upstream promoter sequence were amplified from 15 single colonies (five from each of the three biological replicates) and subjected to Sanger sequencing. Mutations in the ldh cassette were found in all of the analyzed sequences (Table S2 and Figure S2). Interestingly, the mutations were found only in the coding sequence, directly hampering the correct translation of the L-LDH protein. On the other hand, no mutations were found in the fumC cassette tested with an analogous approach.

Taken together, these results show the promise of strategies aiming at producing compounds (here, malate) derived from growth-coupled metabolites (here, fumarate), rather than from central C-compounds necessary for growth.24,25 The non-appearance of mutations in the fumC gene indicates that (i) malate and fumarate, at these concentrations, do not pose a significant challenge to be transported out of the cell; (ii) nor is the accumulation of neither of them at these levels inhibitory for the cell; and (iii) at least in the absence of nutrient limitations, the protein overexpression per se does not seem to pose a sufficiently large fitness cost for the cell. Although this finding can be somewhat unexpected a priori, it is supported by the fact that no decrease in the growth capability (Figure 3a) and no loss in malate production (Figure 4a) were recorded for the ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC strain.

## CONCLUSIONS

The feasibility of a metabolic engineering strategy aiming at exploiting a growth-coupled compound, fumarate, to drive the stable production of a downstream metabolite, malate, has been proven in this study. By implementing this strategy, a malate-producing strain of Synechocystis, ΔmeΔmdh, has been engineered. The conversion of fumarate into malate has been further improved by overexpressing heterologous FumC in the ΔmeΔmdh strain. The synthesis of an extra amount of this protein did not appear to compromise the fitness of the microorganism and did not result in a progressive loss in malate productivity due to phenotypic instability. These results indicate that the strategy proposed here in principle could be applied to other compounds deriving from a growth-coupled metabolite that is a side product of anabolism.

## METHODS

**In Silico Simulation and Tools.** The genome-scale metabolic model (GSMM) iJN678 was used to simulate light-limited photoautotrophic growth of Synechocystis. All of the details concerning the constraints imposed to perform metabolic flux analysis through flux variability analysis (FVA) and flux balance analysis (FBA)37 are reported in ref 24. FBA and FVA were performed using PySCeS-CBMPy38 (http://cbmpy.sourceforge.net) in combination with ILOG CPLEX Optimization Studio (IBM) under an academic license. Additional visualization of modeling simulations was carried out using a resource specifically developed for Synechocystis39 available at the FAME online modeling environment.40

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**Figure 4.** Malate and lactate extracellular production of different strains during the serial propagation experiment. (a) Malate production normalized by the OD730 of ΔmeΔmdh and ΔmeΔmdhΔNSI::fumC strains. (b) Lactate production normalized by the OD730 of SAA023 strain. The values are the mean of three biological replicates, the y error bars are combined uncertainties, and the x error bars are standard errors.
Strains and Growth Conditions. Molecular cloning was carried out in *E. coli* XL-1 blue grown at 37 °C in LB medium, either liquid in a flask with a shaking speed of 200 rpm or solidified in plates (by adding agar 1.5% w/v). To propagate a specific plasmid, the appropriate antibiotics were added to the culture medium, with a final concentration of 100 μg mL⁻¹ for ampicillin and 50 μg mL⁻¹ for kanamycin.

Glucose-tolerant wild-type (WT) strain of *Synechocystis* sp. PCC6803, obtained from D. Bhaya, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, was used in this study. All of the strains of *Synechocystis* (i.e., wild type and constructed mutants) have been grown in BG-11 medium ⁴¹ supplemented with 10 mM TES–NaOH (pH 8.0) as a buffer, at 30 °C in a shaking incubator (Innova 43, New Brunswick Scientific) at 120 rpm, under constant moderate white-light illumination (~40 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹, measured with a LI-250A light meter, LI-COR).

For *Synechocystis* mutants’ construction, the medium was supplemented with kanamycin (final concentration of 50 μg mL⁻¹) or nickel sulfate (final concentration of 20 μM). Cell growth was monitored by measuring the optical density at 730 nm wavelength (OD₇₃₀) in the spectrophotometer (Biochrom WPA, Lightwave II).

Batch Cultivation. Batch cultivation experiments were carried out in a Multi-Cultivator (MC1000-OD, PSI, Czech Republic), with emitted light intensity controlled through an LED panel, equipped with “cool-white” LEDs (PSI, CZ). BG-11 supplemented with 10 mM TES–NaOH (pH 8.0) was used as a medium to grow *Synechocystis* in the reactor. The cultures grew at 30 °C bubbled with a mixture (v/v) of 99% air and 1% CO₂ supplied at a flow rate of 150 mL min⁻¹. Precultures from shake flasks (OD₇₃₀ ~1–1.5) were used for inoculation in the Multi-Cultivator, working with a volume of ~60 mL (area exposed to the light = 0.0028 m², height of the water column = 10.32 cm) and initial OD₇₃₀ of 0.05. After inoculation, a continuous irradiation of 30 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ was applied until the cultures reached an OD₇₃₀ of 0.6, then increased to 120 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ and kept constant to the end of the experiment. Samples were collected daily and used for OD₇₃₀ determination and product quantification in the extracellular broth.

Serial Propagation Experiments. Serial propagation experiments were performed in 100 mL Erlenmeyer flasks at 30 °C in a shaking incubator (Innova 43, New Brunswick Scientific) at 120 rpm, under constant moderate white-light illumination (~40 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹, measured with a LI-250A light meter, LI-COR). Cultures have been grown in BG-11 medium ⁴¹ supplemented with 10 mM TES–NaOH (pH 8.0) as a buffer and with kanamycin (50 μg mL⁻¹) when necessary.

Precultures derived from the original stock of each strain (OD₇₃₀ ~1–1.5) were used for inoculation of the experimental batches. Every strain has been tested in triplicate. Every day, each culture at OD₇₃₀ ~1 has been diluted to OD₇₃₀ ~0.6 by keeping a constant volume of 20 mL. Samples were collected at periodic intervals before the dilution procedure and used for product quantification in the extracellular broth.

The Supporting Information provides details of plasmids and generation of *Synechocystis* mutants; quantification of extracellular fumarate, malate, and lactate; malate yield on biomass; sequencing of the *ldh* and *fumC* cassettes; and sequences of the main plasmid constructs.

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acssynbio.1c00440.

- Additional methods on the generation of plasmids and *Synechocystis* mutants; quantification of extracellular fumarate, malate, and lactate; and sequencing of the *ldh* and *fumC* cassettes;
- Tables of the primers used in this study and the mutational analysis of the *ldh* expression cassette;
- Figures of the malate yield on biomass and the identity and position of mutations found in the *fumC* cassette; and
- Detailed sequence information of the cassettes used in different plasmids to obtain the *Synechocystis* mutants used in this study (PDF)

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**Author Contributions**

B.B. and W.D. contributed equally to this work. W.D. and F.B.d.S. first conceived this study. B.B. and W.D. carried out all experiments with the assistance of J.A.J. F.B.d.S., C.P., A.R., and G.S. provided additional supervision. B.B., W.D., and F.B.d.S. wrote the first draft. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

**Notes**

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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