High-Throughput Metabolic Network Analysis and Metatranscriptomics of a

Cosmopolitan and Streamlined Freshwater Lineage

Joshua J. Hamilton[1*], Sarahi L. Garcia[2], Brittany S. Brown[1], Ben O. Oyserman[3],

Francisco Moya-Flores[3], Stefan Bertilsson[2], Rex R. Malmstrom[4], Katrina T.

Forest[1], Katherine D. McMahon[1,3]

[1] Department of Bacteriology, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI, USA; [2]

Department of Ecology and Genetics, Limnology and Science for Life Laboratory,

Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden; [3] Department of Civil and Environmental

Engineering, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI, USA; [4] United States

Department of Energy Joint Genome Institute, Walnut Creek, CA, USA

* Correspondence: Joshua J. Hamilton, jjhamilton2@wisc.edu

Abstract

An explosion in the number of available genome sequences obtained through

metagenomics and single-cell genomics has enabled a new view of the diversity of

microbial life, yet we know surprisingly little about how microbes interact with each other

or their environment. In fact, the majority of microbial species remain uncultivated, with

many insights about an organism's ecological niche arising from metabolic

reconstruction of its genome content. In this work, we demonstrate how the "seed set

framework" enables high-throughput, computational analysis of metabolic

reconstructions, while providing new insights into a microbe's metabolic capabilities,

such as nutrient sources and essential metabolites. We apply this framework to

members of the ubiquitous freshwater Actinobacterial lineage acI, confirming and

extending previous experimental and genomic observations that suggest acI bacteria

exhibit a heterotrophic lifestyle reliant on peptides and saccharides. We also present the

first metatranscriptomic study of the acI lineage. These results reveal strong expression

of transport proteins and the light-harvesting protein actinorhodopsin, suggesting the acI

are capable of photoheterotrophy.

Introduction

Microbial communities support essential ecosystem functions, ranging from

nutrient cycling in the environment to influencing human health and disease (Falkowski

et al., 2008; Blaser *et al.*, 2016). However, the majority of microbial species remain

uncultivated, which has posed a significant challenge to understanding their physiology

and metabolism. Recent advances in sequencing technology and bioinformatics have

made available reference genomes for community members from diverse environments

(Sangwan *et al.*, 2016) that can be used to infer links between an individual microbe's

genome content and its metabolic traits, a concept referred to as "reverse ecology"

(Levy and Borenstein, 2012).

Reverse ecological analyses can be performed using metabolic network

reconstructions (Feist *et al.*, 2009; Thiele and Palsson, 2010), structured summaries of

an organism's metabolic capabilities as defined by its enzymes and their associated

biochemical reactions. These reconstructions can then be analyzed using metabolic

network graphs, mathematical objects in which biochemical reactions are represented

as connections between substrates and products (Levy and Borenstein, 2012). One

such graph-based, reverse ecology approach is the *seed set framework* that computes

an organism's *seed set*, the set of compounds that the organism cannot synthesize on

its own and must exogenously acquire from its environment (Borenstein *et al.*, 2008). As

such, these compounds may represent both *auxotrophies*, essential metabolites for

which biosynthetic routes are missing, and *nutrients*, for which degradation (not

synthesis) routes are present in the genome. The seed set framework offers potential

advantages over other reconstruction-based approaches, as 1) metabolic network

graphs can be rapidly analyzed computationally, 2) a network-centric approach makes

no *a priori* assumptions about which metabolic pathways may be important for an

organism's niche, and 3) identification of seed compounds facilitates a focused analysis

by identifying those compounds that an organism must obtain from its environment.

Freshwater lakes are ideal systems in which to apply the seed set framework, as

long-term monitoring has revealed the ecology of dominant bacterial lineages (Newton

et al., 2011), and reference genomes for these lineages are now readily available

(Martinez-Garcia *et al.*, 2012; Garcia *et al.*, 2013, 2015; Ghai *et al.*, 2014; Ghylin *et al.*,

2014; Tsementzi *et al.*, 2014; Bendall *et al.*, 2016). Of the freshwater bacteria,

uncultivated Actinobacteria of the acI lineage are among the most abundant (Zwart *et*

al., 1998, 2002; Glöckner *et al.*, 2000). The acI have been phylogenetically divided into

three clades (acI-A, acI-B, and acI-C) and thirteen tribes on the basis of their 16S rRNA

gene sequences (Newton *et al.*, 2011), and the abundance of these free-living

ultramicrobacteria suggests they play a role in nutrient cycling in diverse freshwater

systems (Glöckner *et al.*, 2000; Newton *et al.*, 2006, 2007; Wu *et al.*, 2006, 2007; De

Wever *et al.*, 2008; Humbert *et al.*, 2009; Ghai *et al.*, 2012).

To identify the nutrient transformations these bacteria may mediate, the

metabolism of the acI lineage has been extensively studied in a community context

using both DNA sequencing and single-cell targeted experiments. Studies using

fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) and catalyzed reporter deposition (CARD) or

microautoradiography (MAR) reveal that the acI are capable of consuming amino acids

(Salcher *et al.*, 2010, 2013), glucose (Buck *et al.*, 2009; Salcher *et al.*, 2013), N-

acetylglucosamine (NAG) (Beier and Bertilsson, 2011; Eckert *et al.*, 2012, 2013), the

deoxynucleoside thymidine (Pérez *et al.*, 2010; Salcher *et al.*, 2013), and acetate (Buck

et al., 2009). Furthermore, metabolic reconstructions of single-cell genomes (SAGs) and

metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) have been used to propose additional

substrate uptake capabilities for members of clades acI-A and acI-B. These studies

indicate members of these clades are capable of consuming a wide array of N-

containing compounds, including ammonium, branched-chain amino acids, polyamines,

di- and oligo-peptides, and cyanophycin (Ghylin *et al.*, 2014; Garcia *et al.*, 2015).

Members of these two clades are also capable of consuming numerous mono-, poly-,

and oligo-saccharides (Garcia *et al.*, 2013, 2015, 2015; Ghylin *et al.*, 2014, 2014).

Finally, a recent study of a metagenome-assembled genome from clade acI-B predicted

that some members of the clade are unable to synthesize a number of essential

vitamins and amino acids (Garcia *et al.*, 2015).

In this work, we develop a computational pipeline to automate the calculation of

an organism's substrate utilization capabilities using the seed set framework, thereby

facilitating high-throughput analysis of genomic data. We expand existing analyses of

the acI lineage by applying the seed set framework to a reference genome collection of

36 freshwater acI genomes covering all three acI clades, including for the first time

genomes from clade acI-C. To do so, we developed a Python package to predict seed

compounds, using the seed set framework and metabolic network reconstructions

generated from KBase(Arkin *et al.*, 2016). The seed compounds predicted by our

analysis are in agreement with previous experimental and genomic observations,

confirming the ability of our method to predict an organism's auxotrophies and nutrient

sources. To validate and complement these predictions, we conducted the first

metatranscriptomic analysis of gene expression in the acl lineage. Knowledge of seed

compounds enhanced interpretation of the metatranscriptome results by facilitating a

focused analysis. Additional analysis shows that the acl express a diverse array of

transporters that we hypothesize may contribute to their observed dominance in a wide

variety of aquatic systems.

Materials and Methods

A Freshwater Reference Genome Collection

This study relies on an extensive collection of freshwater bacterial genomes,

containing MAGs obtained from two metagenomic time-series from two Wisconsin lakes

(Bendall *et al.*, 2016; Garcia *et al.*, 2016), as well as SAGs from three lakes in the

United States (Martinez-Garcia *et al.*, 2012). Additional information about this genome

collection can be found in the Supplemental Online Material.

Metatranscriptome Sampling and Sequencing

This study used four metatranscriptomes obtained as part of a 24-hour sampling

experiment designed to identify diel trends in freshwater microbial communities.

Additional information about these samples can be found in the Supplemental Online

Material, and all protocols and scripts for sample collection, RNA extraction,

sequencing,   and   bioinformatic   analysis   can   be   found   on   Github

(https://github.com/McMahonLab/OMD-TOILv2, DOI:######). Metadata about the four

samples used in this study can be found in Table S1, and the raw RNA sequences can

be found on the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) website under

BioProject PRJNA362825.

Identification of acI SAGs and Actinobacterial MAGs

Novel acI SAGs were identified and classified to the tribe level using partial 16S

rRNA genes and a reference taxonomy for freshwater bacteria, as described in the

Supplemental Online Material. Novel Actinobacterial MAGs were identified using

taxonomic assignments from a subset of conserved marker genes, as described, as

described in the Supplemental Online Material. Phylogenetic analysis of acI SAGs and

Actinobacterial MAGs was performed using a concatenated alignment of single-copy

marker genes obtained via Phylosift (Darling *et al.*, 2014). Maximum likelihood trees

were generated using RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) using the automatic protein model

assignment option (PROTGAMMAAUTO) and 100 bootstraps.

Genome Annotation, Metabolic Network Reconstruction, and Computation and

Evaluation of Seed Compounds

In the seed set framework, an organism's metabolism is represented via a

metabolic network graph, in which nodes denote compounds and edges denote

enzymatically-encoded biochemical reactions linking substrates and products (Jeong *et*

al., 2000). Allowable biochemical transformations can be identified by drawing paths

along the network, in which a sequence of edges connects a sequence of distinct

vertices. In our implementation of the seed set framework, metabolic network graphs

were generated as follows.

Genome annotations were performed and metabolic network reconstructions

were built using KBase. Contigs for each genome were uploaded to KBase and

annotated using the "Annotate Microbial Contigs" method with default options, which

uses components of the RAST toolkit (Brettin *et al.*, 2015; Overbeek *et al.*, 2014) for

genome annotation. Metabolic network reconstructions were obtained using the "Build

Metabolic Model" app with default parameters, which relies on the Model SEED

framework (Henry *et al.*, 2010) to build a draft reconstruction. Reconstructions were

then pruned and converted to metabolic network graphs (Figure S1 and Supplemental

Online Material). Many of the individual acI genomes are incomplete (see Results).

Therefore, composite metabolic network graphs were constructed for each clade, to

increase the accuracy of seed identification (Figure S2 and Supplemental Online

Material).

Formally, the seed set of the network is defined as the minimal set of compounds

that cannot be synthesized from other compounds in the network, and whose presence

enables the synthesis of all other compounds in the network (Borenstein *et al.*, 2008).

Seed compounds for each composite clade-level metabolic network graph were

calculated using a custom implementation of the seed set framework (Borenstein *et al.*,

2008) (Figure S3 and the Supplemental Online Material). Because seed compounds are

computed from a metabolic network, it is important to manually evaluate all predicted

seed compounds to identify those that may be biologically meaningful, and do not arise

from errors in the metabolic network reconstruction. Examples of this process are given

in the Supplemental Online Material.

All computational steps were implemented using custom Python scripts, freely

available as part of the reverseEcology Python package

(https://pypi.python.org/pypi/reverseEcology/, DOI:######).

Identification of Transported Compounds

For each genome, we identified all transport reactions present in its metabolic

network reconstruction. Gene-protein-reaction associations (GPRs) for these reactions

were manually curated to remove unannotated proteins, group genes into operons (if

applicable), and to identify missing subunits for multi-subunit transporters. These genes

were then mapped to their corresponding COGs, and GPRs were grouped on the basis

of their mapped COGs. Finally, the most common annotation for each COG was used to

identify likely substrates for each of these groups.

Protein Clustering, Metatranscriptomic Mapping, and Clade-Level Gene Expression

OrthoMCL (Li *et al.*, 2003) was used to identify clusters of orthologous groups

(COGs) in the set of acI genomes. Both OrthoMCL and BLAST were run using default

options (Fischer *et al.*, 2011). Annotations were assigned to protein clusters by

choosing the most common annotation among all genes assigned to that cluster. Then,

trimmed and merged metatranscriptomic reads from each of the four samples were

mapped to a single reference fasta file containing all acI genomes using BBMap

(https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/) with the ambig=random and minid=0.95

options. The 95% identity cutoff was chosen as this represents a well-established

criteria for identifying microbial species using average nucleotide identity (ANI)

(Konstantinidis and Tiedje, 2005), while competitive mapping using pooled acI genomes

as the reference ensures that reads map only to a single genome. These results were

then used to compute the expression of each COG in each clade.

Next, HTSeq-Count (Anders *et al.*, 2014) was used to count the total number of

reads that map to each gene in our acI genome collection. After mapping, the list of

counts was filtered to remove those genes that did not recruit at least one read in all

four samples. Using the COGs identified by OrthoMCL, the genes that correspond to

each COG were then identified.

Within each clade, gene expression for each COG was computed on a Reads

Per Kilobase Million (RPKM) basis (Mortazavi *et al.*, 2008), while accounting for

different sequencing depths across metatranscriptomes and gene lengths within a

COG. RPKM counts were then averaged across the four metatranscriptomes and

normalized to the median level of gene expression within that clade.

Availability of Data and Materials

All genomic and metatranscriptomic sequences are available through IMG and

NCBI, respectively. A reproducible version of this manuscript is available at

https://github.com/joshamilton/Hamilton_acI_2016 (DOI:######).

Results

Phylogenetic Affiliation of acI Genomes

From a reference collection of freshwater bacterial genomes, we identified 17

SAGs and 19 MAGs from members of the acI lineage. A phylogenetic tree of these

genomes is shown in Figure 1. Previous phylogenetic analysis using 16S rRNA gene

sequences indicates the acl lineage contains three distinct monophyletic clades

(Newton *et al.*, 2011). The phylogenetic tree built from concatenated marker genes also

shows three monophyletic branches, enabling MAGs to be classified as clade acl-A,

acl-B based on the taxonomy of SAGs within each branch. Of note, three MAGs formed

a monophyletic group separate from clades acl-A and acl-B; we assume these

genomes belong to clade acl-C as no other acl clades have been identified to date.

Estimated Completeness of Tribe- and Clade-Level Composite Genomes

Metabolic network reconstructions created from these genomes will likely be

missing reactions, as the underlying genomes are incomplete (Table 1). Previous

studies have examined the effect of genome incompleteness on the predicted seed set

(Borenstein *et al.*, 2008). Using the formal (mathematical) definition of a seed

compound, this showed that the percentage of correct seed compounds (true positives)

is approximately equal to the completeness of the reaction network, and the number of

false positives is approximately equal to the incompleteness of the network. Thus, we

constructed composite genomes at higher taxonomic levels (e.g., tribe and clade) to

increase genome completeness for more accurate seed identification at that taxonomic

level.

Using conserved single-copy marker genes (Parks *et al.*, 2015), we estimated

the completeness of tribe- and clade-level composite genomes to determine the finest

level of taxonomic resolution at which we could confidently compute seed compounds,

using genome completeness as a proxy for metabolic reaction network completeness

(Figure 2). With the exception of tribe acl-B1, tribe-level composite genomes are

estimated to be incomplete (Figure 2A). At the clade level, clades acl-A and acl-B are

estimated to be complete, while the acI-C composite genome remains incomplete, as it

only contains 75% of the marker genes (Figure 2B). As a result, seed compounds were

calculated for composite clade-level genomes, with the understanding that some true

seed compounds for the acI-C clade will not be predicted.

Making Sense of Seed Compounds via Protein Clustering and Metatranscriptomic

Mapping

In the case of seed compounds which represent nutrient sources, genes

associated with the consumption of these compounds should be expressed. However,

because seed compounds were computed from each clade's composite metabolic

network graph, genes associated with the consumption of seed compounds may be

present in multiple genomes within the clade. To facilitate the linkage of

metatranscriptome measurements to seed compounds, we decided to map

metatranscriptome samples to the "pan-genome" of each clade. To construct the pan-

genome, we used OrthoMCL (Li *et al.*, 2003) to identify clusters of orthologous groups

(COGs) in the set of acI genomes, and defined the pan-genome of a clade as the union

of all COGs present in at least one genome belonging to that clade. We then used

BBMap to map metatranscriptome reads to our reference genome collection, and

counted the unique reads which map to each Actinobacterial COG.

Sequencing of cDNA from all four metatranscriptome samples yielded

approximately 160 billion paired-end reads. After merging, filtering, and *in-silico* rRNA

removal, approximately 81 billion, or 51% of the reads remained (Table S1). OrthoMCL

identified a total of 5013 protein clusters across the three clades (Table S2). The COGs

were unequally distributed across the three clades, with clade acI-A genomes

containing 3175 COGs (63%), clade acI-B genomes containing 3459 COGs (69%), and

clade acI-C genomes containing 1365 COGs (27%). After mapping the

metatranscriptomes to our acI genomes (Table S3), we identified 650 COGs expressed

in clade acI-A, 785 in clade acI-B, and 849 in clade acI-C (Table S4). Among expressed

genes, the median log2 average RPKM value was 10.3 in clade acI-A, 10.2 in clade acI-

B, and 9.0 in clade acI-C.

Computation and Evaluation of Potential Seed Compounds

Seed compounds were computed for each clade, using the composite metabolic

network graph for that clade (Figure 3, and Figures S1 to S3). A total of 125 unique

seed compounds were identified across the three clades (Table S5). Additional details

are available in the Supplemental Online Material.

Seed compounds were predicted using the results of an automated annotation

pipeline, and as such are likely to contain inaccuracies (e.g., due to missing or incorrect

annotations). As a result, we screened the set of predicted seed compounds to identify

those that represented biologically plausible auxotrophies and nutrients, and manually

curated this subset to obtain a final set of auxotrophies and nutrient sources. The

Supplemental Online Material contains a series of brief vignettes explaining why select

compounds were retained or discarded based on their biological (im)plausibility, and

provides examples of manual curation efforts applied to biologically plausible

compounds. For a plausible auxotrophy, we screened the genomes for the canonical

biosynthetic pathway(s) for that compound, and retained those compounds for which

the biosynthetic pathway was incomplete. For a plausible nutrient source, we screened

the genomes for the canonical degradation pathway(s) for that compound, and retained

those compounds for which the degradation pathway was complete. Tables S6 and S7

contain the final set of proposed auxotrophies and nutrients, respectively, for clades acI-

A, acI-B, and acI-C.

Auxotrophies and Nutrient Sources of the acI Lineage

Seed set analysis yielded seven autotrophies that could be readily mapped to

ecophysiological attributes of the acI lineage (Figure 4a). In all three clades, beta-

alanine was identified as a seed compound, suggesting an auxotrophy for pantothenic

acid (Vitamin B5), a precursor to coenzyme A formed from beta-alanine and pantoate.

In bacteria, beta-alanine is typically synthesized via the aspartate decarboxylation, and

we were unable to identify a candidate gene for this enzyme (aspartate 1-

decarboxylase, E.C. 4.1.1.11) in any acI genome. Pyridoxine 5'-phosphate and 5'-

pyridoxamine phosphate (forms of the enzyme cofactor pyridoxal 5'-phosphate, Vitamin

B6) were also predicted to be seed compounds, and numerous enzymes in the

biosynthesis of these compounds were not found in the genomes.

Clades within the acI lineage also exhibited distinct auxotrophies. Clade acI-A

was predicted to be auxotrophic for the cofactor tetrahydrofolate (THF or Vitamin B9),

and numerous enzymes for its biosynthesis were missing. This cofactor plays an

important role in the metabolism of amino acids and vitamins. In turn, clade acI-B was

predicted to be auxotrophic for adenosylcobalamin (Vitamin B12), containing only a

single reaction from its biosynthetic pathway. Finally, acI-C was predicted to be

auxotrophic for the nucleotide uridine monophosphate (UMP, used as a monomer in

RNA synthesis) and the amino acids lysine and homoserine. In all cases multiple

enzymes for the biosynthesis of these compounds were not found in the acI-C

genomes. However, with the exception of adenosylcobalamin, we did not identify

transporters for any of these compounds. Furthermore, because the acI-C composite

genome was estimated to be around 75% complete, we cannot rule out the possibility

that the missing genes might be found in when additional genomes are recovered.

A number of seed compounds were predicted to be nutrients, compounds which

can be degraded by members of the acI lineage (Figure 4B). Both clades acI-A and acI-

B were predicted to use D-altronate and trans-4-hydroxy proline as nutrients, and acI-B

was additionally predicted to use glycine betaine. These compounds indicate that the

acI may participate in the turnover of plant- and animal-derived organic material in

freshwater systems: glycine betaine is an important osmolyte in plants (Ashraf and

Foolad, 2007), D-altronate is produced during degradation of galacturonate, a

component of plant pectin (Mohnen, 2008), and trans-4-hydroxy-L-proline is a major

component of animal collagen (Eastoe, 1955).

Finally, all three clades were predicted to use as nutrients the di-peptides

alanine-leucine and glycine-proline and the sugar maltose. Clades acI-A and acI-C were

also predicted to consume the polysaccharides stachyose, manninotriose, and

cellobiose. In all cases, these compounds were associated with reactions catalyzed by

peptidases or glycoside hydrolases (Table S8 and S9). We used these annotations to

define nutrient sources, rather than using the predicted seed compounds themselves.

Among these nutrient sources were di- and polypeptides, predicted to be released from

both cytosolic- and membrane-bound aminopeptidases. As discussed below, we

identified a number of transport proteins capable of transporting these released

residues. In Lake Mendota, these aminopeptidases were expressed in clades acI-A and

acl-B at around 70% of the median gene expression levels, while they were expressed

at up to twice the median in clade acl-C (Table S8). This finding agrees with MAR-FISH

and CARD-FISH studies that confirm the ability of acl bacteria to consume a variety of

amino acids (Salcher *et al.*, 2010, 2013).

All three clades were predicted to encode an alpha-glucosidase, which in Lake

Mendota was expressed most strongly in clade acl-C, at approximately 116% of the

median (Table S9). Clades acl-A and acl-C also encode a beta-glucosidase, though it

was not expressed. Both of these enzymes release glucose monomers, which acl is

known to consume (Buck *et al.*, 2009; Salcher *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, these two

clades encode an alpha-galactosidase and multiple maltodextrin glucosidases (which

frees maltose from maltotriose), both of which were only expressed in clade acl-C over

our sampling period. The alpha-galactosidase had a log2 average RPKM expression

value of 2.5 times the median, while the maltodextrin glucosidases were expressed at

approximately 20% of the median (Table S9).

Compounds Transported by the acl Lineage

Microbes may be capable of transporting compounds that are not strictly required

for growth, and comparing such compounds to predicted seed compounds can provide

additional information about an organism's ecology. Thus, we used the metabolic

network reconstructions for the acl genomes to systematically characterize the transport

capabilities of the acl lineage.

All acl clades encode for and expressed a diverse array of transporters (Figure 5,

Tables S10 and S11, and the Supplemental Online Material). Consistent with the

presence of intra- and extra-cellular peptidases, all clades contain numerous genes for

the transport of peptides and amino acids, including multiple oligopeptide and branched-

chain amino acid transporters, as well as two distinct transporters for the polyamines

spermidine and putrescine. All clades also contain a transporter for ammonium. As

averaged over the 24-hour sampling period, the ammonium, branched-chain amino

acid, and oligopeptide transporters had expression values above the median, with

expression values for the substrate-binding protein ranging from 2 to 325 times the

median (Table S10). In contrast, while all clades expressed some genes from the

polyamine transporters, only clade acI-B expressed the spermidime/putrescine binding

protein, at approximately 75 times the median (Table S10). Additionally, clade acI-A

contains a third distinct branched-chain amino acid transporter, composed of COGs not

found in clades acI-B or acI-C. This transporter was not as highly expressed as the

shared transporters, with the substrate-binding protein not expressed at all (Table S10).

Finally, clades acI-A and acI-B also contain a transporter for glycine betaine, which was

only expressed in clade acI-A, approximately 35 times the median (Table S10).

However, because these observations were made at a single site at a single point in

time, we cannot rule out the possibility that the expression of these transporters

changes with space and time.

All clades also strongly expressed transporters consistent with the presence of

glycoside hydrolases, including transporters for the sugars maltose (a dimer of glucose)

and xylose, with expression values for the substrate-binding protein ranging from 3 to

144 times the median (Table S10). Clades acI-A and acI-B also contain four distinct

transporters for ribose, although the substrate-binding subunit was not expressed at the

time of sampling (Table S10).

The acI lineage also encodes for and expressed a number of transporters that do

not have corresponding seed compounds, including a uracil permease, and a

xanthine/uracil/thiamine/ascorbate family permease, both of which are expressed at

levels ranging from 11 to 127 times the median (Table S10) during the sampling period.

Clades acI-A and acI-B also contain a a cytosine/purine/uracil/thiamine/allantoin family

permease, though it was only expressed in clade acI-B at the time of sampling (Table

S10). In addition, clade acI-A contains but did not express a transporter for cobalamin

(Vitamin B12), and both clades acI-A and acI-B contain but did not express transporters

for thiamin (Vitamin B1) and biotin (Vitamin B7) (Table S10). Despite predicted

auxotrophies for Vitamins B5 and B6, we were unable to find transporters for these two

compounds. However, as annotation of transport proteins is an active area of research

(Saier *et al.*, 2014), transporters for these vitamins may yet be present in the genomes.

Finally, all three clades expressed actinorhodopsin, a light-sensitive opsin protein

that functions as an outward proton pump (Sharma *et al.*, 2008). In all clades,

actinorhodopsin was among the top seven most highly-expressed genes at the time of

sampling (Table S4), with expression values in excess of 300 times the median in all

three clades (Table S4). Given that many of the transport proteins are ATP-binding

cassette (ABC) transporters, we speculate that actinorhodopsin may facilitate

maintenance of the proton gradient necessary for ATP synthesis. Coupled with high

expression levels of diverse transporters, this result suggests that acI functioned as

photoheterotrophs during our sampling period. However, it remains to be seen if this

behavior is a general feature of acI ecology or restricted to the specific conditions of our

sampling period.

Discussion

This study introduces the use of high-throughput metabolic network

reconstruction and the seed set framework to predict auxotrophies and nutrient sources

of uncultivated microorganisms from incomplete genome sequences. By leveraging

multiple genomes from related populations, we were able to construct composite

genomes for higher taxonomic levels. Obviously this masks differences among

populations and individual cells, and may sometimes overestimate the shared gene

content of a clade or group. However, it provides a framework that can be used to

generate new hypotheses about the substrates used by members of a defined

phylogenetic group, even when only draft genomes are available. As metagenomic

assembly and binning techniques and single cell based methods improve and complete

genomes become available, we anticipate our approach being applied to individual

microbial genomes.

Our predictions of substrate use capabilities of the acI lineage are largely

congruent with previous genome-based studies based on smaller but manually curated

genome collections, indicating that the use of automatic metabolic network

reconstructions yields similar predictions to manual metabolic reconstruction efforts. In

particular, this study predicts that the consumption of N-rich compounds is a universal

feature of the acI lineage, with all three clades predicted to consume ammonium,

branched-chain amino acids, the polyamines spermidine and putrescine, and di- and

oligopeptides. We provide new evidence for further specialization within each clade,

identifying unique substate binding proteins for some of their amino acid and peptide

transporters (see Supplemental Online Material). Furthermore, we confirm the ability of

all three clades to consume xylose and maltose, and of clades acI-A and acI-B to

consume ribose. Our analysis also made novel predictions, including the presence of

beta-glucosidases, as well as alpha- and beta-galactosidases, in clades acI-A and acI-

C.

Our analysis also suggests that auxotrophies for some vitamins may be universal

features of the lineage, as we predict all clades to be auxotrophic for pantothenic acid

and pyridoxal 5'-phosphate (Vitamins B5 and B6). We also predict new auxotrophies

within the acI lineage, including THF (clade acI-A), and lysine, homoserine, and UMP

(clade acI-C). These results provide additional support to the hypothesis that distributed

metabolic pathways and metabolic complementarity may be common features of

freshwater bacterial communities (Garcia *et al.*, 2015; Garcia, 2016).

In the aggregate, these results indicate that acI are photoheterotrophs, making a

living on a diverse array of N-rich compounds, sugars, and oligo- and poly-saccharides.

We hypothesize that the acI obtain these peptides from the products of cell lysis, and

participate in the turnover of high molecular weight dissolved organic compounds, such

as starch, glycogen, and cellulose. The acI lineage does not appear to be metabolically

self-sufficient, relying on other organisms for the production of essential nutrients.

This study also presents the first combined genomic and metatranscriptomic

analysis of a freshwater microbial lineage. Transport proteins were among the most

highly expressed in the acI genomes, and the expression of multiple amino acid

transporters may facilitate uptake of these labile compounds. We also observed

differences in the relative expression of these transporters, which may point to

differences in acI's affinity for these substrates. The actinorhodopsin protein was highly

expressed, and may facilitate synthesis of the ATP needed to drive acI's many ABC-

type transporters.

A close comparison of our predictions to previous studies of the acI lineage

reveals some important limitations of the seed set framework and automatic metabolic

reconstructions. First, the seed set framework only identifies compounds that the

metabolic network **must** obtain from its environment, and will fail to identify compounds

that the organism can acquire from its environment but can also synthesize. For

example, members of clades acI-A and acI-B are capable of consuming branched-chain

amino acids (Ghylin *et al.*, 2014; Garcia *et al.*, 2015), but can also synthesize them.

Thus, these compounds were not identified as seed compounds. However, transport

reactions for branched-chain amino acids were identified.

Second, automatic metabolic network reconstructions may not fully capture an

organism's metabolic network (e.g., due to missing or incorrect genome annotations).

For example, previous genome-based studies have suggested acI harbor

cyanophycinase and chitinase, enzymes that allow them to breakdown the

cyanobacterial peptide cyanophycin and NAG, respectively (Garcia *et al.*, 2013).

Manual inspection revealed that KBase annotated these putative enzymes as

hypothetical proteins, and we could not identify transporters for these compounds in the

metabolic network reconstruction. As genome and protein annotation are active areas of

research, we anticipate that advances in these areas will continue to improve the

accuracy of automatic metabolic network reconstructions.

Conclusions

In this study, we examined the ecological niche of uncultivated acI bacteria using automatic metabolic network reconstructions and the seed set framework. Predicted seed compounds include peptides and saccharides, many of which acI have been observed to consume *in situ*, as well as newly predicted auxotrophies for vitamins and amino acids. Many predictions were corroborated by a metatranscriptome analysis in a lake with abundant acI members. Our high-throughput approach easily scales to 100s and 1000s of genomes, and enables a focused metabolic analysis by identifying those compounds through which an organism interacts with its environment. Finally, the seed set framework enables additional reverse ecological analyses, which promise to predict the interactions between microbial species in complex environments (Levy and Borenstein, 2012).

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1

Phylogenetic placement of the genomes used in this study within the acI lineage.

The tree was built using RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) from a concatenated alignment of

protein sequences from 37 single-copy marker genes (Darling *et al.*, 2014). The order

Actinomycetales forms the outgroup. Vertical black bars indicate groups of genomes

belonging to defined clades/tribe within the acI lineage, as determined using 16S rRNA

gene sequences (for SAGs and bin FNEF8-2 bin_7 acI-B only) and a defined taxonomy

(Newton *et al.*, 2011). SAGs are indicated with italic text. Supplemental Figure S5

shows the position of the acI lineage relative to other orders within the class

Actinobacteria.

Figure 2

Mean estimated completeness of tribe-level (clade-level) population genomes as

a function of the number of sampled genomes. For each tribe (clade), genomes were

randomly sampled (with replacement) from the set of all genomes belonging to that tribe

(clade). Completeness was estimated using 204 single-copy marker genes from the

phylum Actinobacteria (Parks *et al.*, 2015). Error bars represent the 95% confidence

interval estimated from 1000 iterations.

Figure 3

663   Overview of the seed set framework and metatranscriptomic mapping, using

three genomes from the acI-C clade as an example. **(A)** Microbial contigs are annotated

using KBase, and a metabolic network reconstruction is built from the annotations. For

each genome, the metabolic network reconstruction is converted to a metabolic network

graph using custom Python scripts. In these graphs, metabolites are represented as

nodes (circles) and reactions by arcs. Grey nodes and edges indicate components of

the composite graph missing from that genome graph. Additional information on this

step of the workflow is available in Figure S1. **(B)** A composite network graph is created

for each clade by joining graphs for all genomes from that clade, and seed compounds

are computed for the composite graph. Seed compounds are shown in red. Additional

information on this step of the workflow is available in Figures S2, S3, and S4. **(Inset)**

Three seed compounds which indicate an auxotrophy for L-homoserine, a methionine

precursor. **(C)** Metatranscriptomic reads are mapped to each individual genome using

BBMap. Orthologous gene clusters are identified using OrthoMCL (Li *et al.*, 2003). For

each cluster, unique reads which map to any gene within that cluster are counted using

HTSeq (Anders *et al.*, 2014) the relative gene expression is computed using RPKM

(Mortazavi *et al.*, 2008).

Figure 4

Seed compounds of members of the acI lineage. **(A)** Auxotrophies and nutrient

sources, not including peptides and glycosides. **(B)** Peptides and glycosides. These

compounds represent those inferred from genome annotations, rather than the seed

compounds themselves. In panel (B), the intensity of the color indicates the percentile

average log2 RPKM of the encoding gene cluster. For compounds acted upon by

multiple gene clusters, the percentile of the most highly-expressed cluster was chosen.

Figure 5

Transporters that are actively expressed by members of the acI lineage, as

inferred from consensus annotations of genes associated with transport reactions

present in metabolic network reconstructions. The intensity of the color indicates the

average log2 RPKM of the encoding gene cluster. For multi-subunit transporters, the

RPKM of the substrate-binding subunit was chosen.

Supplementary Figure 1

Converting an unannotated genome to a metabolic network graph, for a

simplified genome containing only glycolysis. **(A)** Microbial contigs are annotated using

KBase, and a metabolic network reconstruction is built from the annotations. The

reconstruction provides links between protein-encoding genes in the genome and the

enzymatic reactions catalyzed by those proteins. **(B)** The metabolic network

reconstruction represents metabolism as a hypergraph, in which metabolites are

represented as nodes and reactions as hyperedges. In this representation, an edge can

connect more than two nodes. For example, a single hyperedge (denoted by a heavy

black line) connects the metabolites glucose and ATP to glucose-6P, ADP, and Pi. For

clarity, protons are not shown. **(C)** However, the algorithm used by the seed set

framework requires metabolism to be represented as a metabolic network graph, in

which an edge can connect only two nodes. In this representation, a reaction is

represented by a set of edges connecting all substrates to all products. For example,

the heavy hyperedge in (B) is now denoted by six separate edges connecting glucose to

ADP, glucose to Pi, glucose to glucose-6P, ATP to ADP, ATP to Pi, and ATP to

glucose-6P (again denoted by heavy black lines). Of these, only one (glucose to

glucose-6P) is biologically meaningful. The dotted line surrounds the currency

metabolites. **(D)** The metabolic network graph is then pruned, a process which removes

all currency metabolites and any edges in which those metabolites participate. Of the

six heavy edges in (C), only the biologically meaningful one is retained, connecting

glucose to glucose-6P (again denoted by a heavy black line). The images in (B) and (C)

are modified from (Ma and Zeng, 2003). Note: The visual representations shown here

are intended to illustrate the metabolic network reconstruction process, and are not

indicative of the data structures used by our pipeline.

Supplementary Figure 2

Construction of composite metabolic network graph for clade acI-C. Beginning

with metabolic network graphs for genomes Actinobacterium_10 and ME00885, nodes

and edges unique to ME00885 are identified (in red). These nodes and edges are

added to the Actinobacterium_10 graph, giving the composite metabolic network graph

for these two genomes (Actinobacterium_10 + ME00885). Then, this graph is compared

to the graph for ME03864, and nodes and edges unique to ME03864 are identified (in

red). These nodes and edges are added to the Actinobacterium_10 + ME00885

metabolic network graph, giving the composite metabolic network graph for clade acI-C.

Note: The visual representations shown here are intended to illustrate the metabolic

network reconstruction process, and are not indicative of the data structures used by

our pipeline.

Supplementary Figure 3

Identifying seed compounds in metabolic networks, using the same metabolic

network as in Supplemental Figure S1. **(A)** To identify seed compounds, the metabolic

network graph is first decomposed into its strongly connected components (SCCs), sets

of nodes such that each node in the set is reachable from every other node. Here, each

set of circled nodes corresponds to a unique SCC. **(B)** SCC decomposition enables

seed sets to be identified from source components (components with no incoming

edges) on the condensation of the original graph. In the condensation of the original

graph shown here, each node corresponds to a unique SCC. This network has a single

seed set, SCC_1, enclosed in a dotted circle. **(C)** Seed compounds can be found from

the mapping between SCCs and their constituent metabolites. In this example, glucose

is the sole seed compound. While this particular result is probably intuitive, real

metabolic networks are considerably more complex. Note: The visual representations

shown here are intended to illustrate the metabolic network reconstruction process, and

are not indicative of the data structures used by our pipeline.

Supplementary Figure 4

Complete composite metabolic network graph for clade acI-C, showing

disconnected components and the giant strongly connected components. Gray nodes

and edges represent disconnected components which are dropped prior to computing

the network's seed sets. Red nodes represent those present in the giant strongly

connected component which contains the majority of the metabolites in the network.

Supplementary Figure 5

Phylogenetic placement of the genomes used in this study within the acI lineage,

relative to other sequenced actinobacterial genomes in the class Actinobacteria (Gao

and Gupta, 2012) (Table S17). The tree was built using RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) from

a concatenated alignment of protein sequences from 37 single-copy marker genes

(Darling *et al.*, 2014). The class Acidimicrobiia forms the outgroup. Vertical black bars

indicate groups of genomes belonging to defined clades/tribe within the acI lineage, as

determined using 16S rRNA gene sequences (for SAGs and bin FNEF8-2 bin_7 acI-B

only) and a defined taxonomy (Newton *et al.*, 2011). SAGs are indicated with italic text.

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A) Actinobacterium_10   ME00885   ME03864

B) acl-C

Homocysteine

L-methionine   O-Acetyl-L-homoserine

L-homoserine

O-Phospho-L-homoserine   L-Aspartate 4-semialdehyde

C)
BIN_10 (inner ring)
ME00885
ME03864 (outer ring)
Log2 Average RPKM

A)

pantothenic acid

pyridoxal 5'-phosphate

tetrahydrofolate

adenosyl cobinamide

uridine monophosphate

lysine

homoserine

D-altronate

trans-hydroxy proline

glycine betaine

B)

di-peptides

oligo-peptides

α-D-glucosides (e.g., starch, glycogen)

Log2 Avg RPKM

β-D-glucosides (e.g., cellulose)

α-D-galactosides

pullalan / maltotriose

Auxotrophies

Nutrients

Glycosides

Peptides

acl-A
acl-B
acl-C

A)

>TE02754.contig.1
TCACCAAGTGAATAC
CAGCAGCACGGGCG
AGCTGAGTGATGCGA
ACGATGGACTCTTCTA
CTTCGCGAGCCGCAA
CCATCATTAGATCTGC
TAATTCATCGATGATC
ACAAGTAGGTAGGGA
TATGGTTCGAGAATTC
GCTCGCTGCCTT...

Reaction	Genes	Equation
rxn00216	TE02754.1703	glucose + ATP -> gluose-6-P + ADP + Pi
rxn00558	TE02754.1688	glucose-6-P <--> fructose-6-P
rxn00545	TE02754.2419	fructose-6-P + ATP --> fructose-1,6-P + ADP
rxn00786	TE02754.1795 OR TE02754.2367	fructose-1,6-P <--> glyceraldehyde-3-P +glycerone-P
rxn00747	TE02754.1685	glycerone-P <--> glyceraldehyde-3-P
rxn00781	TE02754.1683	glyceraldehyde-3-P + NAD + Pi <--> 1,3-P-glycerate + NADH
rxn01100	TE02754.1684	1,3-P-glycerate + ADP + Pi <--> 3-P-glycerate + ATP
rxn01106	TE02754.1899	3-P-glycerate <--> 2-P-glycerate
rxn00459	TE02754.1568 OR TE02754.1842	2-P-glycerate <--> phosphoenolpyruvate + H2O
rxn00148	TE02754.1665	phosphoenolpyruvate + ADP --> pyruvate + ATP

Actinobacterium_10

ME00885

ME03864

Actinobacterium_10 + ME00885

Actinobacterium_10 + ME00885 + ME03864
acI-C composite network graph

Acidimicrobium ferrooxidans — Acidimicrobiia

Acidothermales

Corynebacteriales

Streptomycetales

Bifidobacteriales

Actinomycetales

Micrococcales I

Micrococcales II

3 | acI-C

ME01363

ME02297

2 | acI-A1

4 | acI-A7 | acI-A

2 | acI-A6

2 | acI-A5

TE03475

TH02152

TH03463

TE03207

1 | acI-B2

TE02754

TH00680

TH03838 | acI-B

TE02057

TE04208

2 | acI-B4

9 | acI-B1

0.48

▶ # genomes

● >90% support

○ >70% support