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The cycad coralloid root contains a diverse endophytic bacterial community with

novel biosynthetic gene clusters unique to its microbiome

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[1] Evolution of Metabolic Diversity and [2] Ecological and Evolutionary Genomics

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Abstract

Cycads are the only gymnosperms and ancient seed plants that have evolved a specialized coralloid root to host endophytic bacteria. There are no studies exploring the taxonomic, phylogenetic and functional diversity of the bacterial endophyte microbiome of this 300 million-year old symbiosis. We provide a genomic characterization of the cycad coralloid root microbiome of the Mexican cycad *Dioon merolae* collected from their natural environment. We employed a co-culture-based metagenomics experimental strategy jointly with phylogenomic analyses to reveal both predominant and rare bacteria, to capture biological diversity, and also the presence of biosynthetic gene clusters associated with specialized metabolites. Most taxa were identified as diazotroph plant endophytes that include undescribed taxa and at least 27 genera belonging to 17 bacterial families in addition to Cyanobacteria. Three cyanobacteria genomes obtained from our samples formed a monophyletic group, suggesting a level of specialization characteristic of co-evolved symbiotic relationships. This contrasted with our finding of their large genome sizes and their broad biosynthetic potential, distinctive of facultative endosymbionts of complex alternative lifestyles. Nine out of 23 novel biosynthetic gene clusters identified after detailed genome mining are specific to these coralloid root endophytes, including a NRPS system predicted to direct the synthesis of nostoginins, protease inhibitors whose biosynthetic pathway remains to be discovered. Combined, our results show that the highly diverse taxonomic composition of the coralloid root and

its biosynthetic repertoire, correlate more with a degree of specificity to the cycad plant

host than to other closely related plant endosymbionts or to the environment. We

support the growing notion that plant-bacteria relations occur under heavy influence of

chemical and genomic interactions, and we add to the understanding of the evolution of

cycad-bacteria microbiome, with a bearing on bioprospecting of natural products for

drug discovery and other applications.

Background

Cycads (Cycadales) are the only early seed plants and the only gymnosperms that

develop coralloid roots, a specialized root dichotomous and coral-like in appearance

typically growing above ground, which acquires and maintains bacteria [1] (**Fig. 1**). The

coralloid root is present in all cycad lineages, likely due to its adaptive value as a

significant source of fixed nitrogen for the plant [2]. In natural habitats coralloid roots

appear in the most vulnerable early life stages [3], or as adults in habitats with poor or

inaccessible nutrients [4] such as sand dunes, sclerophyll forests, steep rock outcrops

with high exposure to salt, and lowland forests with recurrent fires. The cycad coralloid

root is probably a key trait that enabled cycads to thrive and adapt to novel

environments for millions of years.

Coralloid root endophytes have been studied since the 19th century ([5] and

references therein). However, most studies have focused on resolving the biology or

taxonomy of the Cyanobacteria, and most samples have been collected from botanic

garden collections or grown in greenhouses, typically outside of the cycad host natural

range [6-12]. Anatomical studies have shown the presence of mucilaginous or protein-

rich material that hosts other unidentified bacterial groups [5, 13, 14], with only a few

specific bacterial taxa suggested [15-19]. Studies testing for the specificity of

cyanobacteria and the cycad host have been conducted in plants collected outside of

their native distribution, with contrasting results regarding the specialization of coralloid

root symbionts [5, 15, 20]. Moreover, the handful of field-based studies from wild

cycad populations, focused only on cyanobacteria identified with molecular markers

[11, 21], and show that diversity ranges from a single cyanobacteria strain inside an

individual root, to diverse species complexes among roots, and within and among

various cycad genera. Studies on the origin and transmission of bacterial endophytes are

also inconclusive [12], thus the degree of cycad-bacteria co-evolution in this symbiotic

system remains a mystery.

In addition to nitrogen fixation there have been suggestions of additional

-unknown- roles for the coralloid root, but there is no clear evidence of its broader

function to date [5]. Likewise, various chemical, physical and physiological

mechanisms appear to regulate the cycad-bacteria interaction [22, 23], but no genes

involved in novel specialized metabolite production in the light of the symbiosis have

been identified. In all, the taxonomic composition and the function of the cycad

coralloid root microbiome, defined as the bacteria living inside this specialized organ

plus their genes and products, remains undescribed almost entirely. What is more, the

evolutionary history of the microbiome within a *ca.*300 million-year-old symbiotic

plant-bacteria relationship is still incipiently explored.

Our goal in this study is to investigate the microbiome of the coralloid roots of

Dioon merolae [24]. *Dioon merolae* is a long-lived, entomophilous, dioecious, and

arborescent cycad native to Mexico [25]. We collected coralloid root samples from wild

populations in two different habitats from its natural range, currently distributed in

moderate population sizes of a few hundreds of individuals throughout Chiapas and

Oaxaca in the south of Mexico [25]. The availability of whole-genome and

metagenomic sequencing enabled us to provide insights on the diversity and

phylogenetic distribution of its endophytes and their cycad-related specialized

functions.

The presence of uniquely specialized metabolites in the cycad coralloid root

microbiome was of particular interest to us because they may be a result of co-evolution

between the cycad host and the endophyte bacterial community. Bacteria have dynamic

genomic diversity and the capacity to synthesize specialized metabolites with

overwhelming chemical diversity that are produced to cope with biotic and abiotic

pressures [26]. Bacteria codify specialized metabolites in rapidly evolving genetic units

called biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) of about 25-40 Kbp. The ability to capture and

retain bacteria in the coralloid root could provide a mechanism for cycads to adapt

quickly to local conditions by increasing their specialized metabolite repertoire, in a

known host and environment. From a more anthropocentric view, conserved BGCs of

the coralloid root bacterial endophytes may also be of interest as a source of novel

natural products for drug discovery.

To overcome technical difficulties in characterizing the breadth of microbial

diversity in environmental samples, we used an enrichment co-culture strategy of sub-

communities obtained from the original sample [27]. We employed complementing

microbiological, genomic and metagenomic sequencing, and phylogenomic approaches

to characterize the coralloid microbiome's taxonomic diversity and gain insights into its

function. Our study is the first to characterize the taxonomy and function of the

coralloid root beyond cyanobacteria, providing a glimpse into the evolutionary history

of the cycad-bacteria coralloid root system.

Methods

Overall strategy. We used a combined co-culture, metagenomics and phylogenomic

strategy to detect and measure taxonomic diversity, phylogenetic relationships and

biosynthetic potential in the endophytes of the cycad coralloid root, as previously

described under the term of EcoMining [27] (**Fig. 1**). In this approach, we grew and

isolated bacteria from environmental samples using a diverse set of media that aim to

capture all possible cultivable bacterial diversity (*t0*). Simultaneously, we enriched the

same samples in co-cultures grown under specific conditions for cyanobacteria using

BG11 media. In addition to this autotrophic bacterial group, this approach captures

other bacterial groups that have interactions with cyanobacteria, present in the original

sample at low titers. We allowed the co-culture to grow over time and sampled it after

one month (*t1*) and at the end of a year (*t2*) to capture organisms that depend on other

bacteria of the community to grow. We isolated axenic bacteria (*t0* and *t1*) and sub-

communities in co-cultures (*t1* and *t2*), and reconstructed phylogenetic relationships and

assessed taxonomic diversity, using 16S rRNA and metagenomic OTUs (mOTUs) data,

respectively. Furthermore, genomes of isolated endophytes were obtained and

thoroughly mined together with metagenomes for BGCs potentially directing the

synthesis of specialized metabolites.

Field collections. We sampled coralloid roots from two wild cycad populations

previously reported [25]. In March of 2014 we sampled from two sites in deciduous

tropical forests, at Jiquipilas, Mexico (JP or dry; Lat 16° 37' 26.87''N, Long 93° 34'

34.64" O) at 560m above mean sea level, with an average annual precipitation of 320

mm and average annual temperature of 18 °C; and Raymundo Flores Mexico (RF or

humid; Lat 16° 3' 26.75''N, Long 93° 35' 55.26" O) at 900m above mean sea level,

with 2500 mm and 25°C annual average precipitation and temperature, respectively. In

some cycad plants, coralloid roots were easily visible aboveground, while in others we

dug to about 30 cm around the main root until coralloid roots were found. In a

population of approximately 40 individuals, we generally found 10-12 coralloid roots,

in almost exclusively juvenile plants. A total of 10 coralloid apogeotropic roots were cut

from 10 plants, cleaned with sterile distilled water to remove soil excess, placed in 15

ml sterile Falcon tubes (Beckton Dickinson), and transported immediately to the

laboratory at room temperature.

Coralloid root processing. We focused our effort on three samples of three individuals

with the largest coralloid roots, in each of the two sites, Jiquipilas (JP or dry) and

Raymundo Flores (RF or humid) for a total of six coralloid root samples (JP1, JP2, JP6

and RF1, RF3 and RF9), and stored the remaining samples at -80 °C for subsequent

studies. When DNA samples from these individuals were pooled for sequencing

purposes they are referred to as JPPOOL or RFPOOL, respectively. We treated the

coralloid root in a laminar flow hood (Nuaire Model Nu-126-400) with a series of

washes to remove exogenous bacteria from the rhizosphere or other contamination

sources. Each root was introduced in 50 ml sterile Falcon tubes containing 10 ml of

each of the following solutions, and gently stirred for: three minutes in hydrogen

peroxide (H_2O_2), seven minutes in 70% ethanol, 30 seconds in sterile dd-MilliQ water,

four minutes in 6% sodium hypochlorite (NaClO), and three one-minute washes in

sterile dd-MilliQ water. After this procedure, we plated out water from the last wash in

Petri dishes containing the five media described below. Lack of growth in the last wash

was considered a negative control, and only samples complying with this criterion were

used for endophyte isolation. We undertook two approaches to bacterial isolation (Fig.

1): sampling without enrichment directly from field samples (*t0*), and sampling from the

enriched co-cultures (*t1*), as described in the following sections.

Bacterial isolation. To isolate bacteria from field samples before (*t0*) and after (*t1*)

enrichment, macerated roots or co-culture broth were used as inoculant, respectively.

Loss of some bacterial groups that were present in the sample collected from the

environment (*t0*) is expected. However, after enrichment (*t1*) we recover bacteria that

were initially present in low abundances and required time to grow, and that did so as a

response to the community nutritional interactions (e.g. amino acids derived from the

process of fixing nitrogen) [27]. Roots were macerated in 10 ml of sterile water using a

pestle and mortar until plant material was completely disintegrated. We used 100 μl

from the root macerate to directly isolate bacteria in Petri dishes containing six different

media, chosen to selectively (oligotrophic, four media) or non-selectively (eutrophic,

two media) recover bacterial diversity as much as possible. The four selective media

used were chosen to target bacterial groups that are known to be either plant endophytes

or rhizosphere bacteria, and included: 1) *Caulobacter* medium (glucose: 1 g/L; peptone:

1g/L; yeast extract: 1.5 g/L; trace metals solution: 1 mL/L; and 10 g/L of agar for solid

medium) [28]; 2) *Rhizobium* medium (mannitol: 10 g/L; dipotassium phosphate: 0.5

g/L; magnesium sulfate: 0.2 g/L; yeast extract: 1 g/L; sodium chloride: 0.1 g/L; final pH

6.8; and 20 g/L for solid medium [29, 30]; 3) ISP4, for isolation of actinomycetes

(starch: 10.0 g/L; dipotassium phosphate: 1 g/L; magnesium sulfate: 1 g/L; sodium

chloride: 1 g/L; ammonium sulfate: 2 g/L; calcium carbonate: 2 g/L; ferrous sulfate: 1

mg/L; magnesium chloride: 1 mg/L; zinc sulfate: 1 mg/L; final pH 7.0; and 20 g/L for

solid media) [31]; 4) BG-11, a cyanobacteria medium (sodium nitrate: 1.5 g/L;

dipotassium phosphate: 0.04 g/L; magnesium sulfate: 0.075 g/L; calcium chloride:

0.036 g/L; citric acid: 0.006 g/L; ferric ammonium citrate: 0.006 g/L; EDTA (disodium

salt): 0.001 g/L; sodium carbonate: 0.02 g/L; final pH 7.1 and agar solid media 10.0

gr/L [32]. The non-selective, rich media, included: 5) Nutrient Broth (BD Bioxon,

Mexico); and 6) As in *Caulobacter* medium, but supplemented with mannitol

(*Caulobacter* + mannitol medium): 1g/L, with aim of providing a carbon source closer

to that hypothetically encountered inside the cycad root.

Bacterial sub-communities cultivation. We took 100 μl of the macerated roots that

passed the negative growth controls after the final washing step (i.e. samples JP1, JP2,

JP6 and RF1, RF3 and RF9, which also lead to JPPOOL and RFPOOL samples as

described next), and inoculated 100 ml of media in 250 ml flasks. The remaining

macerated roots not used for fresh cultures were kept as frozen stocks for future studies

(-80 °C in 10% glycerol), although community viability after freezing is expected to

diminish over time. We used one non-selective eutrophic medium, i.e. enriched

Caulobacter + mannitol medium (medium No. 6), which we expected to favor growth

of the majority of the generalist taxa in the root bacterial community; and one selective

oligotrophic medium, i.e. BG11 (medium No. 4). This medium lacks a carbon source

but contains a limited amount of inorganic nitrogen. BG11 cyanobacteria-centric co-

cultures were grown for up to one year with constant stirring, with cycles of 16/8 hours

of light/darkness per day. Eutrophic cultures were sampled after 72 hours, and their

DNA extracts pooled (JPPOOL and RFPOOL), whereas sampling of the oligotrophic

co-cultures was done after 1 month (*t1*) and 1 year (*t2*), and treated independently.

Moreover, bacterial isolates were only obtained for the former, whereas for both time

points shotgun metagenomics were obtained, allowing for genome mining of

specialized metabolites.

Genomics and shotgun metagenomics. To sequence metagenomes from enriched sub-

community co-cultures, we collected their biomass by centrifugation (6000 RPM during

15 minutes) and used for DNA extraction using a CTAB-phenol chloroform standard

protocol. Isolate 106C, obtained from sample JP6, and isolate T09, obtained from

coralloid roots of *Dioon caputoi* from an unrelated environment (Xeric shrubland,

Tehuacan valley, Mexico), were both grown on BG11 plates. Genomic DNA from these

cultures was obtained with exactly the same CTAB-phenol chloroform protocol.

Genomic and metagenomic DNA samples were processed with truseq nano kit Q28 and

were sequenced at Langebio, Cinvestav (Irapuato, Mexico) using the MiSeq Illumina

platform in the 2X250 Paired end reads format (T09) and the NextSeq mid output

2X150 paired end read format (106C y RF3-1yr). The reads for each library were

filtered with fastQ and trimmed using Trimommatic version 0.32 [33], and assembled

using Velvet 1.2.10 [34] with different *k*-mers: the assemblies with the largest length

and the smaller number of contigs were selected and annotated using RAST [35]. The

assembly of "*Nostoc* sp. 1031Ymg" was obtained from metagenomic reads of co-

culture RF3- t2. These reads were filtered by mapping them against the assembly of

Nostoc sp. 106C with BWA [36]. The resulting reads were assembled with Velvet using

different *k*-mers: the assemblies with the largest length and the smaller number of

contigs were selected and annotated using RAST [35]. JPPOOL and RFPOOL

metagenomes from eutrophic conditions were obtained after pooling DNA samples

from JP and RF, respectively, and treated as individual samples.

Taxonomic diversity. We first estimated taxonomic diversity using the 16S rRNA gene

as a marker for our entire bacterial endophyte collection. PCR products of 1.4 Kbp in

length, obtained using the F27 and R1492 primers [37], were obtained and sequenced

using the Sanger method (ABI 3730xl). The taxonomic identification was made using

Blastn with an initial cut-off e-value of 1e-5 against the SILVA database [38]. We used

the phylogenetic position of the top 10 hits from each search without duplicated

matches, to determine both taxonomic diversity and phylogenetic relationships.

To measure the taxonomic composition of the sub-community co-cultures from

metagenomes, we contrasted different methods of OTU identification and abundance

that we presumed would be able to capture the breadth of taxa in our samples. We were

particularly concerned with capturing cyanobacteria diversity. First, we used mOTUS, a

method based on single-copy marker genes obtained from metagenomes and reference

genomes [39]. We trimmed and filtered the Illumina reads and kept those with a

minimum cutoff identity of 93%, and all other parameters as default. Taxa abundance

from mOTUs, defined as the percentage of the genera present in each sample, was

calculated with the Vegan v2.3-5 package in R [40]. We estimated the efficiency of our

sequencing effort with respect to the total possible taxa per metagenome using the

rarefaction method based on [41]. To do this we calculated the proportional number of

sequences for each metagenome, in which the richness of mOTUs is sub-sampled

randomly from the entire community.

Second, we used Kraken, a taxonomic analyzer to assign taxonomic labels to

metagenomic DNA sequences based on exact alignment of k-mers [42]. Kraken is a

taxonomic analyzer based on assigned taxonomy to short DNA reads, using a reference

data base to identify alignments and the lowest common ancestor [42]. We implemented

Kraken using the pipeline available at http://ccb.jhu.edu/software/kraken/ in our cluster

Mazorka with five nodes each with 2 Intel Xeon E5-2650 @ 2.30GHz CPUs

("Haswell", 10 cores/socket, 20 cores/node) and 768 GB of RAM memory. We used

Kraken-build to make a standard Kraken database using NCBI taxonomic information

for all bacteria, as well as the bacterial, archaeal and viral complete genomes in RefSeq

(October 2016). This database contains a mapping of every k-mer in Kraken's genomic

library to the lowest common ancestor in a taxonomic tree of all genomes that contain

that k-mer. We summarized the results in genera-level tables for each metagenome and

filtered taxonomy hits that had one or more reads assigned directly to a taxon.

Our third method to estimate metagenomic taxonomic diversity was MG-RAST

[43], which we used to annotate each metagenome at the level of genera using the

default parameters, and selected only taxa that had at least 10,000 number of reliable

hits. Each taxonomic annotation indicates the percentage of reads with predicted

proteins and ribosomal RNA genes annotated to the indicated taxonomic level.

To visualize shared taxa among metagenomes, and their abundance, we used

Cytoscape v3.4.0 [44], where each node and its size represent the abundance of an

OTU, and lines represent shared taxa between metagenomes. The network was made by

an interaction matrix, where each of the OTUs that had more than 14 readings assigned

directly by Kraken identification, was linked to the metagenome from which it came.

Identified nodes were manually ordered to prevent visual overlap. We also calculated

the Shannon-Weaver *H'* and Simpson *L* indices for OTUs from all three methods using

the Vegan v2.3-5 package in R [40].

Reconstruction of phylogenetic relationships. We aligned annotated 16S rRNA

sequences trimmed to 1.1 Kbp, using MUSCLE v3.8.31 with default parameters [45].

This matrix was used for phylogenetic reconstruction using MrBayes v3.2 [46] with a

gamma distribution type range with 1,000,000 generations. ModelTest [47] showed that

Kimura 2 parameters was the best substitution model. To explore major clades in more

detail, we estimated individual phylogenies for each of the genera in our main tree and

represented them graphically. To do this we first recovered a tree by generating a

consensus sequence from all genera within each clade in MUSCLE v3.8.31 with default

parameters [45]. Then a Bayesian phylogeny with a gamma distribution and a million

generations (additional generations did not change our results) was reconstructed using

MrBayes v3.2 for each individual genus dataset. The resulting trees were edited and

sorted with Environment for Tree Exploration Toolkit v3.0.0b35 [48] in Python v2.7.6.

To construct a complete phylogeny of cyanobacteria strains we used the amino

acid sequences of GyrB and RpoB as markers [49]. However, their corresponding

phylogenies lacked support and resolution even after concatenation, thus we included

into the matrix orthologs of the Carbamoyl-phosphate synthase large subunit (CPS),

Phenylalanine-tRNA ligase beta subunit (PheT) and the Trigger factor (Tig). Sequences

of RpoB, GyrB, CPS, PheT and Tig were extracted from an in-house database of

cyanobacterial genomes obtained from GenBank, and annotated using RAST [35]. The

sequences were obtained using Blast with a cut-off e-value of 1e-50 and a bitscore of

200. Each set of sequences were aligned using MUSCLE v3.8.31 with default

parameters [45], and trimmed manually. Independent phylogenies were performed for

each marker to filter out redundant and divergent sequences. The sequences that passed

this filter were included in the final array, which included the organisms for which all

five markers could be retrieved. The final matrix included 289 taxa, with 3617

aminoacids, and it was used to reconstruct a tree with MrBayes, using a mixed

substitution model based on posterior probabilities (aamodel[Wag]1.000) for proteins

for a 10 million generations. Convergence of runs was reached after 1 million

generations.

321   Finally, a high resolution cyanobacteria phylogenetic tree was constructed

using a set of 198 conserved proteins (Additional file 1: **Table S1**), which represent the

core of a set of 77 cyanobacterial genomes (Additional file 2: **Table S2**) including our

two isolates (T09 and 106C) and the RF31YmG assembly; and *Fischerella* sp. NIES

3754 and *Hassallia byssoidea* VB512170 as outgroups. We extracted and assembled the

cyanobacterial genomes from the metagenome RF3-T2. To obtain the RF31YmG

genome, contigs from the 106C assembly were used as reference to match and extract

reads from the RF3-t2 metagenome using BWA [36]. The obtained reads were

assembled using Velvet with the extension columbus with different *k*-mers. The best

assembly, considered as the largest assembly with the lower number of contigs, was

selected and annotated with RAST as previously. The core genome was obtained using

an in-house script available at https://github.com/nselem/EvoDivMet/wiki, which will

be reported elsewhere in due course. Then, a set of 198 core proteins was selected from

only 33 Nostocales genomes in our database to construct the final concatenated matrix,

which included 45477 amino acids. We used this matrix to reconstruct a phylogeny

using MrBayes v3.2 with a mixed model (not partitioned), for a million generations.

Genome mining for BGCs. To identify BGCs potentially directing the synthesis of

specialized metabolites among selected cyanobacteria, we annotated the genome of the

isolate 106C with antiSMASH [50]. The predicted BGCs were used as a reference for

further searches among the selected genomes. For this purpose we used our in-house

pipeline, called CORASON (available at https://github.com/nselem/EvoDivMet/wiki),

which will be reported elsewhere in due course. CORASON allows for the

identification of conserved and unique BGCs among the selected genomes. Prediction

of the chemical structures of the putative specialized metabolites associated with these

BGCs was done after domain identification and specificity prediction, mainly of

adenylation and acyl transfer domains, with NRPS-PKS server [51], PRISM [52] and

antiSMASH [50].

Results

Our experimental strategy (**Fig. 1**) to characterize the taxonomic diversity of the

coralloid root endophytic microbiome led to hundreds of bacterial isolates obtained

directly from the original sample (*t0)*; and from enriched sub-communities in

oligotrophic (BG11) medium (*t1*), aimed at promoting interactions between members of

the coralloid root community. Individual markers and genomic sequences obtained from

these isolates captured the taxonomic diversity of endophytes living in the root,

including bacteria present in low titers in the original sample (*t2*). It also provided a

mean to obtain insights into the biosynthetic potential specific to the cyanobacteria

inhabiting the coralloid root, which could be driving community interactions. In the

following sections we describe the results obtained from this effort in three sub-

sections, overall taxonomic diversity, cyanobacteria phylogenetic relationships and

specificity of BGCs present in the *Dioon* coralloid roots.

***Dioon* coralloid roots show ample endophyte diversity of taxa beyond and within**

cyanobacteria.

Taxa assessment based in 16S rRNA. Cultivable bacteria constitute only a biased subset

of the total endophyte biodiversity, yet from our 16S rRNA sequences alone we found

470 isolates grouped into 242 OTUs, distributed in 17 families and 11 bacterial orders,

with 27 genera in total, representing most of the known bacterial groups (**Table 1**. See

also Additional file 3: **Table S3**). As seen in our 16S rRNA phylogenetic reconstruction

(**Fig. 2**), all of our sequences grouped within monophyletic clades, and most trees

within each clade show that there are new species that remain to be described, in almost

all of the genera found within the cycad coralloid root (see also Additional file 4: **Fig.**

S1). An 87% of the taxa identified can be taxonomically classified as diazotrophic plant

endophytes, validating our endophyte isolation procedures (see Materials & Methods).

Indeed, most OTUs grouped within the genera *Streptomyces, Bacillus, Rhizobium,*

Stenotrophomonas, Pseudomonas, Mitsuaria, Achromobacter and *Burkholderia*, which

are known for their extraordinary taxonomic diversity, their ability to establish

symbiont relationships across the tree of life, or are commonly found in the soil or the

plant rhizosphere.

We confirmed previous reports of other bacteria associated to the cycad

coralloid root, namely, *Bacillus*, which was previously reported as associated to the

outside of the coralloid root; *Streptomyces*, previously isolated as an epiphyte [23],

which grew on our selective media (ISP4); and *Pseudomonas* [19] growing indistinctly

in our four non-selective media. As expected, we confirmed endophytes that belong to

Nostoc [5], but also found *Tolypothrix*, a previously unreported genus of Nostocales

living in the coralloid root. We isolated six strains belonging to this genus according to

16S rRNA characterization.

Our results also show that OTUs are shared among samples and species, with no

specific distribution among the various isolation culture media (**Fig. 2**). There are

environment-specific trends such as higher diversity in the dry environment. We

observed a tendency in the 16S rRNA data showing that some genera occur only in dry

(JP; e.g. *Rhizobium*), or only in humid (RF; e.g. *Xanthomonas*) forest environments,

with a few genera occurring in both (e.g. *Burkholderia*). In terms of species diversity

and abundance, the Shannon-Weaver and Simpson biodiversity indices based on genera

abundance from 16S rRNA sequences have higher diversity in the dry environment than

in the humid environment (Additional file 5: **Table S4**). We consider these results

preliminary and limited by the use of cultivable approaches, but valid as they compare

samples treated under the same conditions and thus informative to define further

ecological studies.

Taxa assessment based in co-cultures metagenomics. We extracted and sequenced

whole-community metagenomic DNA from *t1* and *t2* subcommunity co-cultures with

the aim of enriching for specific interactions in response to growth conditions. We were

able to sequence metagenomes from six different individuals grown on eutrophic

conditions after 72 hours, whose DNAs were pooled as limited diversity was expected

(JPPOOL and RFPOOL); from four different individuals after 30 days of culture in

oligotrophic conditions, two from each of the two environments (JP2, JP6 and RF1,

RF3); and after 365 days, same conditions, one from each environment (JP6 and RF3)

(**Table 2**. see also Additional file 6: **Table S5**).

In terms of taxonomic diversity, each OTU-assignment strategy recovered

different taxa and in different proportion (Table 2). Notably, despite visual confirmation

of the occurrence of heterocyst-forming cyanobacteria in green cultures (Additional file

7: **Fig. S2**), mOTUS revealed only a minor proportion of cyanobacteria, only 6%. In

contrast, MG-RAST likely overestimated diversity at 39%. Kraken provided and

intermediate result with 12%. Kraken is also a sequence classification technique that

can exclude sequence contaminants from the draft assembly, allowing us to generate a

symbiotic cyanobacteria marker database as reference for future classification. Thus,

Kraken-identified OTUs were used for all subsequent analyses.

In Kraken-based OTUs, specifically associated to one of the metagenomes (JP),

we also found *Calothrix*, previously reported in *Encephalartos* [16, 17] and in *Cycas*

revoluta [18]; and *Caulobacter*, which can be found associated to cyanobacteria [19].

Of the Nostocales we were unable to recover *Tolypothrix* in the metagenomes. Notably,

taxa identified in the four metagenomes mostly overlap (**Fig. 3**. See also Additional file

8: **Figure S3**). The few exceptions that were unique to a sample include species such as

Shewanella specific to JP2 from the dry environment, and *Cronobacter* specific to RF3

in the humid environment. Likewise, the original taxonomic diversity from the

environmental isolates (*t0*), as revealed by their 16S rRNAs sequences, and that found

in the co-culture sub-communities (*t1*), measured as OTUs by Kraken, overlap only

partially. Specifically, we recovered 12 OTUs with 16S rRNAs that were not recovered

with Kraken, and 79 OTUs discovered only with Kraken, showing the complementarity

of our approaches.

Biodiversity indices showed the same tendency as in the 16S rRNA results, in

which the dry environment is more diverse than the humid (Additional file 5: **Table**

S4). In all cases results from BG11 co-cultures show higher diversity than those

obtained from the *Caulobacter* + mannitol medium. Similar to the process of

eutrophication in biofilms, in which nutrient availability affects biofilm diversity and

composition [53], rapid growers and presumably primary producers colonized and took

over in the eutrophic medium, resulting in overall low diversity. In contrast, the results

of the oligotrophic conditions suggest a cyanobacteria-centric community enables

diversity. Indeed, rarefaction curves based on Kraken estimates suggest we captured 40-

60% of the microbial community in the BG11 media (15 genera in JP6), with the least

being the results obtained from the co-cultures grown on the *Caulobacter* + mannitol

medium (Additional file 9: **Figure S4**).

Differences in genera identified with 16S rRNA and metagenomes could be

explained because our metagenomes may not be deep enough to recover cyanobacteria-

associated OTUs; because taxa presence may fluctuate in the cultures; and/or because

cycanobacteria sequences are too divergent to be captured. It is likely that all three

factors influenced our results. Despite these issues and differences in the media, we

confirmed the occurrence of many of the bacterial endophyte taxonomic groups in the

metagenomes, which were previously isolated and characterized with 16S rRNA. In

sum, it is clear from these results that we have captured a significant fraction of the

taxonomic diversity of the endophytes in the cycad coralloid root, and that the

combination of isolation and shotgun metagenomics results in a realistic representation

of the cycad coralloid bacterial community.

***Dioon* cyanobacteria belong to the family *Nostocaceae* and are a monophyletic**

group

In order to explore the specificity of our cyanobacterial isolates, we reconstructed a

phylogeny from five markers (**Fig. 4a**. See also Additional file 10: **Figure S5**).

Although cyanobacteria phylogenetic history is likely reticulated [54], our tree is

congruent with previous phylogenies that grouped cyanobacteria into mostly

monophyletic clades, and we recover and support various known taxa relationships. For

instance, we support the lack of monophyly of *Chlorogloeopsis* and *Fischerella* with

Chlorogloeopsis strains grouped with the nostocalean *Scytonema* [55]. We also support

the monophyly of heterocyst and akinete-bearing cyanobacteria of the sections IV and

V [56, 57]. A deeper discussion of the phylogeny is out of the scope of this article, but it

will serve as additional evidence in the complex relationships of the cyanobacteria.

Hereafter we focus on the Nostocaceae as they are the closest to our samples, and

species from the IV and V group are able to establish various types of symbiotic

associations [58].

Previous molecular studies and our own data show that choice of genome-wide

markers, and the type of OTU assignment methods, significantly affect the ability to

recover Nostocaceae phylogenetic history. Our results were contingent on using 198

genome-wide orthologs from a broad and curated database (Additional file 1: **Table**

S1; Additional file 2: **Table S2**), combined with Kraken to assign OTUs, which was

best at detecting cyanobacteria. Overall, our phylogeny (**Fig. 4b**) shows that *Calothrix*

PCC 7507 fails to group within the *Rivulariaceae* and is instead nested within the

Nostocaceae. We confirmed the presence of *Anabaena* (metagenomes) first mentioned

as algae in the cycad literature [13]; and of *Nostoc* (isolates) [18], and show that they

each separate clearly in our phylogeny. Also, *Nostoc* is sister to *Anabaena,*

Aphanizomenon and *Trichormus* [59, and references therein]. A previously recognized

clade using 16S rRNA, constituted by *Anabaena* species associated to *Aphanizomenon*

species, with *A. cylindrica* as sister to the rest [60], is also distinct in our phylogeny

(Clade I). This group includes the fern endophyte *Nostoc azollae* 0708, supporting

original descriptions of *Anabaena* fern symbionts [61] and similar findings with 16S

rRNA [59]. The *Nostoc* free-living PCC 7120 grouped distantly to strains of symbiotic

origin.

Importantly, our *Dioon* isolates from T09, 106C and RF31YmG form a

monophyletic clade. This contradicts previous studies in which different species of

cycads host multiple cyanobacteria and do not form cycad or host-specific clades [6, 62,

63]. The isolate T09 was obtained from coralloid roots of *Dioon caputoi,* collected

previously by our group in dry shrubland from the Tehuacan Valley in Puebla, and

added as a control. This result suggests specificity of Nostocaeae symbionts within

Dioon species. It also shows diverging evolutionary trajectories of *Nostoc* species

associated with cycads, from those of the free-living Nostocaceae (**Fig. 4b**). Congruent

with these findings, a 16S rRNA phylogeny of Nostocacean cyanobacteria shows that

hormogonia-producing species symbiotic to *Gunnera* ferns, *Anthoceros*, and cycads,

tend to cluster together [59].

The name of the new *Dioon* cyanobacteria symbionts remains to be determined.

Tolypothrix sp PCC 7601 is sister taxon to our *Dioon* isolates, and they are sister to two

other plant symbionts: *Nostoc* sp KVJ20 (PRJNA310825), which lives in special

cavities located on the ventral surface of the gametophyte of the Norway liverwort

Blasia pusilla [64]; and *Nostoc punctiforme* PCC73102 (ATCC 29133), associated with

the Australian cycad *Macrozamia* [65]. *Calothrix* sp. PCC 7507 and *Fortiea contorta*

PCC7126 are sister taxa to our isolates clade (Clade II). Thus, it is concluded that *Dioon*

cyanobacteria endophytes belong to the family Nostocaceae, and that they show a

monophyletic origin. This suggests that our isolates may be specialized bacteria, with

unique metabolic and other phenotypic features that warrant further characterization and

polyphasic taxonomic determination.

Identification of BGCs in sub-community metagenomes suggests metabolic

specialization of *Dioon* cyanobacteria

Mapping the size of each bacterial genome onto the phylogeny showed that our *Dioon*

coralloid endophytes have larger genomes sizes than all other close relatives, while

maintaining their (G+C)-content (**Fig. 4b**). Large genomes correlate with the ability of

bacteria to produce specialized metabolites. Thus, we aimed at exploring the coralloid

root microbiome functions in detail by identifying examples of BGCs putatively

directing the synthesis of specialized metabolites (**Fig. 5**). Genome mining of isolate

106C revealed 18 BGCs (Additional file 11: **Table S6**). The analysis of the distribution

of these BGCs among the selected Nostocaceae genomes (Additional file 12: **Table S7**)

revealed that the heterocyst glycolipid (BGC 16), the only BGC with a defined product

[66], and BGC 2, a terpene of unknown structure, were present in all analyzed genomes.

Mining of other known molecules associated with cycad cyanobionts, such as nodularin

[67], or other known BGCs found in members of the genus *Nostoc*, yielded negative

results.

In contrast, half of the BGCs were uniquely found within *Dioon* symbionts

including isolate 106C. Remarkably, these nine BGCs are absent in the well-annotated

genome of *Nostoc punctiforme* PCC73102, a strain isolated from an Australian *Zamia*.

These observations support the metabolic specialization of *Dioon* cyanobionts. Among

the *Dioon*-specific cyanobacterial BGCs we found four coding for lantipeptides,

namely, BGC 1, 9, 10, 17 (**Fig. 5**, see also Additional file 13: **Text S1**). BGC 20

includes genes coding for one adenylation domain, one thiolation domain and one

thioesterase domain, which may be involved in the synthesis of modified amino acids,

or in the formation of a yet-to-be discovered metabolite. The remaining four BGCs code

for NRPSs, including one NRPS-PKS hybrid, BGC 21, which codes for a PKS-NRPS

hybrid system potentially directing the synthesis of a hybrid peptide with three residues

(Phe-Thr-Phe) and a hydroxyl-iso-butyrate group as the C-terminal substituent.

BGC12, which caught our attention, codes for an assembly line predicted to

direct the synthesis of an N-terminal acylated hexapeptide with several modifications,

such as the epimerization of four of its residues, the N-acylation of its second amidic

bond, and the reduction of its C-terminal end to yield an aldehyde group. The N and C

terminal modifications on this peptide are typical of small peptide aldehyde protease

inhibitors, which have been previously reported on cyanobacteria [68]. Alternatively,

the product of this biosynthetic system may be a siderophore, as iron-related genes were

found next to the NRPS coding-genes and previous reports have shown that reductase

domain-containing NRPS systems such as in myxochelin [69], are linked to iron

chelators. The BGC 22 encodes a small NRPS system for a dipeptide (Gly-Val), which

in 106C and RF3Mg seems to be associated to genes coding for chemotaxis proteins,

also present in the corresponding region in T09.

BGC 23, the most interesting of all, codes for a NRPS system putatively

directing the synthesis of a tripeptide consisting of leucine, valine and tyrosine residues,

as well as an N-terminal acylation, an N-methylation at an amide bond of the isoleucine

residue, plus a domain of unknown function likely modifying the tyrosine residue.

Remarkably, the order of the domains in the BGC suggests lack of co-linearity, which

may imply domain skipping or recycling. A search for peptides containing such

modifications, performed with the server PRISM that includes a feature for de-

replication of known chemical structures [52], directed our attention to nostoginins, a

specialized metabolite whose biosynthetic pathway remains unknown. Nostoginin A is

an acylated tripeptide (Leucine-Valine-Tyrosine) with N-acylations at the isoleucine

and tyrosine residues, originally isolated from a member of the genus *Nostoc* [70], and

shown to be a protease inhibitor with specificity towards aminopeptidases. Similar

bioactivity has been found for its congeners nostiginin B, microginins FR1 and SD755,

and oscillaginins A and B [71]. Interestingly, a nostoginin congener (Nostoginin B),

which includes an extra tyrosine group at the C- terminal end, was also isolated from

the same *Nostoc* strain as nostoginin A. The amino acid specificity of BGC 23

adenylation domains, the location of the modification on the leucine and tyrosine

residues, the lack of collinearity, the presence of N-terminal acylation domains, the

occurence of peptidase coding genes in the BGC, and the taxonomic origin of

nostoginins, strongly suggest that BGC 23 is linked to these metabolites (**Fig. 5**).

In addition to our genome-driven analysis, we also assembled, annotated and

mined, *de novo,* the metagenomes of *t1* and *t2* oligotrophic co-cultures in an iterative

fashion. First, by identifying sequence signatures of biosynthetic enzymes using

antiSMASH, and second, by extending the contigs with hits by iterative mapping and

assembly. This approach only revealed in all metagenomes together of *t1* five short

signal sequences (less than 3.5 Kbp) that are suggestive of enzyme genes that could be

part of BGCs. It seems that although representative of the rich biological diversity of the

root, the lower coverage of these metagenomes hampered our ability to obtain loci long

enough to allow proper annotation of presumed BGCs. In contrast, for *t2*, where

bacterial diversity has been enriched we found two complete BGCs in the RF3 sub-

community metagenome, both clearly coming from cyanobacteria, the most abundant

taxa in the co-culture (**Table 2**). Indeed, these BGCs coincided with those found in the

RF31YmG genome extracted from RF3 metagenome, showing that a computational

pangenomic analysis of metagenomes is a promising approach to capture the

biosynthetic potential of co-cultures.

Discussion

Our combined strategy of co-cultures at different timescales and genomic and

metagenomic sequencing analyzed with a phylogenomic framework enabled us to study

bacterial endosymbionts that coexist in the same cycad host, and identify the BGCs

associated to their coralloid root-specific niche. We focus our discussion on the taxa

found in the bacterial isolates, and OTUs present in the metagenomes, and we refer to

species and OTUs interchangeably.

The microbiome of the cycad coralloid root reveals a biodiverse community, with

monophyletic grouping of cyanobacteria

Our evidence undoubtedly shows that within the cycad coralloid root there is a highly

diverse bacterial community within the cycad coralloid root of at least 27 genera

identified with 16S rRNA of which 12 were not recovered with Kraken, and 79

additional genera identified in the metagenomes, which includes all of the previously

reported Nostocales and newly reported genera. We validated previous reports of taxa

for which their endophytic origin and presence was unclear or doubtful. Cyanobacteria

are present, but also many other taxa that interact in a community.

We also support previous morphological observations that showed that an

individual cycad plant could harbor diverse communities that differ in their taxonomic

composition and life-strategy [23], from soil dwellers to well-known plant symbionts.

Morphological studies observing mucilaginous material inside the coralloid root [14,

20] are also congruent with the microbiome consortium we describe. However, most of

the abundant genera were shared among samples, which suggests weak taxonomic

specificity in different environments. Similarly, the majority of the taxa identified in the

phylogeny can be taxonomically classified as diazotrophic plant endophytes, which

points toward functional congruence associated with nitrogen fixation, rather than

phylogenetic filtering, and suggests a taxonomic and functional core.

Although many other groups are worth exploring, we focused on cyanobacteria

as the main group of interest given previous records of this group in cycads, their ability

to establish symbiosis with most lineages of eukaryotes in many different types of

tissues, and in plants with known co-evolutionary histories [72]. This bacterial group is

also renowned for its potential to synthesize specialized metabolites of applied and

evolutionary interest.

Among our most interesting findings is the monophyletic placement of our

cyanobacterial samples, which confirm a single morphological observation of possible

specificity among cyanobacteria coralloid root endophytes (then termed phycobionts),

and their hosts, including *Dioon* [5], and contrasts with several previous notions

regarding relationships between *Nostocaceae* and their hosts. Cyanobionts in other

systems, such as cyanobacteria from a single lichen species, are often more closely

related to free-living microorganisms, strains belonging to other species, or to plant

symbionts, than to each other. Likewise, other studies of symbiotically competent

Nostoc isolates suggest that they are not specialized and strains isolated from one plant

species are capable of infecting phylogenetically distant hosts [59, 73, 74]. These

contrasting previous observations could be biased by partial taxon identification in what

we know now is a diverse cycad coralloid root microbiome, including several different

cyanobacteria genera. Additionally, those phylogenies were based on samples collected

growing outside of their place of the cycad's native distribution [75]. As data is

gathered from more genomes of bacterial cycad symbionts, it will be possible to test for

other co-evolutionary relationships, including horizontal gene transfer between bacteria

and the eukaryote host, and other patterns that suggest close evolutionary histories.

Cultivated bacterial sub-communities are useful to assess functional interactions of

the root microbiome

We found congruent results in diversity patterns among 16S rRNA and metagenomes,

yet there are clear limitations of 16S rRNA and even genome-wide markers to carry out

in-depth microbiome analyses, depending on how OTUs are assigned. There are even

more limitations to understanding their functional interactions. We increased our ability

to identify a diverse array of organisms using cultivated bacterial sub-communities (*t1,*

t2) and exploring their metagenomes with phylogenomic tools. Most of the genera with

only a few species were recovered in *t1*, and genera with many species were recovered

in both *t0* and *t1*. The differences in composition with genera identified without

enrichment (*t0*) was expected, because environmental sampling and enriched inoculant

complement each other, and aim to recover distinct aspects of the microbiome's

composition [27]. These patterns can also be explained by various scenarios: i) rare

groups present in low abundance can only be recovered in sub-community co-cultures

on which they increase in biomass; ii) some organisms are fast growers irrespective of

media, and will dominate in OTUs, simply by chance, iii) some groups are more media-

specific; and/or iv) groups in BG11 (*t1*) are recovered as a result of functional

interactions to pre-adapted cyanobacteria-associated groups.

The long-term one-year co-culture (*t2*) allowed us to explore at least some of the

aforementioned possibilities. Although dynamic, the initial amount of inorganic

nitrogen available in these co-cultures became a limiting factor over time. Hence, the

establishment of stable communities after a year with emerging and surviving taxa

suggests that Nitrogen fixation is at least one of the main driving forces in the assembly

of the coralloid root community. Plant-associated and slow-growing actinobacterial

taxa, renowned for being prolific producers of specialized metabolites, are abundant in

these communities. Further exploration of the metabolic-driven hypotheses emerging

from these observations in different conditions, with an emphasis on Nitrogen fixation

and physiological studies of the community, is required to understand the complexity of

such community. For now, we can conclude that co-cultures are a strategy that allows

assessing deeper sub-community functional interactions within the microbiome of a

specialized organ, as it is the cycad coralloid root.

Large genome size as a signature of facultative lifestyles in cycad cyanobacteria

symbionts

Most bacterial endosymbionts of plants or animals show a reduction in genome size

compared to free-living relatives [76], yet our endosymbiont samples have larger

genome sizes than all other closely related taxa in their phylogeny. Large genome sizes

in endosymbionts are usually attributed to a facultative relationship that requires

retaining free-living stages. For instance, rhizobial nitrogen-fixing bacteria in root-

nodules of legumes that exhibit multiple lineages with genome expansions compared to

closely related taxa ([77] and references therein), are also more similar in genome

content and size to other plant symbionts than to closely related species [78]. Other

facultative symbionts which form Nitrogen-fixing root nodules in angiosperms have

large genome sizes adapted to shifting from the soil to the plant environment [79], while

others such as *Brucella, Wolbachia* or *Agrobacterium* have favored expansions of

genome size to cope with complex and varying life-styles [80]. Thus, a feasible

hypothesis is that the *Nostocaceae* taxa we found associated to the cycad coralloid root,

have experienced a large genome expansion driven by selection to initially survive the

structural, ecological and biological complexity of the soil from which they are

recruited.

Additionally, a large repertoire of genes would be required to maintain the

developmental phenotypic plasticity of the cyanobiont cells to adapt to the inside of the

cycad host. Extremely plastic symbionts, such as *Nostoc* species, have notorious

complex life cycles that require cell differentiation of the organism to be able to enter

the host plant and disperse [81]. The only other cyanobacteria cycad symbiont

sequenced, *Nostoc punctiforme* from an African cycad *Macrozamia* [65], is

phenotypically plastic and ranges from photoautotrophic to diazotrophic, to

facultatively heterotrophic. Its vegetative cells can develop into nitrogen-fixing

heterocysts and have transient differentiation into hormogonia. Its genome shows 29%

unique protein-encoding sequences of known function, with roles in its cell

differentiation and symbiotic interaction properties [65]. It also has numerous insertion

sequences and multilocus repeats, as well as genes encoding transposases and DNA

modification enzymes, which would be congruent with genomic plasticity required to

sense and respond to the environment outside and inside the plant [65].

In sum, taxonomic diversity of the coralloid root, combined with monophyly of

the large *Nostocaceae* genomes found in the cycad coralloid root, could be a result of

imposed constrains of the facultative symbiotic lifestyle, and the broad symbiotic

competence with the plant host. The facultative nature of cyanobionts of *Dioon* would

suggest they are secondary endophytes acquired from environmental sampling with

host-specificity to *Dioon*.

It remains to be examined how the genomes of our *Dioon* cyanobionts

expanded. Upcoming work on the comparative genomics of the cycad coralloid root

microbiome should test for trends in genome size, AT content, changes in the content

and distribution of repeats and mobile elements, distribution of accumulated mutations

and type of genes gained or lost and pseudogenization. All these factors could inform

the nature of the cycad-bacterial interactions in ecological and evolutionary time. Of

particular interest to us, is how metabolic functions are retained or acquired in relation

to loci present within the root microbiome. We begin exploring this by identifying and

analyzing the distribution of BGCs in our bacterial genomes, which we discuss in the

final section below.

BGCs are conserved and unique to the cycad cyanobionts

The bacterial repertoire of specialized metabolites can correlate to environmental

selective pressures [82] and result in conserved metabolic and genetic repertoires among

species facing similar challenges, including those from plant symbiotic relationships. In

Nostocales, although free-living strains are often competent and will form symbiotic

interactions under laboratory conditions with many hosts [83], most recruited

cyanobacteria are capable of producing specific compounds to survive within the plant.

A remarkable example of a specialized metabolite involved in symbiosis is nosperin, a

polyketide produced by a lichen-associated *Nostoc* cyanobacteria [84]. This molecule

belongs to the pederin family, which includes molecules produced by non-

photosynthetic bacterial symbionts from beetles and sponges [84], suggesting a role on

eukaryote-prokaryote interaction. Nosperin has also been found in the liverwort *Blasia*-

associated and in free-living *Nostoc* cyanobacteria [64] suggesting that in cycads,

nosperin producers are selected for symbiosis, although production is not necessarily

induced while inside the coralloid roots.

None of the BGCs for specialized metabolites previously reported for *Nostoc*

cyanobionts of lichens, bryophytes or other cycads, namely, nosperin, mycocystin or

nodularin, could be found in the *Dioon* cyanobionts. Our unique biosynthetic repertoire

of several BGCs provides an example of metabolic specialization that correlates more

with the plant host biology than with the environmental conditions or geography.

A chemical insight derived from our genome mining efforts, which may have a

strong bearing on the evolution and biology of the *Dioon*-bacteria symbiosis, relates to

the potential of *Dioon* cyanobionts to produce at least two small peptide protease

inhibitors: the nostoginin-like peptides predicted to be produced by BGC 23; and the

acylated penta-peptide aldehyde predicted to be produced by BGC 12. The specific

presence of these metabolites in the cyanobionts may imply that proteolysis is involved

in the cyanobacteria-cycad interaction. Protease activity in the coralloid roots may be

linked to the reconfiguration of the root architecture or the filtering of the microbiome.

This is an interesting possibility as the involvement of proteases in root nodule

symbiosis has been observed previously between arbuscular mycorrhiza and legumes

[85]. Within this context, our sub-community metagenomics approach provided a

platform for BGC discovery that can be applied to other microbial-host interactions.

Also, the BGC patterns found in the coralloid root add to the growing notion that

symbiotic relations occur under heavy influence of chemical interactions, providing a

rich source of novelty for drug discovery [84].

Conclusions

Our work shows that the coralloid root microbiome is a highly diverse community, with most genera shared within *Dioon* species regardless of their original environment or plant host. Our methods of enriched sub-community metagenomics and phylogenomics were able to recover a good portion of the taxonomic and phylogenetic diversity and reveal genes underlying the production of previously unreported specialized metabolites that result from bacterial functional interactions. We also provide emerging evidence of co-evolution between cyanobacteria and their plant hosts, suggested by monophyly of the samples and the presence of unique BGCs to their clade.

The coralloid root microbiome is likely established by dual forces of host-driven selection and environmental recruitment of cyanobacteria and possibly other taxa that are capable of transitioning from free-living to endosymbiotic lifestyles, and the functional capacities of the bacterial consortium itself. Future phylogenomic work on the cycad coralloid root microbiome via an integrated analysis of genome organization and expression of specialized metabolite production, as well as of their relationship to the fitness of the host, will further facilitate our understanding of the evolutionary history of the cycad microbiome.

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Table 1. Taxonomic composition of endophytes isolated from *Dioon* coralloid roots

Phylum	Class	Order	Family	Genus	OTUs [a]
Bacteroidetes	Sphingobacteriia	Sphingobacteriales	Sphingobacteriaceae	*Mucilaginibacter*	3
				Sphingobium	1
				Sphingomonas	2
				Variovorax	**1**
	Cytophagales	Cytophagales	Cytophagaceae	*Dyadobacter*	1
Cyanobacteria	Cyanobacteria	Nostocales	Microchaetaceae	*Tolypothrix*	*6*
			Nostocaceae	*Nostoc*	*2*
Firmicutes	Bacilli	Bacillales	Bacillaceae	*Bacillus*	*16*
			Paenibacillaceae	*Paenibacillus*	*2*
			Staphylococcaceae	*Staphylococcus*	1
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Rhizobiales	Rhizobiaceae	*Rhizobium*	*32*
				Shinella	2
			Brucellaceae	*Ochrobactrum*	1
	Betaproteobacteria	Burkholderiales	Alcaligenaceae	*Achromobacter*	*33*
			Burkholderiaceae	*Burkholderia*	*39*
				Ralstonia	*2*
				Mitsuaria	*8*
			Comamonadaceae	*Variovorax*	1
	Gammaproteobacteria	Enterobacteriales	Enterobacteriaceae	*Enterobacter*	*3*
				Luteibacter	1
				Pantoea	*1*
		Pseudomonadales	Pseudomonadaceae	*Pseudomonas*	*21*
		Xanthomonadales	Xanthomonadaceae	*Luteibacter*	*2*
				Stenotrophomonas	*35*
				Xanthomonas	*2*
Actinobacteria	Actinobacteria	Micrococcales	Microbacteriaceae	*Microbacterium*	5
		Streptomycetales	Streptomycetaceae	*Streptomyces*	*19*

996   [a] Taxa identified in the literature as endophytes (italics) and/or diazotroph (bold) are shown.

997   **Table 2.** Taxonomic composition of sub-communities isolated from *Dioon* coralloid roots

Sample [a]	Growth conditions	Genera identified with different methods: total number (bold), most abundant (%)		
		mOTUs	Kraken	MG-RAST
JPPOOL	Eutrophic, 72 hours, *Caulobacter* medium + mannitol	**6**, *Bacillus* (87%)	**22**, *Bacillus* (84%)	**512**, *Bacillus* (86%)
RFPOOL		**8**, *Bacillus* (99%)	**25**, *Bacillus* (65%)	**524**, *Bacillus* (80%)
JP2		**42**, *Agrobacterium* (45%)	**57**, *Rhizobium* (7%)	**1273**, *Nostoc* (21%)
JP6	Oligotrophic, 30 days, BG-11	**38**, *Pseudoxanthomonas* (22%)	**69**, *Xanthomonas* (2%)	**1253**, *Xanthomonas* (8%)
RF1		**33**, *Stenotrophomonas* (83%)	**63**, *Nostoc* (3%)	**1157**, *Stenotrophomonas* (20%)
RF3		**25**, *Stenotrophomonas* (42%)	**61**, *Xanthomonas* (7%)	**1065**, *Xanthomonas* (22%)
JP6	Oligotrophic, 1 year, BG-11	**70**, *Deinococcus* (25%)	**69**, *Deinococcus* (4%)	**1957**, *Deinococcus* (26%)
RF3		**67**, *Stenotrophomonas* (33%)	**63**, *Nostoc* (3%)	**1592**, *Nostoc* (13%)

998   [a] JPPOOL= JP1, JP2, JP6; RFPOOL = RF1, RF3, RF9.

999   **Legends to Main Figures**

1000

Figure 1. Pipeline to capture and characterize bacterial microbiome diversity.

Coralloid roots from cycads growing naturally in dry and humid deciduous tropical

forests were sampled (photo of coralloid root of approx. 9cm in length shown, not to

scale). Endophytes from the macerated root were isolated, following two strategies:

directly from the sample (*t0*) and after enrichment using co-cultures of sub-

communities, and sampled after 30 days (*t1*), although sampling can be done anytime

(*t1…tn*). Cultivable bacteria were obtained using an array of six different media. Co-

cultures were characterized using shotgun metagenomics, and the resulting data was

used to select representative genomes from the endophyte culture collection that we

mined for functional information using a phylogenomic and comparative genomic

approaches.

1012

Figure 2. 16S rRNA Bayesian phylogeny of endophytes from coralloid roots of

Dioon merolae. The external ring refers to the two environments sampled: dry or JP (D

- orange) and humid of RF (H - blue) deciduous tropical forests. The inner ring refers

isolation strategy: directly from the sample (*t0* - white) or after enrichment using co-

cultures of sub-communities (*t1* - gray). Major bacterial groups are highlighted in

different colors across the tree.

1019

Figure 3. Network of taxa co-occurrence from different coralloid root samples. The

lines connecting the circles represent shared taxa identified with Kraken from the

metagenomes. Orange lines correspond to samples from the dry (JP) forest and blue to

samples from the humid (RF) forest. The most abundant genera in the four

metagenomes are represented by circles. Circle diameters are scaled in accordance with

the number of reads associated to each genus.

Figure 4. Phylogeny of *Cyanobacteria*. A. Multilocus phylogeny. The tree was

constructed with five molecular markers and genomes obtained from GenBank, plus our

genomes from T09, 106C and Rf31Y. Branches names have been colored according to

the genera originally assigned in GenBank (a larger version of the tree is available as

additional file 10: Figure S5); **B. Genome-wide phylogeny of the family *Nostocaceae***.

The tree was constructed with 45 conserved proteins, and includes *Dioon* cyanobionts

106C, T09 and Rf31Ymg. The habitat type of each taxa is indicated with colored

bullets. The bars show a relatively homogeneous (G+C)-content among *Nostocaceae*

cyanobacteria, and a trend for larger genomes in *Dioon*-associated cyanobacteria.

Figure 5. *Dioon*-specific cyanobiont biosynthetic gene clusters for specialized

metabolites predicted from their genomes. Genes are shown as colored boxes, the

tips of the boxes indicate the direction of their translation. Annotation color key is

provided. Domain organization, biosynthetic logic and products are indicated below

each BGC, except for lantipeptide encoded by BGCs 1, 9, 10 and 17, whose predicted

products are shown as additional file 13: Text S1.

1041

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Availability of data and materials

The genomes generated during the current study are available in the GenBank public

repository as follows:

SUBID	BioProject	BioSample	Accession	Organism
SUB2297132	PRJNA360300	SAMN06208854	MTAV00000000	*Nostoc* sp. T09
SUB2299096	PRJNA360305	SAMN06208961	MTAW00000000	*Nostoc* sp. 106C
SUB2299173	PRJNA360315	SAMN06209042	MTAX00000000	*Nostoc* sp. RF31Y

Metagenomes are available at sequence read archive (ID number pending), and directly

from the corresponding author. Other data generated or analyzed during this study are

included in this published article and its supplementary information or additional files,

as enlisted:

Additional file 1: Table S1.docx/ Proteins in the cyanobacterial core genome.

Annotated proteins used to reconstruct the cyanobacteria phylogenetic tree of 198

conserved proteins which represent the core of a set of 77 cyanobacterial genomes. We

provide the name of the protein and the aminoacid sequence.

1065   **Additional file 2: Table S2.docs/Genomes used to obtain the core proteome.** List of

1066   species and their larger classification used to obtain the core genome.

1067

1068   **Additional file 3: Table S3.xlsx/List of 470 isolated bacteria with their 16S rRNA.**

1069   We enlist all of the identified taxa isolated from the *t0* samples and identified with 16S

1070   rRNA Sanger-sequencing.

1071

Additional file 4: Figure S1.pdf/Graphic representation of each group identified

with 16S rRNA from isolates. A) We generated individual phylogenies for each of the

genera in our main tree and represented them graphically as shown here. **B)** We also

show individual trees with support values. A full resolution of both figures as individual

files is available at:

https://www.dropbox.com/sh/ss5mmwujnynyc7m/AABqABxc5wS_wjd8NzkarHTca?dl

=0.

1079

1080   **Additional file 5: Table S4.docx/ Biodiversity indices of 16S rRNA and OTUs.**

1081   Diversity indices estimated for samples from 16S rRNA data, and from the four

1082   metagenomes (MET) we sequenced. We calculated Shannon-Weaver *H'* (1962) and

1083   Simpson *L* (1964).

1084

1085   **Additional file 6: Table S5.docx/Statistics of metagenomes sequenced.**

1086   We provide detail on the sequencing depth, contigs, quality of contigs and other basic

1087   statistics on sequenced metagenomes.

1088

1089   **Additional file 7: Figure S2.jpg/ Pictures of cyanobacteria-centric co-cultures.** Co-

1090   cultures in 1L flasks. In the insets is a close up of the culture, where a mucilaginous

1091   biofilm mass can be observed, presumably polysaccharides generated by the

1092   cyanobacteria.

1093

1094   **Additional file 8: Figure S3. Kraken-based taxonomic diversity of metagenomes**.

1095   Taxa abundance from the metagenome mOTUs defined as the percentage of the genera

1096   present in each sample. Jiquipilas (JP) is the dry environment, while Raymundo Flores

1097   (RF) individuals are found in the humid environment. JP or RFPOOL refers the samples

1098   sequenced in pools from media No. 6.

1099

1100   **Additional file 9: Figure S4.pdf/ Rarefaction analysis of 16S rRNA and OTUs data.**

1101   Shown is the proportion of OTUs represented by sample, by type of culture and by

1102   environment for each of the metagenomes sequenced, and a total of possible samples

1103   (All samples) according to a rarefaction estimate.

1104

1105   **Additional file 10: Figure S5.pdf/Concatenated species-tree of cyanobacteria.**

1106   Complete phylogeny of the Nostocales using five molecular markers, RPOB, GyrB,

1107   CPS, PheT and Tig. See text for technical details.

1108

1109   **Additional file 11: Table S6.docx/Prediction of BGCs on the genome of isolate**

1110   **106C.** Biosynthetic Gene Clusters predicted by antiSMASH on the genome of isolate

1111   106C are enlisted, with their corresponding length in Kp.

1112

1113 **Additional file 12: Table S7.docx/106C-specific BGCs throughout Nostocales.** We

1114 show the presence or absence of the 18 BGCs found throughout the Nostocales, to

1115 emphasize their presence of only some of them in our samples.

1116

1117 **Additional file 13: Text S1.docx/ Predicted lantipeptide from *Dioon* cyanobionts.**

1118 We show the sequence corresponding to the lantipeptides from the unique BGCs, whose

1119 prediction could not be fully shown in the main figures.

1120

1121 Any additional datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study available from

1122 the corresponding author on reasonable request.

1123

1124 **Competing interests**

1125 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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1129

Authors' contributions

PC-M executed laboratory work, analyzed and interpreted data, and was a major

contributor in writing the manuscript. AC-M executed laboratory work and analyzed

data. NSM analyzed data. MAP-F identified and collected the plants. AC-J and FB-G

equally co-designed and executed the study. AC-J was the main contributor in writing

the manuscript. FB-G revised the manuscript critically for intellectual content. All

authors read and approved the final manuscript.

1137

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1143

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1150

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1172   particular. http://www.langebio.cinvestav.mx/?pag=426.

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