1	Phylogenetic diversity and activity screening of cultivable actinobacteria isolated
2	from marine sponges and associated environments from the western coast of India
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4	Ulfat Baig <sup>1</sup> , Neelesh Dahanukar <sup>1</sup> , Neha Shintre <sup>2</sup> , Ketki Holkar <sup>1</sup> , Anagha Pund <sup>1</sup> , Uttara Lele <sup>1</sup> ,
5	Tejal Gujarathi <sup>1</sup> , Kajal Patel <sup>1</sup> , Avantika Jakati <sup>1</sup> , Ruby Singh <sup>1</sup> , Harshada Vidwans <sup>1</sup> , Vaijayanti
6	Tamhane <sup>3</sup> , Neelima Deshpande <sup>2</sup> and Milind Watve <sup>4</sup>
7	
8	<sup>1</sup> Indian Institute of Science Education and Research, Pune (IISER-P), Dr. Homi Bhabha Road,
9	Pashan, Pune 411008, Maharashtra, India.
10	<sup>2</sup> Department of Microbiology, M.E.S. Abasaheb Garware College, Karve Road, Pune 411004,
11	Maharashtra, India.
12	<sup>3</sup> Institute of Bioinformatics and Biotechnology, Savitribai Phule Pune University, Pune –
13	411007, Maharashtra, India
14	<sup>4</sup> Behavioural Intervention for Lifestyle Disorders (BILD) clinic, Deenanath Mangeshkar
15	Hospital and Research Centre, Erandwane, Pune 411004, Maharashtra, India.
16	
17	Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to N. Dahanukar (email:
18	n.dahanukar@iiserpune.ac.in)
19	
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23	inhibition; Molecular phylogeny.
24	

#### 25 Abstract

26 Phylogenetic diversity of cultivable actinobacteria isolated from sponges and associated 27 environments of intertidal zones, along the northern parts of west coast of India, were studied 28 using 16S rRNA gene sequences. A subset of actinobacteria were screened for three activities, 29 namely predatory behavior, antibacterial activity and enzyme inhibition. We recovered 207 30 isolates of actinobacteria belonging to 16 families and 25 genera, which could be attributed to 31 55 putative species using Poisson Tree Processes and 60 putative species based on Bayesian 32 Poisson Tree Processes. Although the trends in the discovery of actinobacterial genera isolated 33 from sponges was consistent with previous studies from different study areas, we provide first 34 report of six actinobacterial species from sponges. We observed widespread non-obligate 35 epibiotic predatory behavior in eight actinobacterial genera and we provide first report of 36 predatory activity in Brevibacterium, Glutamicibacter, Micromonospora, Nocardiopsis, 37 Rhodococcus and Rothia. Sponge associated actinobacteria showed significantly more 38 predatory behavior than environmental isolates. While antibacterial activity by actinobacterial 39 isolates mainly affected Gram-positive target bacteria with little to no effect on Gram-negative 40 bacteria, predation targeted both Gram-positive and Gram-negative prey with equal propensity. 41 Actinobacterial isolates from both sponge and associated environment produced inhibitors of 42 serine proteases and angiotensin converting enzyme. Predatory behavior was strongly 43 associated with inhibition of trypsin and chymotrypsin. Our study suggests that sponge and 44 associated environment of western coast of India are rich in actinobacterial diversity with 45 widespread predatory activity, antibacterial activity and production of enzyme inhibitors. 46 Understanding diversity and associations among various actinobacterial activities, with each 47 other and the source of isolation, can provide new insights in marine microbial ecology and 48 provide opportunities to isolate novel therapeutic agents.

## 49 **INTRODUCTION**

50 The marine ecosystem is not only diverse with respect to microorganisms found in it but also 51 the natural products being synthesized by these microorganisms (Ward and Bora, 2006; Taylor 52 et al., 2007; Lam, 2006). Actinobacteria are among the taxa rich in secondary metabolites 53 (Barka et al., 2016) and are widely distributed in diverse habitats including soil, marine and 54 freshwaters and sediments (Ward and Bora, 2006; Taylor et al., 2007; Tan et al., 2015; Brasel 55 et al., 2019; Mincer et al., 2002; Kokare et al., 2004). They are also not uncommon in extreme 56 environments (Jose and Jebakumar, 2014; Pathom-Aree et al., 2006; Mohammadipanah and 57 Wink, 2016; Shivlata and Tulasi, 2015; Riquelme et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2015) and are also 58 found as endobiotic symbionts of higher organisms (Taylor et al., 2007; Li et al., 2015; 59 Mahmoud and Kalendar, 2016; Trujillo et al., 2015). They belong to the phylum Actinobacteria 60 and represent one of the major phyla within the bacterial domain (Goodfellow, 2015). They are 61 aerobic, spore forming, Gram-positive bacteria, which often produce diffusible pigments, and 62 occur as cocci or rods, branched filaments, aerial or substrate mycelium (Goodfellow, 2015). 63 The marine ecosystems are believed to have a wide range of unexplored diversity of 64 actinobacteria (Montalvo et al., 2005) and their metabolites (Taylor et al., 2007; Lam, 2006; 65 Manivasagan et al., 2005) with diverse biological activities like anticancer (Olano et al., 2009), 66 anti-inflammatory (Trischman et al., 1994), antibiotic (Pimentel-Elardo et al., 2010; Cheng et 67 al., 2015; Gandhimathi et al., 2008), cytotoxic (Abdelfattah et al., 2016) and enzyme inhibitory 68 (Manivasagan et al., 2015; Imada, 2005) activity. Watve et al. (2001) estimated that the genus 69 Streptomyces alone is capable of producing up to 10<sup>5</sup> different metabolites, majority of which 70 remain unexplored. Of 23,000 medicinally important metabolites produced by marine 71 microorganisms 70% are contributed by actinobacteria (Mahapatra et al., in press). Till date, 72 eight genera of actinobacteria have been reported to produce secondary metabolites and 267 73 products have been reported from 96 marine actinobacteria (Subramani and Sipkema, 2019)<sup>31</sup>.

74 Ecologically it is difficult to understand the production of extracellular metabolites or 75 enzymes by aquatic bacteria, since any molecule secreted outside the cell can be quickly 76 washed off. Extracellular products could be useful to the producer only in viscous or partially 77 enclosed environments. In the marine environment, sponges are likely to provide such closed 78 environment for bacteria. Sponges are filter feeders and collect small nutrient particles 79 including bacteria. This makes the environment locally nutrient rich in an otherwise 80 oligotrophic surroundings. Bacteria, especially actinobacteria, isolated from these sponges may 81 live in a symbiotic relationship that helps the host in defense against predation, sponge skeleton 82 stabilization, translocation of metabolites and help in nutritional process (Taylor et al., 2007; 83 Li et al., 2015; Montalvo et al., 2005; Pimentel-Elardo et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2015; 84 Gandhimathi et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2009; Thomas et al., 2010). In addition, since sponges are 85 sessile and lack other anti-predator defenses, secondary metabolites of bacteria can provide 86 them with chemical defense (Lee et al., 2001). Therefore, we expect more secondary metabolite 87 related activities from sponge-associated actinobacteria.

88 Sponge-associated actinobacteria are likely to have another ecological role. Among 89 actinobacteria at least three genera, namely Agromyces, Streptomyces and Streptoverticillium, 90 are shown to be predators that kill and feed on other live bacterial cells (Casida, 1980; 1983; 91 Kumbhar et al., 2014). Kumbhar and Watve (2013) argued that antibiotic activity might have 92 evolved primarily as a weapon in predation. However, the expression of secondary metabolites 93 during predation may be independent of antibiotic expression in pure culture; the latter is likely 94 to have evolved for mutualism with higher animal or plant hosts (Harir et al., 2018; Van der 95 Meij et al., 2017). Further, for a niche of predation in association with sponge, the predatory 96 species needs to protect itself from the digestive enzymes of the sponge as well as its own 97 enzymes used for predation. Therefore, predatory actinobacteria are also expected to have 98 efficient inhibitors of lytic enzymes.

99	In this study, we prepared an inventory of cultivable actinobacteria from sponges and
100	associated environments of intertidal zones along the northern parts of west coast of India and
101	studied their molecular diversity based on 16S rRNA gene sequences. We screened a subset of
102	randomly selected cultures for predatory activity, antibiotic production and enzyme inhibition
103	and tested their associations with each other and with the isolation source to test the hypotheses
104	mentioned earlier.

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#### 106 MATERIALS AND METHODS

## 107 Sample collection

108 Small tissue samples (less than one gram) of marine sponges were collected at the time of low 109 tide along Maharashtra and Goa coast (18–15°N and 73–74°E) of India during April 2014 to 110 October 2018 without damaging the sponge or its associated environment. Specimens were 111 rinsed and flushed with sterile media to remove debris and loosely attached microbes. Each 112 sponge sample was collected in labeled polystyrene tubes with lids containing sterile Poor 113 Ravan Saline (Watve et al., 2000) and ZoBell Marine broth (ZoBell, 1941). Sediment, water 114 and air samples were collected from the same environment as that of the sponge and were 115 collectively considered as environmental samples. The samples were brought to laboratory 116 maintaining cold chain and were immediately processed for microbial culturing.

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#### 118 Isolation and maintenance of cultivable actinobacteria

Each sample was subjected to pre-heat treatment at  $60^{\circ}$ C for 15 minutes to eliminate nonsporulating bacteria. Sponge tissue (0.1 cm<sup>3</sup>) was homogenized in sterile medium and vortexed for 5 minutes. Tubes were left undisturbed for two minutes. From the resulting supernatant serial 10 fold dilutions upto  $10^{-5}$  were made and 0.1 ml sample was spread into triplicates on petri plates containing sterile medium. We used two media the Zobell Marine Agar (ZMA) and 124 Poor Ravan Saline Agar (PRSA) with and without antibiotic chloramphenicol (25 µg/ml). 125 Plates were incubated at 30°C for 7 days in the case of ZMA and 21 days for PRSA. Plates 126 were observed regularly for the growth of actinobacteria. Bacterial colonies that showed 127 resemblance to actinobacteria under light microscope were purified several times on the 128 respective media. In all 207 actinobacterial isolates were selected and were re-streaked for 129 making pure cultures. Colonies were labeled as per Maharashtra Gene Bank (MGB) project 130 code and preserved on ZMA slants at 4°C for further use. Similarly, glycerol (18%) stocks 131 were prepared and maintained at -20°C for long term storage. Actinobacterial cultures are 132 deposited in the Microbial Culture Collection (MCC) of National Centre for Microbial 133 Resource, National Center for Cell Sciences, Pune, India (accession numbers are provided in 134 the Supplementary Table S1).

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#### 136 Genetic identification, phylogeny and species delimitation

137 Actinobacterial isolates were outsourced for near complete 16S rRNA gene sequencing. Gene 138 sequences used for the study are deposited in the GenBank database under the accession 139 numbers MN339687–MN339897. Sequences were checked in BLAST (Altschul et al., 1990) 140 to find the closest sequences available in the GenBank database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). 141 Four species of Firmicutes, namely Bacillus paralicheniformis (MCC 6306), B. thuringiensis 142 (MCC 7835), B. subtilis (MCC 6386) and B. halotolerans (MCC 8381), were used as outgroups 143 (GenBank accession numbers MN339894–MN339897 respectively). 144 Gene sequences were aligned using MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004) implemented in MEGA 7

146 was determined using ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017) based on Bayesian

(Kumar et al., 2016). Final aligned matrix had 1595 sites. Best nucleotide substitution model

147 information criterion (Schwarz, 1978; Nei and Kumar, 2000). Maximum likelihood analysis

148	was performed in IQ Tree (Nguyen et al., 2015) with ultrafast bootstrap support (Hoang et al.,
149	2018) for 1000 iterations. Phylogenetic tree was edited in FigTree v1.4.2 (Rambaut, 2009).
150	To understand putative number of actinobacterial species we performed species
151	delimitation based on Poisson Tree Processes (PTP) and Bayesian Poisson Tree Processes
152	(bPTP) methods (Zhang et al., 2013). Maximum likelihood tree was used to delimit species by
153	setting the parameter values as follows: MCMC generations = 100,000, Thinning = 100, Burn-
154	in = 0.1 and seed = 123.
155	We have identified all isolates up to genus level, while operational taxonomic units, in
156	terms of putative species, are provided based on PTP and bPTP methods (see Supplementary
157	Table S1). Only in the text, some isolates are assigned to known species based on BLAST
158	search and sequence identity more than 99%.
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#### 160 Screening for activities

161 Out of 207 actinobacterial isolates, 49 isolates were randomly selected for screening of three

162 activities, namely predation, antibiotic production and production of enzyme inhibition.

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## 164 Target bacteria used for predation and antibiotic screening

Test bacteria, used for checking actinobacterial predation and antibiotic production, were
obtained from MCC and National Collection of Industrial Microorganisms (NCIM), National
Chemistry Laboratory, Pune, India. Fourteen bacteria, namely *Acetobacter pasterianus* (NCIM)

168 2317), Alcaligenes fecalis (NCIM 2262), Bacillus subtilis (NCIM 2063), Enterobacter fecalis,

- 169 Escherichia coli (NCIM 2184), Klebsiella pneumonae (NCIM 2957), Micrococcus luteus
- 170 (NCIM 2673), Mycobacterium smegmatis (NCIM 5138), Proteus vulgaris (NCIM 2172),
- 171 Pseudominas aeruginosa (NCIM 5029), Salinicoccus roseus (MCC 7574), Salmonella

172 enterica (NCIM 2501), Serretia marcescens (NCIM 2919) and Staphylococcus aureus (NCIM

173 2121), were used as target species for screening.

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## 175 Screening for actinobacterial predatory growth

176 Growth of predator with the zone of clearance on prey cells was considered as predation as 177 defined earlier (Kumbhar et al., 2014). The method for the preparation of prey cells was 178 modified from Kumbhar et al. (2014). Pure cultures of the prey species were inoculated on 179 nutrient agar plates to check the purity and were later re-inoculated in nutrient broth. Inoculated 180 flasks were incubated at 37°C for 24 h. Broth was centrifuged at 7000 rpm for 10 minutes to 181 concentrate cells using Eppendorf centrifuge 5810R. Cells were washed thrice with sterile 182 distilled water to remove traces of nutrient broth. Pellet was suspended in saline to obtain a 183 thick suspension of optical density of 1.0 at 600 nm. Lawn of prey cells was spread on water 184 agarose plate and plates were incubated at 37°C for 40 minutes. Actinobacterial culture was 185 spot inoculated on pre incubated plates. These plates were incubated at room temperature for 186 48–72 h at 30°C. Plates with plaque were examined visually and by using 4x and 45x187 magnification under light microscope. Prey and predator control plates were used for 188 comparison. Each experiment consisted of triplicate sets of plates, as well as one predator 189 control for testing growth of actinobacterial predator without prey. In addition, there was a prey 190 control to demonstrate viable and independent growth of prey without predator. In either 191 controls there was no zone of clearance indicating there was no predation in the presence of 192 predator or prey alone.

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## 194 Screening for antibacterial activity using conventional cross streak method

195 Selected actinobacterial cultures were screened for antibacterial activity by cross streak method

196 (Velho-Pereira and Kamat, 2011; Valli et al., 2012). Test organism was streaked as a straight

line along the diagonal of the petri dish with sterile ZMA medium. The isolated pure colony of actinobacteria was inoculated as a single streak perpendicular to the central streak. Streaking was done from the edge of the plate to the test organism growth line. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 18 h. The microbial inhibition was observed by determining zone of clearance around the sensitive organisms. Control plates of the same medium with the streak of test bacteria and without the streak of actinobacteria growth was used to observe the normal growth of the test bacteria.

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## 205 Screening for enzyme inhibitors

206 Actinobacterial cultures were screened for their ability to inhibit the activity of serine proteases 207 and angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE). Three different serine proteases i.e., Subtilisin, 208 Trypsin and  $\alpha$ -Chymotrypsin were used for screening of inhibitory activity. Protease inhibitor 209 activity was studied using unprocessed X-ray films and spot-test method (Cheung, 1991) with 210 modifications. As described by Tripathi et al. (Tripathi et al., 2011), dilutions of pure enzyme 211 were first spotted on gelatine coated films. Lowest dilution showing complete clearance 212 (indicating complete digestion of gelatine) was chosen for further studies. Pure enzyme (100 213  $\mu$ g/ml) was incubated with equal quantity of cell free supernatant of actinobacterial isolates for 214 10 minutes and transferred to untreated X-ray-Fuji Medical X-ray, HRU grade-films. The 215 mixtures were allowed to react for 15 minutes at room temperature and results were recorded 216 after washing the x-ray films under running water. Unprocessed X-ray films contain a layer of 217 gelatine on their surface, which acts as a substrate for various proteolytic enzymes. Degradation 218 of gelatine gives a clear zone at the site of activity. Thus, upon action of the proteases, clear 219 zones were seen on unprocessed x-ray films, at the site of inoculation, whereas, if the gelatine 220 layer remains intact, no clearance is observed. No clearance on the films indicated presence of 221 protease inhibitors.

222 ACE acts on a specific substrate N-Hyppuryl-His-Leu (HHL) to liberate hippuric acid 223 and His-Leu. Liberated hippuric acid was detected spectrophotometrically. Upon reaction of 224 the enzyme with ACE inhibitors, the enzyme becomes inactive and this is measured in terms 225 of lower levels of hippuric acid released. Protocol suggested by Cushman and Cheung (1971) 226 was used with certain modifications and hippuric acid liberated was checked using method 227 suggested by Ng et al. (2008). Equal amount of ACE and cell free supernatants (10 µl each) 228 were allowed to react at 37°C. After 10 minutes 20 µl of HHL was added to the reaction mixture 229 and reaction was continued for 30 mins at  $37^{\circ}$ C. The reaction was stopped by addition of 40  $\mu$ l 230 of 1 N HCl. Blank was prepared by addition of HCl before addition of the substrate. Positive 231 enzyme control was prepared by incubating enzyme with un-inoculated broth. Liberated 232 hippuric acid was extracted in 90 µl ethyl acetate by vigorous shaking. Ethyl acetate layer was 233 collected in a fresh vial and allowed to dry in water bath of 50°C. The liberated hippuric acid 234 was diluted in 150 µl distilled water and absorbance was checked at 228 nm. Zero was adjusted 235 using distilled water. Test vials with more than 15% inhibition of ACE were considered as 236 positive for ACE inhibitor.

237

238 RESULTS

## 239 Actinobacterial phylogenetic diversity in sponge and associated environment

Actinobacteria from sponges and associated environments showed a rich phylogenetic diversity (Figure 1). We obtained 207 actinobacterial isolates, from sponge and associated environments, belonging to 16 families and 25 genera (Supplementary Table S1). Species delimitation based on Poisson Tree Processes (PTP) suggested that these isolates belong to 55 putative species, while Bayesian Poisson Tree Processes (bPTP) suggested 60 putative species. The two species delimitation methods, PTP and bPTP, differed in the groups of species under genera *Brevibacterium, Kocuria, Microbacterium* and *Streptomyces* (Supplementary Table

247 S1). Air was generally devoid of actinobacteria and we recovered only three isolates from air,

248 belonging to genera *Brachybacterium*, *Brevibacterium* and *Rhodococcus*, as compared to 36

249 isolates from water, 90 isolates from sediment and 78 isolates from sponge.

250 From sponges, 15 genera under 11 families belonging to 30 putative species based on 251 PTP and 33 putative species based on bPTP were recorded (Figure 1, Table 1). From the 252 sponge-associated environment, 21 genera under 14 families were recorded belonging to 40 253 putative species as per PTP and 42 putative species as per bPTP. A total of 11 genera under 8 254 families and 15 putative species that were common to both sponge and associated environment. 255 Four genera, namely Gordonia, Mycolicibacterium, Pseudonocardia and Rothia were isolated 256 only from sponges (Table 1), which could be identified to species Gordonia terrae (MCC 257 6452), Mycolicibacterium poriferae (MCC 6242), Pseudonocardia kongjuensis (MCC 7930) 258 and Rothia terrae (MCC 7823) respectively. Although 11 genera, namely Agrococcus, 259 Arthrobacter, Brachvbacterium, Brevibacterium, Kocuria, Microbacterium, Micrococcus, 260 Micromonospora, Nocardiopsis, Rhodococcus and Streptomyces, were isolated from both 261 sponges and associated habitats, most of these genera had some putative species that were 262 either exclusive to sponges or associated environments. In particular, 7 species, 263 Brachybacterium muris (MCC 7614), Brevibacterium casei (MCC 6140, MCC 6152, MCC 264 6176), Kocuria rhizophila (MCC 8384), Nocardiopsis salina (MCC 7931), Rhodococcus zopfii 265 (MCC 7934), Streptomyces smyrnaeus (MCC 7924) and Streptomyces viridobrunneus (MCC 266 7990), were recorded only from sponges.

With respect to both, the number of isolates and number of putative species, *Streptomyces* was the most dominant genus, which was found in both sponges and associated environments. *Nocardiopsis* was the second most common genus with two dominant species *Nocardiopsis alba* (MCC 8385) followed by *N. dassonvillei* (MCC 7845). Other genera, which were present in both sponge and environment include *Agrococcus, Arthrobacter*,

*Brevibacterium, Kocuria, Microbacterium* and *Micrococcus.* Among the genera and species that were recorded only from the environment, we provide first record of species such as *Aeromicrobium massiliense* (MCC 6739) and *Glutamicibacter mysorens* (MCC 7825) from marine waters.

276

277 Non-obligate epibiotic predatory activity. Out of the total 49 actinobacterial isolates 278 screened for non-obligate epibiotic predatory activity, 26 isolates showed predation on at least 279 one of the 14 target organisms (Supplementary Table S2). Of the 26 isolates with predatory 280 behavior, 17 preyed on Gram-negative prey, 21 preyed on Gram-positive prey, while 12 preyed 281 on both Gram- negative and Gram-positive prey. There was no significant difference (Mann-282 Whitney U = 15, P = 0.2601) in the frequency of actinobacterial predators on Gram-negative 283 and Gram-positive prey (Table 2). Most actinobacterial predators (n = 14) preved on a single 284 prey species while only a few predators preyed on multiple prey species with just a single 285 predator of the genus Streptomyces that preved on 8 prey species. There was a significant 286 association between the source of isolation (sponge or associated environment) and predatory behavior ( $\chi^2 = 6.200$ , P = 0.0128), where the isolates from sponge showed proportionately 287 288 more predatory behavior (Figure 2).

All eight isolates of *Streptomyces* used for screening showed predatory behavior and preyed on both Gram-negative and Gram-positive prey (Supplementary Table S2). Out of 25 isolates of *Nocardiopsis*, 12 showed predatory behavior, out of which 5 preyed on Gramnegative bacteria while 11 preyed on Gram-positive bacteria. Both the isolates of *Micromonospora* preyed on Gram-positive prey while only one preyed on Gram-negative prey. Isolates belonging to genera *Brevibacterium*, *Glutamicibacter* and *Rhodococcus* preyed only on Gram-negative prey while *Rothia* preyed only on Gram-positive prey.

297 Antibiosis, antibacterial activity and growth inhibition. Of the 49 actinobacterial isolates 298 screened for antibacterial activity, 25 showed antibiosis against at least one target organism 299 (Supplementary Table S2). Of these 25 isolates, all showed antibiosis against at least one of 300 the Gram-positive target species, while only five showed antibiosis against at least one of the 301 Gram-negative organisms. The frequency of antibacterial activity against Gram-positive 302 organisms was significantly higher (Mann-Whitney U = 1.5, P = 0.003) than those against 303 Gram-negative organisms (Table 2). Most antibacterial activities were broad spectrum with 304 respect to the target organisms that they affected. There were 10 actinobacterial isolates that 305 showed antibiosis against two target organisms, 6 isolates that affected 4 target species and 2 306 isolates that affected 6 target species. There was no association between antibacterial activity 307 and the source (sponge or associated environment) of the isolation ( $\chi^2 = 2.543$ , P = 0.111).

Out of eight isolates of *Streptomyces* that were screened for antibacterial activity, five showed antibiosis, of which two showed antibiosis against Gram-negative target species, while all showed antibiosis against Gram-positive organisms. In the case of *Nocardiopsis*, of the 25 isolates used for screening 17 showed antibiosis, of which all affected growth of Gram-positive organisms, while only two affected growth of Gram-negative organisms. Genus *Kytococcus* showed antibiosis that affected both Gram-positive as well as Gram-negative organisms, while *Glutamicibacter* and *Rothia* showed antibiosis against Gram-positive organisms only.

315

Enzyme inhibition. Out of 49 actinobacterial isolates screened for inhibition of four enzymes, 30 isolates inhibited at least one of the enzyme (Supplementary Table S2). Of these 30 isolates, 28 inhibited trypsin, 24 inhibited chymotrypsin, three inhibited angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) and only two inhibited subtilisin. Venn diagram of frequency of isolates inhibiting different enzymes (Figure 3) suggested that five isolates inhibited only trypsin and one isolate each inhibited chymotrypsin and ACE, while subtilisin inhibition was accompanied by

inhibition of other enzymes. No isolate inhibited all four enzymes. Out of 30 actinobacteria that produced enzyme inhibitors, 19 produced two inhibitors, four produced three inhibitors while seven produced only one of the four inhibitors. There was no association between the enzyme inhibition and source of the actinobacterial isolate ( $\chi^2 = 2.2252$ , P = 0.1358). Out of eight isolates of *Streptomyces* seven produced enzyme inhibitors against proteases, while 12 out of 25 isolates of *Nocardiopsis* produced enzyme inhibitors of which 11

328 produced against proteases and two produced against ACE (Table 3). One isolate of

329 *Actinomycetospora* inhibited activity of ACE.

330

Associations between different activities. Out of 49 actinobacterial isolates that were screened for activities, 39 showed at least one of the three activities. Of these 39 isolates, 15 showed all three activities, while nine showed predation as well as enzyme inhibition (Figure 4). There were only seven isolates that showed predation and antibiotic production against the same target organism (Table 2) and all these isolates belonged to genera *Streptomyces* and *Nocardiopsis*.

Antibiotic production showed no significant association with predation ( $\chi^2 = 2.4522$ , P 337 = 0.11736) or any of the four enzyme inhibition ( $\chi^2$  = 0.98702, P = 0.32047). However, there 338 339 were significant associations between predation and protease inhibitors (Figure 5). There were 340 24 isolates that showed both predation as well as inhibition of at least one enzyme and there was a significant association between the two activities ( $\chi^2 = 22.543$ , P < 0.0001), where 341 342 predators proportionately produced more enzyme inhibitors than non-predators (Figure 5a). 343 There were 23 actinobacterial isolates that showed predation as well as trypsin inhibition and there was a significant association between the two ( $\chi^2 = 22.185$ , P < 0.0001) with predators 344 345 more likely to produce trypsin inhibitors than non-predators (Figure 5b). Similarly, 24 346 actinobacteria were predators as well as inhibited chymotrypsin activity and there was a significant association between the two ( $\chi^2 = 41.612$ , P < 0.0001) with predators more likely to produce chymotrypsin inhibitors than non-predators (Figure 5c).

349

#### 350 **DISCUSSION**

351 Sponges and associated environment in northern parts of western coast of India are rich in 352 actinobacterial diversity with about 60 putative species under 16 families and 25 genera. We 353 recorded 11 species of actinobacteria only from sponges. Out of these, Mycobacterium 354 poriferae was originally described from marine sponge (Padgitt and Moshier, 1987), while 355 three species, Gordonia terrae (Elfalah et al., 2013; Santos et al., 2019; Montalvo et al., 2005), 356 Brevibacterium casei (Kiran et al., 2010) and Kocuria rhizophila (Palomo et al., 2013), have 357 been previously reported from sponges. To our knowledge, we provide first report of species, 358 namely Brachybacterium murisi, Nocardiopsis salina, Pseudonocardia kongjuensis, 359 *Rhodococcus zopfii, Rothia terrae, Streptomyces smyrnaeus* and *Streptomyces viridobrunneus*, 360 from marine sponges, although some of them are known from marine habitats (Stach et al., 361 2003; Satheeja and Jebakumar, 2011).

362 Streptomyces was the most dominant genus among the isolates, which agrees with the 363 findings of Zhang et al. (2008). Genus Nocardiposis, with its two species N. alba and N. 364 dassonvillei, has been suggested (Bennur et al., 2015) as the second common genus after 365 Streptomyces and that too agrees with our findings. Further, report of most genera, including 366 Agrococcus, Arthrobacter, Brevibacterium, Kocuria, Microbacterium and Micrococcus, from 367 sponges in our study are consistent with previous reports from other study areas including 368 South China Sea (Li et al., 2015), Yellow Sea (Zhang et al., 2008), Mediterranean Sea (Cheng 369 et al., 2015), coast of Florida in USA (Montalvo, 2005) and northern coast of Brazil (Menezes 370 et al., 2010) indicating that there are common trends in the discovery of actinobacteria from 371 sponges.

Among the first reports from marine environment from our study, *Aeromicrobium massiliense* and *Glutamicibacter mysorens* are known from human fecal microbiota (Ramasamy et al., 2012) and sewage (Nand and Rao, 1972) respectively. Presence of these two species in the sediments along the collection site Harne (17.81°N, 73.09°E) likely suggests fecal pollution in this area.

377 Although predation is a widespread behavior in bacterial kingdom,  $\delta$ -proteobacteria of 378 the orders Myxococcales and Bdellovibrionales have received more attention (Jurkevitch, 379 2007) as compared to other taxa, especially the Gram-positive bacteria such as actinobacteria. 380 Among actinobacteria only three genera, namely Agromyces, Streptomyces and 381 Streptoverticillium, are known to have predatory behavior against other bacterial species 382 (Casida, 1980; 1983; 1988; Kumbhar et al., 2014; Zeph and Casida, 1986). In the current study, 383 for the first time, we show predation in six other genera of actinobacteria, namely 384 Brevibacterium, Glutamicibacter, Micromonospora, Nocardiopsis, Rhodococcus and Rothia. 385 Kumbhar et al. (2014) argued that predatory behavior is widespread in genus *Streptomyces* and 386 even in the current study we observed that all the isolates of *Streptomyces* used for screening 387 showed predation on Gram-positive as well as Gram-negative prey.

388 Since sponges are sessile and lack other anti-predator defenses, it has been suggested 389 that secondary metabolites of bacteria can provide sponges with chemical defense (Lee et al., 390 2001; Kumbhar and Watve, 2013). However, we did not observe any significant association 391 between the source of actinobacterial isolation and antibiotic production, suggesting that 392 isolates even from environment were equally likely to produce antimicrobials as that of the 393 isolates recovered from sponges. However, there was a significant association between the 394 source of isolation and predatory activity, with proportionately more predators among the 395 isolates recovered from sponge. Ecologically this makes sense. As the sponges are filter feeders 396 and have regular intake of environmental bacteria, sponge associated actinobacteria will have

better predation opportunities. It is also possible that the predatory activity of sponge associated
actinobacteria, could have evolved as a mutualistic activity as it can defend sponges from
pathogenic bacterial invasions.

400 Actinobacteria are known to produce several enzyme inhibitors (Manivasagan et al., 401 2015; Imada, 2005). However, for the first time we show a strong association between 402 predation and enzyme inhibition, specifically inhibition of trypsin and chymotrypsin, where 403 predators produced proportionality more enzyme inhibitors as compared to non predators. 404 Predators themselves are known to produce a variety of hydrolytic enzymes for degrading the 405 prey (Pérez et al., 2016). Therefore, it is possible that the production of enzyme inhibitors 406 safeguards their own cells from being target of the enzyme. It is also possible that enzyme 407 inhibitors also protect the actinobacteria from hydrolytic enzymes produced from the sponge 408 host and other microbiota.

An interesting observation that we made, when comparing the predation and antibiotic production by actinobacteria, was that, while predation was equally effective against Grampositive as well as Gram-negative target species, antibiotic production was mainly effective against Gram-positive bacteria. It is therefore possible that studying the predatory behavior of actinobacteria and predation specific metabolites could lead to discovery of novel therapeutic agents that are more broad-spectrum.

Although actinobacteria are known to be rich in secondary metabolites, extracellular enzymes and enzyme inhibitors, the ecological role of these extracellular bioactive molecules is little known. We suggest that studying the ecological correlates of bioactivity and the intercorrelation patterns of different types of bioactivity can be a useful tool in understanding the ecological origins of bioactivity and testing alternative ecological hypotheses.

420

## 422 CONCLUSION

423 Sponges and associated environments of intertidal zones, along the northern parts of west coast 424 of India, are rich in actinobacterial diversity with 16 families and 25 genera, which could be 425 attributed to 55 putative species using PTP and 60 putative species based on bPTP methods. 426 Although, at the genus level, the trends in the discovery of actinobacteria isolated from sponges 427 was consistent with previous studies from different study areas, we provide first report of six 428 species, namely Brachybacterium murisi, Nocardiopsis salina, Pseudonocardia kongjuensis, 429 Rhodococcus zopfii, Rothia terrae. Streptomyces smvrnaeus and Streptomyces 430 viridobrunneus,. Non-obligate epibiotic predatory behavior was widespread among 431 actinobacterial genera and we provide first report of predatory activity in Brevibacterium, 432 Glutamicibacter, Micromonospora, Nocardiopsis, Rhodococcus and Rothia. Sponges 433 associated actinobacteria showed significantly more predatory behavior than environmental 434 isolates, and we hypothesize that predatory actinobacteria might provide sponges with defense 435 against pathogenic bacteria. While antibiotic produced from actinobacterial isolates affected 436 Gram-positive target bacteria with little to no effect on Gram-negative bacteria, predation 437 targeted both Gram-positive and Gram-negative prey with equal propensity, suggesting that 438 study of predation specific metabolites might provide novel therapeutic agents with broad-439 spectrum. Actinobacterial isolates from both sponge and associated environment produced 440 inhibitors of serine proteases and angiotensin converting enzyme. Predatory behavior was 441 strongly associated with inhibition of trypsin and chymotrypsin, which might be helpful for the 442 actinobacteria for overcoming effects of proteolytic enzymes produced by sponge host and 443 other microbiota. Understanding diversity and associations among various actinobacterial 444 activities, with each other and the source of isolation, can provide new insights in marine 445 microbial ecology and provide opportunities to isolate novel therapeutic agents.

446

#### 448 DATA AVAILABILITY

- 449 Sequences of 16S rRNA gene of studied isolates are submitted to GenBank NCBI under the
- 450 accession numbers MN339687-MN339897. All the data used for analysis is provided in
- 451 supplementary information.
- 452

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## 461 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

- 462 M.W., U.B. and N. Deshpande conceived and designed the study. U.B., N.S., K.H., A.P., U.L.,
- 463 T.G., K.P., A.J., R.S., H.V and V.T. performed the study. N. Dahanukar and M.W. analyzed
- the data. N. Dahanukar, U.B. and M.W. wrote the manuscript with inputs from other authors.

465 All authors contributed to the proofreading of the manuscript.

466

#### 467 Additional information

- 468 Supplementary information: Supplementary Table S1 and Table S2 accompanies the online
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- 663 aerobes. J. Mar. Res. 4, 41–75.
- 664

- 665 **Table 1.** Putative number of species of actinobacterial genera based on PTP and bPTP methods
- 666 isolated from sponge, associate environment and both sources.

# 667

Family	Genus	Sponge		Environment		Both	
Family		PTP	bPTP	PTP	bPTP	PTP	bPTP
Actinomycetaceae	Streptomyces	7	8	8	9	4	5
Brevibacteriaceae	Brevibacterium		6	2	2	1	1
Cellulomonadaceae	Cellulomonas	0	0	1	1	0	0
Dermabacteraceae	Brachybacterium	1	1	2	2	0	0
Dietziaceae	Dietzia	0	0	1	1	0	0
Geodermatophilaceae	Klenkia	0	0	1	1	0	0
Gordoniaceae	Gordonia	1	1	0	0	0	0
Intrasporangiaceae	Janibacter	0	0	2	2	0	0
	Knoellia	0	0	1	1	0	0
	Kytococcus	0	0	1	1	0	0
Microbacteriaceae	Agrococcus	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Curtobacterium	0	0	1	1	0	0
	Microbacterium	1	1	1	2	1	1
Micrococcaceae	Arthrobacter	1	1	2	2	1	1
	Glutamicibacter	0	0	1	1	0	0
	Kocuria	3	4	4	4	2	1
	Micrococcus	1	1	2	2	1	1
	Rothia	1	1	0	0	0	0
Micromonosporaceae	Micromonospora	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mycobacteriaceae	Mycolicibacterium	1	1	0	0	0	0
Nocardiaceae	Rhodococcus	2	2	2	2	1	1
Nocardioidaceae	Aeromicrobium	0	0	1	1	0	0
Nocardiopsaceae	e <i>Nocardiopsis</i>		3	3	3	2	2
Pseudonocardiaceae	Pseudonocardiaceae Actinomycetospora		0	2	2	0	0
	Pseudonocardia	1	1	0	0	0	0
	Total	30	33	40	42	15	15

668

669

671 **Table 2.** Predation and antibiotic production by actinobacteria against the Gram positive and

# 672 Gram negative target species.

673

Target species	Predation	Antibiotic	Predation and Antibiotic by same actinobacterial isolate
Gram positive			
Mycobacterium smegmatis	3	12	0
Micrococcus luteus	8	5	0
Bacillus subtilis	1	24	1
Staphylococcus aureus	17	9	4
Salinicoccus roseus	9	3	0
Enterococcus faecalis	3	20	1
Gram negative			
Acetobacter pasterianus	7	0	0
Alcaligenes faecalis	3	1	1
Escherichia coli	2	5	0
Klebsiella pneumoniae	3	0	0
Proteus vulgaris	8	0	0
Salmonella enterica	2	0	0
Serratia marcescens	3	0	0
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	1	0	0

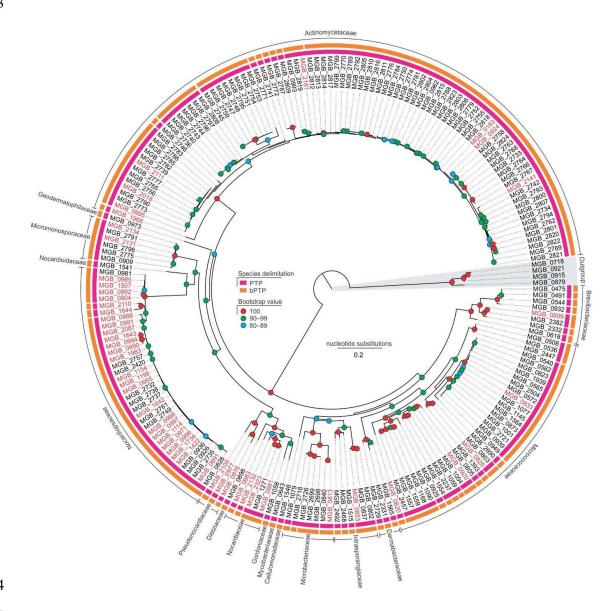
674

**Table 3.** Frequency of actinobacterial isolates producing four different enzyme inhibitors.

## 

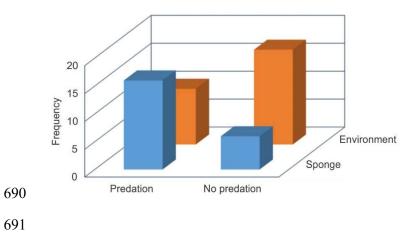
	Number of isolates	Freq	Isolates with at least one			
Genus		Subtilisin	Trypsin	Chymotrypsin	ACE	inhibition activity
Actinomycetospora	2	0	1	0	1	2
Agrococcus	1	0	0	0	0	0
Brevibacterium	1	0	1	1	0	1
Glutamicibacter	1	0	1	1	0	1
Kocuria	1	0	0	0	0	0
Kytococcus	1	0	1	0	0	1
Micrococcus	1	0	1	0	0	1
Micromonospora	2	0	2	2	0	2
Nocardiopsis	25	0	11	11	2	12
Pseudonocardia	1	0	0	0	0	0
Rhodococcus	4	0	2	1	0	2
Rothia	1	0	1	1	0	1
Streptomyces	8	2	7	7	0	7

- 680 **Figure 1.** Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of actinobacterial isolates based on TIM3+R6
- 681 nucleotide substitution model. Firmicutes belonging to genus *Bacillus* were used as outgroups.
- 682 Sequence codes in red were used for screening.
- 683

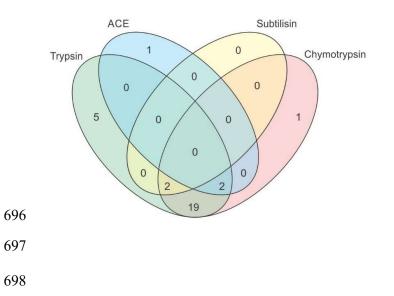


- 686 Figure 2. Association between source of actinobacterial isolation on their predatory behavior.
- 687 There was a significant association between the source (sponge or associated environment) of
- 688 actinobacterial isolation and predation ( $\chi^2 = 6.200$ , P = 0.0128).

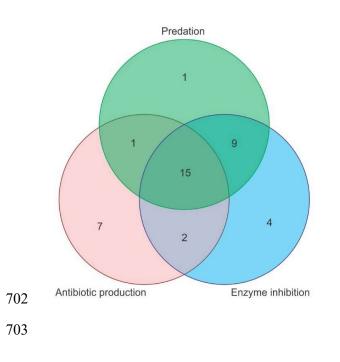
689



- 693 Figure 3. Venn diagrams combination of enzyme inhibitors produced by actinobacterial
- 694 isolates. Venn diagrams is not to scale.



- 699 Figure 4. Venn diagrams of predation, antibiotic production and enzyme inhibition by
- 700 actinobacterial isolates. Venn diagrams is not to scale.
- 701



- 704 Figure 5. Association between enzyme inhibition and predation in actinobacterial isolates.
- 705 Predation was significantly associated with (a) inhibition of any one of the four enzymes tested
- ( $\chi^2$  = 22.543, P < 0.0001), (b) inhibition of trypsin ( $\chi^2$  = 22.185, P < 0.0001) and (c) inhibition 706
- of chymotrypsin ( $\chi^2 = 41.612$ , P < 0.0001). 707
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