Iron-meditated fungal starvation by lupine rhizosphere-associated and extremotolerant

Streptomyces sp. S29 desferrioxamine production

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ABSTRACT

Siderophores are iron-chelating compounds that aid iron uptake, one of the key strategies

for microorganisms to carve out ecological niches in microbially diverse environments.

Desferrioxamines are the principal siderophores produced by *Streptomyces* spp. Their

biosynthesis has been well studied and as a consequence, the chemical potential of the

pathway continues to expand. With all of this in mind, our study aimed to explore

extremotolerant and Lupine rhizosphere-derived *Streptomyces* sp. S29 for its potential

antifungal capabilities. Cocultivation of isolate S29 was carried out with *Aspergillus niger*

and *Botrytis cinerea*, both costly fungal phytopathogens in the wine industry, to simulate

their interaction within the rhizosphere. The results indicate that not only is *Streptomyces*

sp. S29 extraordinary at producing hydroxamate siderophores but uses siderophore

production as a means to 'starve' the fungi of iron. High resolution LC-MS/MS followed

by GNPS molecular networking was used to observe the datasets for desferrioxamines

and guided structure elucidation of new desferrioxamine analogues. Comparing the new

chemistry, using tools like molecular networking and MS2LDA, with the known

biosynthesis, we show that the chemical potential of the desferrioxamine pathway has

further room for exploration.

INTRODUCTION

The application of *Streptomyces* secondary metabolites goes beyond drug discovery, as they are one of the most important bacteria for crop protection. Their biotechnological application as rhizosphere or endophytic bacteria is proven to confer protection against soilborne pathogens like fungi, nematodes, and other bacteria.[1,2] They serve as an important factor in 'disease suppressive soils', with several mechanisms of action including synthesis of plant growth regulators[3], antibiotic production[2], secretion of volatile compounds[4], and siderophore production.[5] The last of these is not only a way for bacteria to uptake vital metals from the surrounding soil but also to sequester metals in order to gain a competitive edge against other soilborne organisms.

Rhizosphere-associated microbes are one of the many strategies currently being explored as biocontrol agents. Bacterial communities in the rhizosphere contribute to the extremely complex flow of nutrients as well as the export of antibiotics and other secondary metabolites into the soil.[6,7] Model organisms from genera like *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas* have traditionally been promising sources due to their association to the soil and their production of secondary metabolites like lipopeptides but also plant growth promotors.[8,9] Actinobacteria, which are also predominantly soil-associated microbes, have also been explored as biocontrol agents due to their prolific antimicrobial potential.[10] This combined with the fact that extremotolerant microbes have adapted to the harsh conditions and the potential of these adaptations to be translatable to biotechnologies, extremotolerant microbes look to be promising sources as biocontrol agents.[11] In Chile, the wine industry is the main agricultural export, estimated at ~$2 billion USD in 2017[12],

thus driving a large research interest around protection of wine-producing grapes against

various phytopathogens.

Siderophores are iron-chelating compounds that aid metal uptake in iron deficient

environments.[13] These secondary metabolites are produced by all microbes and four

types of siderophore-mediated social interactions have been observed: uptake among

clonal cells (sharing), cheating or piracy (which can only happen amongst microbes with

the same uptake receptor), competition via locking away and metabolite competition

(whichever microbe makes the most cost efficient and effective chelator).[14]

Desferrioxamines (DFO) are the most widely observed group of siderophores in

Streptomyces spp., used principally for Fe(III) scavenging[13,15], as well as some other

heavy metals.[16–18] Since the vast majority of organisms require Fe(III) in order to maintain

proper cell wall function[13], as one scavenges for itself, it simultaneously starves other

competing organisms, rendering them potentially unviable.

The biosynthetic machinery of desferrioxamines has been well studied[19–21] and as

a consequence, the chemical potential continues to expand. The substrate specificity of

DesC-like proteins, similar to acyl CoA-dependent transferases, seems to be the key

factor in producing diverse desferrioxamine scaffolds.[19,21] It has been shown that DesC

can accommodate for acetyl, succinyl, and myristol-CoA, with the latter providing insight

into the production of acyl desferrioxamines.[19] Additionally, aryl desferrioxamines, first

isolated from *Micrococcus luteus* KLE1011[22] and later from *Streptomyces* sp*.* MA37[23],

showed further substrate flexibility, where the latter communication described a new

biosynthetic gene cluster (BGC) which contained a DesC homolog (LgoC). This enzyme

promiscuity fits ideally with the Screening Hypothesis first proposed by Firn and Jones;

secondary metabolism stems from metabolic pathways that 'maximize diversity and

minimize cost'.[24]

Due to the modular nature of desferrioxamines and the presence of peptide bonds

throughout their structure, mass spectrometry-based studies have been utilized

extensively to not only study their biological impact but also for elucidation of new

structures. Previous studies have established standard fragmentation patterns of these

siderophores, even as far as elucidating new structures solely based on mass

spectrometry.[25–31] This standardized fragmentation makes the discovery of siderophores

much easier thanks to metabolomics-based tools like molecular networking, like Global

Natural Products Social Molecular Networking (GNPS). Molecular networking allows for

correlations to be drawn within your dataset and against the GNPS library that relates

similar MS/MS spectra to one another, forming clusters or families of similar features.[32]

With all of this in mind, our study originally aimed to explore extremotolerant,

rhizosphere-derived *Streptomyces* sp. S29, a novel strain, for antifungal secondary

metabolites. Cocultivation of S29 with *Aspergillus niger* and *Botrytis cinerea*, both costly

fungal phytopathogens in the wine industry, were carried out in a fashion to allow S29 to

dominate the culture, thus eliciting a chemical response from the addition of each fungus.

Bioassay-guided fractionation lead to no lead compounds as potential antifungal agents

yet post-fermentation streaks of inoculum showed no fungal growth. High resolution LC-

MS/MS followed by GNPS molecular networking was used to analyse the data sets. The

results indicated that not only is *Streptomyces* sp. S29 extraordinary at producing

hydroxamate siderophores, totalling 24 new analogues and 8 previously identified ones

confirmed through MS/MS structure elucidation, but uses siderophore production as a

means to 'starve' the fungi of iron. When grown in coculture with the fungi, 22 additional

new analogues and 17 additional previously described were identified, clearly showing a

chemical response to the fungi in culture environment. Using MS2LDA to further explore

desferrioxamine chemical space, we observed that it is potentially 2.5 times larger than

previously anticipated. These results point to the potential of *Streptomyces* sp. S29 as a

biocontrol agent to prevent fungal infection and the potential for new desferrioxamine

chemistry.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

***Streptomyces* sp. S29 cocultivation and LC-MS of desferrioxamine-rich fractions.**

Preliminary fungal bioassay screening of the lupine rhizosphere *Streptomyces* culture collection showed a novel strain, *Streptomyces* sp. S29, inhibited the growth of *Botrytis cinerea* when grown in coculture on solid medium (Figure 1). In an attempt to induce production of antifungal metabolites, the bacteria and fungi were cocultivated in liquid culture in a fashion to allow for *Streptomyces* sp. to be the dominant microbe. Bioassay guided fractionation of the *sec*-butanol fraction lead to no antifungal leads even though inhibition was observed against *B. cinerea* only (Figure S6). Upon LC-MS and ^{1}H NMR analysis of the extracts, a profusion of DFOs was observed in all *sec*-butanol fractions, leading to the hypothesis that this *Streptomyces* sp. uses a different mechanism than producing antimycotics to combat the fungal cocultivate, as seen previously in human bacterial infections.[33] DFOs historically have never exhibited antimicrobial activity and therefore we confidently presume they are not responsible for the inhibition seen in Figure S6.[34] *Streptomyces* sp. S29 was also grown in monoculture on iron deficient medium to induce production of DFOs in an attempt to compare siderophore production to the coculture experiments. *Aspergillus niger* and *Botrytis cinerea* were chosen as the fungal phytopathogens due to their established pathology of wine producing grapes [35,36] and the importance of wine as Chile's main agricultural export. Additionally, these fungi would be encountered in *Streptomyces* sp. S29's ecological niche, making this an important evaluation of microbes it would encounter in the soil environment.

Figure 1. Preliminary antifungal screening on *Streptomyces* isolate S29 (right) grown with *Botrytis cinerea* (left). Image courtesy of Diego Lagos-Susaeta.

Extracts and fractions were evaluated for the presence of two DFOs (B and D1)

during the fractionation steps, in order to trace the fractions that contained the highest

abundance of siderophores. Presence of DFOs was further evaluated at the final stages

of separation based on the molecular families generated from molecular networking,

utilizing the known DFOs in the GNPS library as anchor points, which further aided

structure elucidation. Based on the LC-MS results, the butanol partitions contained the

largest abundance of DFOs, and therefore this data was used to generate a molecular

network using GNPS.

Molecular networking and MS/MS based structure elucidation. The molecular

network generated contained 1169 molecular features after removal of features

originating from media and instrument blanks. Each subnetwork was approached using

GNPS library hits as 'anchors' (hexagons in each subnetwork) and then collecting the

masses of linked nodes and predicting molecular formula from the raw data. Using these

'anchors' not only allows one to relate the nodes directly connected to the anchor, but

also gives broader sense of the molecular nature of a cluster. The hydroxamate

siderophores were primarily distributed amongst three principle molecular families

(Figures 2-4). Subnetwork 1 (Figure 2) contained a number of new acyl DFO D-like

analogues that are first described in this study as well as new analogues of acyl DFO B-

like derivatives. Subnetwork 2 (Figure 3) is mostly composed of unknown derivatives

although a suite of new macrocyclised DFOs and tenacibactin derivatives, first described

by Jang et al. [37], were observed. The last principle subnetwork contained various Fe(III)

and Al(III) complexed FOs (Figure 6). Within this network a new analogue was identified,

uC_{12} acyl FO-B, while its non-chelated form was not observed in the data (Figure S32).

Aryl desferrioxamines related to the previously described acyl ferrioxamine 1 (also

known as legonoxamine A) and 2 were also found distributed amongst varying molecular

families across the molecular network and do not seem to link into their own cluster like

seen for the DFO-Ds and DFO-Bs. For the remaining small molecular families that contain

DFOs, we observed a group of sodiated adducts, large acyl DFO-Bs, as well as the

macrocyclised desferrioxamine E (Figure S1). The remaining nodes that link within the

desferrioxamine molecular families were unable to be identified using the annotation

workflow described in Figure 4.

Figure 2. Desferrioxamine subnetwork 1. Distributed amongst the molecular family are DFO-Bs (blue), DFO-Ds (red), and aryl DFOs (purple). Grey nodes represent potential DFOs that were not able to be annotated using MS/MS data only.

Figure 3. Desferrioxamine subnetwork 2. Within the molecular family are macrocyclised DFOs (green) as well as a number of new tenacibactin derivatives (orange). Grey nodes represent potential DFOs that were not able to be annotated using MS/MS data only.

MS/MS based structure elucidation was carried out in a similar fashion to studies

conducted previously (Figure 4).[25–28] Early observations of desferrioxamine B and D1

fragmentation showed an initial loss of the N-terminus, corresponding to the loss of either

118.1 or 160.1. Using this as a foundation, structures were either started with a *N*-

hydroxycadaverine or a *N*-hydroxy-*N*-acetylcadaverine, respectively. The remainder of

structure elucidation was completed stepwise: (1) predicting the molecular formula from

the accurate mass and collection of MS/MS data, (2) filling out the structures with

appropriate desferrioxamine precursors (i.e. *N*-hydroxycadaverine, putrescine, succinate,

acetate, etc.), and (3) taking the remainder of the molecular formula and placing an

appropriate acid at the C-terminus that either has precedent from previous studies or

could be a potential binding partner with an acyltransferase like coenzyme A.

Figure 4. Molecular network and MS/MS based structure determination. (A) molecular networks generated using GNPS were dereplicated and potentially unknown ions were found in the Raw data. (B) Predicted molecular formula were generated and the most likely candidate formula was chosen. MS/MS spectra were analysed for the initial loss of -118 or -160 to determine the N-terminal moiety of *N*-hydroxycadaverine or *N*-acetylhydroxycadaverine, respectively. (C) Based on known structure of desferrioxamines, substructures were proposed for each new metabolite and lastly, (D) putative structures were confirmed using the MS/MS data.

Overall, 46 new DFO analogues were identified in the molecular network and

through manual data processing (Table 1). These range from short acyl chain DFO-Bs,

acyl desferrioxamine D-like (DFO-D) analogues which have not previously been

described, tenacibactins, aryl DFOs, macrocylised DFOs, and long chain dicarboxylate

DFOs (Table 1). Additionally, 25 known hydroxamate siderophores were detected,

including known acyl, aryl DFOs and bisucaberins, giving further credence to the new

structure assignments. Their identification and observed presence in monoculture and/or

coculture are present in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of siderophores identified using molecular networking and manual observations of the data. Nomenclature that are italicized were identified in this study.

	Name	Measured mass [M+H]+	Theoretical mass [M+H]+	Δ ppm	Sum formula [+H]+	Monoculture	Reference
cyclic desferrioxamines	Bisu-03	429.2344	429.2342	-0.46	$C_{19}H_{33}N_4O_7$		Senges et al.
	Bisu-01	443.2495	443.2500	-1.13	$C_{20}H_{35}N_4O_7$		Senges et al.
	Bisu-10	457.2660	457.2657	0.65	$C_{21}H_{37}N_4O_7$	*	*This study*
	Bisu-11	499.3110	499.3126	-3.20	$C_{24}H_{43}N_4O_7$	*	*This study*
	Bisu-12	513.3310	513.3283	5.25	$C_{25}H_{45}N_4O_7$	*	*This study*
	Bisu-13	527.3450	527.3439	2.08	$C_{26}H_{47}N_4O_7$	*	*This study*
	Bisu-14	583.4050	583.4065	-2.57	$C_{30}H_{55}N_4O_7$		*This study*
	desferrioxamine E	601.3557	601.3556	0.17	$C_{27}H_{49}N_6O_9$		
aryl desferrioxamines	legonoxamine B	337.1754	337.1758	-1.19	$C_{17}H_{25}N_2O_5$		Maglangit et al.
	legonoxamine C	351.1912	351.1914	-0.57	$C_{18}H_{37}N_4O_5$		*This study*
	legonoxamine D	437.2755	437.2758	-0.69	$C_{22}H_{37}N_4O_5$		*This study*
	legonoxamine E	537.2924	537.2919	0.93	$C_{26}H_{41}N_4O_8$	*	*This study*
	legonoxamine F	551.3088	551.3075	2.36	$C_{27}H_{43}N_4O_8$		*This study*
	legonoxamine G	623.3764	623.3763	0.16	$C_{30}H_{51}N_6O_8$	*	*This study*
	acyl-ferrioxamine 1/ legonoxamine A	637.3917	637.3919	-0.31	$C_{31}H_{53}N_6O_8$	*	D'Onofrio et al; Maglangit et al.
	legonoxamine H	665.3893	665.3869	3.61	$C_{32}H_{53}N_6O_9$		*This study*
	acyl-ferrioxamine 2	679.4025	679.4025	0.00	$C_{33}H_{55}N_6O_9$	*	D'Onofrio et al.
	legonoxamine A glycoside	799.4456	799.4448	1.00	$C_{37}H_{63}N_6O_{13}$	*	*This study*
DFO-Bs	*un-pre[5+5*]*	431.2500	431.2520	-4.63	$C_{19}H_{35}N_4O_7$		*This study*
	pre[5+5*]	433.2662	433.2657	-1.15	$C_{19}H_{37}N_4O_7$		Rütschlin et al.
	pre[5+5] aldehyde*	447.2450	447.2449	0.22	$C_{19}H_{35}N_4O_8$		*This study*
	pre[ha+5+5*]	517.3221	517.3232	-2.12	$C_{24}H_{45}N_4O_8$		Rütschlin et al.
	abloxime / IC202C	517.3347	517.3344	0.58	$C_{23}H_{45}N_6O_7$	*	Iijima et al.
	proferrioxamine G1t	519.3495	519.3501	-1.16	$C_{23}H_{47}N_6O_7$		Feistner et al.
	DesuA1	545.3658	545.3657	0.18	$C_{25}H_{49}N_6O_7$	*	Senges et al.
	DesA1	547.3449	547.3450	-0.18	$C_{24}H_{47}N_6O_8$	*	Senges et al.
	Des A2 / IC202B	557.2880	557.2881	-0.18	$C_{23}H_{43}N_6O_8Al$		Iijima et al.
	desferrioxamine B	561.3602	561.3606	-0.71	$C_{25}H_{49}N_6O_8$	*	
	desferrioxamine N /desf-05	575.3762	575.3763	-0.17	$C_{26}H_{51}N_6O_8$	*	Ejje et al; Senges et al.
	C3 acyl DFO-B	589.3915	589.3919	-0.68	$C_{27}H_{53}N_6O_8$	*	*This study*
	C4 acyl DFO-B	603.4073	603.4076	-0.49	$C_{28}H_{55}N_6O_8$	*	*This study*
	C5 acyl DFO-B	617.4233	617.4232	0.16	$C_{29}H_{57}N_6O_8$	*	*This study*
	C4 acyl hydroxylated DFO-B	619.4024	619.4025	-0.16	$C_{29}H_{55}N_6O_9$	*	*This study*
	uC6 acyl DFO-B	629.4238	629.4232	0.95	$C_{30}H_{57}N_6O_8$		*This study*
	C6 acyl DFO-B	631.4388	631.4389	-0.16	$C_{30}H_{59}N_6O_8$	*	*This study*
	uC7 acyl DFO-B	643.4389	643.4389	0.00	$C_{31}H_{59}N_6O_8$		*This study*
	C7 acyl-DFO	645.4550	645.4545	0.77	$C_{31}H_{61}N_6O_8$		Traxler et al; Sidebottom et al.
	C8 acyl-DFO	659.4697	659.4702	-0.76	$C_{32}H_{63}N_6O_8$		Traxler et al; Sidebottom et al.

	Name	Measured mass [M+H]+	Theoretical mass [M+H]+	Δ ppm	Sum formula [+H]+	Monoculture	Reference
Table 1 cont. Summary of siderophores identified using molecular networking and manual observations of the data. Nomenclature that are italicized were identified in this study.							
DFO-Bs	*uC10 acyl DFO-B*	685.4856	685.4858	-0.29	$C_{34}H_{65}N_6O_8$		*This study*
	uC11 acyl DFO-B	699.5007	699.5025	-2.57	$C_{35}H_{69}N_6O_8$		*This study*
	C11 acyl-DFO	701.5174	701.5171	0.43	$C_{35}H_{69}N_6O_8$		Traxler et al; Sidebottom et al.
	C12 acyl-DFO	715.5322	715.5328	-0.84	$C_{36}H_{71}N_6O_8$		Traxler et al; Sidebottom et al.
	C13 acyl-DFO	729.5496	729.5484	1.64	$C_{37}H_{73}N_6O_8$		Traxler et al; Sidebottom et al.
	uC12 acyl FO-B [M+Al]⁺	737.4776	737.4752	3.25	$C_{36}H_{66}N_6O_8Al$		*This study*
	dodecanedioic DFO-B	745.5086	745.5070	2.15	$C_{36}H_{69}N_6O_{10}$		*This study*
	amphiphilic desferrioxamine 12	745.5438	745.5434	0.54	$C_{37}H_{73}N_6O_9$		Sidebottom et al.
	tridecanedioic DFO-B	759.5221	759.5226	-0.66	$C_{37}H_{71}N_6O_{10}$		*This study*
	amphiphilic desferrioxamine 15	759.5597	759.5590	0.92	$C_{38}H_{75}N_6O_9$		Sidebottom et al.
DFO-Ds	desferrioxamine H	461.2602	461.2606	-0.87	$C_{20}H_{37}N_4O_8$		Adapa et al.
	glutaric desferrioxamine H	475.2760	475.2762	-0.42	$C_{21}H_{39}N_4O_8$		*This study*
	C2 acyl glutaric desferrioxamine H	489.2900	489.2919	-3.88	$C_{22}H_{41}N_4O_8$		*This study*
	desferrioxamine D4	559.3453	559.3450	0.50	$C_{25}H_{47}N_6O_8$		*This study*
	deoxydesferrioxamine D3	587.3757	587.3763	-1.02	$C_{27}H_{51}N_6O_8$	*	*This study*
	Desferrioxamine D3	589.3915	589.3919	-0.68	$C_{27}H_{53}N_6O_8$	*	*This study*
	desferrioxamine D1	603.3714	603.3712	0.33	$C_{27}H_{51}N_6O_9$	*	
	C2 acyl DFO-D	617.3864	617.3869	-0.81	$C_{28}H_{53}N_6O_9$		*This study*
	C4 acyl DFO-D	645.4185	645.4182	0.46	$C_{30}H_{57}N_6O_9$	*	*This study*
	C5 acyl DFO-D	659.4331	659.4338	-1.06	$C_{31}H_{59}N_6O_9$		*This study*
	C6 acyl DFO-D	673.4498	673.4495	0.45	$C_{32}H_{61}N_6O_9$	*	*This study*
	C7 acyl DFO-D	687.4655	687.4651	0.58	$C_{33}H_{63}N_6O_9$	*	*This study*
	C11 acyl DFO-D	743.5280	743.5277	0.40	$C_{37}H_{71}N_6O_9$	*	*This study*
	C12 acyl DFO-D	757.5436	757.5434	0.26	$C_{38}H_{73}N_6O_9$	*	*This study*
	C13 acyl DFO-D	771.5607	771.5590	2.20	$C_{39}H_{75}N_6O_9$	*	*This study*
	C14 acyl DFO-D	785.5749	785.5747	0.25	$C_{40}H_{77}N_6O_9$	*	*This study*
tenacibactins	tenacibactin C	503.3070	503.3075	0.99	$C_{23}H_{43}N_4O_8$		Jang et al.
	tenacibactin E	531.3380	531.3388	-1.15	$C_{25}H_{47}N_4O_8$	*	*This study*
	tenacibactin F	545.3545	545.3545	0.00	$C_{26}H_{49}N_4O_8$	*	*This study*
	tenacibactin G	587.3990	587.4014	4.08	$C_{29}H_{55}N_4O_8$		*This study*
	tenacibactin H	601.4168	601.4171	-0.49	$C_{30}H_{57}N_4O_8$	*	*This study*
	tenacibactin I	615.4326	615.4327	-0.16	$C_{31}H_{59}N_4O_8$		*This study*
	tenacibactin J	629.4484	629.4484	0.00	$C_{32}H_{61}N_4O_8$		*This study*

Acyl DFO production by *Streptomyces* sp. S29. *Streptomyces* sp. S29 was able

to produce twelve new acyl DFO-Bs similar to those previously described.[38,39] Of these

12, five were short acyl chain derivatives (C_3, C_4, C_4 hydroxylated, C_5, and C_6), five were

monounsaturated derivatives (uC_6, uC_7, uC_{10}, uC_{11}, and uC_{12}), and two were derivatives

containing glutaric acid at the C-terminus, similar to those seen by Rütschlin et al.[40]

Pertaining to the unsaturated derivatives, placement of the alkene at the position α to the

carbonyl is based off previous studies also reporting DFOs containing unsaturated acyl

chains.[41] Additionally, the position of the hydroxy in the C_4 derivative was based on

previous work showing multiple amphiphilic peptide-based siderophores contain

hydroxylation at the β-position.[27,42]

We propose henceforth that the previously known 'acyl DFOs' should be renamed

'acyl DFO-B' due to the observation in this study of analogues that contain a *N*-acetyl-*N*-

hydroxycadaverine terminus, similar to desferrioxamine D. The new acyl DFO-D

analogues discovered here also range from short, medium and long acyl chained

derivatives (Table 1). It is likely the acyl DFOs are branched analogues as previous

studies noted that it was unlikely the chains were fully linear since *Streptomyces* spp.

utilise branched starter units in fatty acid synthesis.[43] This is also the case for the suite of

tenacibactin analogues observed in the data. These branched acyl chain siderophores

were originally observed in *Tenacibaculum* sp. A4K-17 [44], and are essentially truncated

versions of acyl DFO-Bs that lack the N-terminal *N*-hydroxycadaverine.

Streptomyces coelicolor has shown broad substrate specificity in regard to medium

and long acyl chain incorporation into desferrioxamine structures[19], but not short acyl

chained groups, where *Streptomyces* sp. S29 can facilitate production of short, medium,

and long acyl chained DFO-B analogues. Traxler et al. showed the ability of other

actinobacteria to react to the presence of *S. coelicolor*. through the production of acyl

DFO-B analogues.[19] Interestingly, we see this same phenomenon for the coculture of

Streptomyces sp. S29 and the fungi. Medium and long chained acyl DFO-Bs (including

unsaturated derivatives) were almost exclusively produced in coculture whereas short,

medium and long chained acyl DFO-Ds were produced under both mono- and coculture

conditions. The tenacibactin analogues were distributed amongst both cultures (Table 1).

It was hypothesized these long-chained derivatives might be a way for the uptake of these

analogues to bypass the DesE uptake mechanism, instead they 'hand-off' the Fe(III) via

membrane bound ferrioxamines.[19,45]

Aryl DFO production by *Streptomyces* sp. S29. The production of seven new

aryl DFOs related to legonoxamine A and B, which were also observed in this study (Table

1), shows the biosynthetic flexibility of *Streptomyces* sp. S29. These structures range

from being smaller, potential oligomers like legonoxamine C (*m/z* 351.1912, Figure S12)

to the larger legonoxamine H (*m/z* 665.3893, Figure S17). A few interesting legonoxamine

derivatives include legonoxamine F (Figure S15), putrescine-containing legonoxamine G

(Figure S15) and legonoxamine A glycoside (Figure S18).

Figure 5. Representation of desferrioxamine structural diversity of *Streptomyces* sp. S29. (A-B) New legonoxamine derivatives (purple), cyclic desferrioxamines (green), tenacibactins (orange), DFO-Ds (red), and a variety of DFO-Bs (blue) were all found. Full MS/MS data and annotations can be found in supplementary for all 46 new analogues discovered.

Legonoxamine F contains one 1,6-diaminohexane instead of the typical 1,5-

diaminopentane. This is a well-established phenomenon in siderophore biosynthesis[28]

linking it to the promiscuity of the S29 *des* biosynthetic gene cluster. Legonoxamine G

contains a *N*-hydroxyputrescine moiety due to the initial loss of 104 Da instead of the

typical 118 Da associated to *N*-hydroxycadaverine. Putrebactin is the archetypal

putrescine containing siderophore[46], and as its biosynthetic gene cluster has been shown

to lack genes coding for production of putrescine, it is assumed that instead, this precursor

is sequestered from metabolite pools.[47] Interestingly, researchers have also found that

under putrescine-depleted conditions, *Shewanella putrefaciens* shifts to producing

desferrioxamine B when cadaverine precursors are available.[48] In desferrioxamine

biosynthesis, incorporation of the putrescine precursor in desferrioxamine A1 has been

shown before in multiple species[38,39] and now in this study with the discovery of

legonoxamine G.

Legonoxamine A glycoside was observed using the predicted molecular formula

($C_{37}H_{62}N_6O_{13}$) and the loss of a sugar (-162 Da). An additional putative diglycosylated

DFO (*m/z* 899.4827), with a predicted molecular formula of $C_{38}H_{70}N_6O_{18}$, was observed

in the mass spectrum but upon selected ion monitoring (SIM), produced insufficient

fragment ions for structural characterisation. The production of glycosylated DFOs has

only been reported once before: nocardamin glucuronide, isolated from *Streptomyces* sp.

80H647.[40] There are only a few reports of microbial enzymes that produce glucuronides[41],

yet, the addition of glucose or other hexoses are more commonplace in bacterial natural

products.[43] We propose legonoxamine A glycoside undergoes a similar glycosylation

mechanism to nocardamin glucuronide, occurring on a *N*-hydroxyl.

Macrocyclised desferrioxamines. The archetypal macrocyclised DFO is

desferrioxamine E and has been isolated from several actinobacteria. We observe

desferrioxamine E in the molecular network (Figure S1) as well as several other

macrocyclised DFOs. In Figure 3, these are anchored by bisucaberin 01 (*m/z* 443), first

described by Senges et al.[44] Based on the molecular formulas, fragmentation patterns

and the previously established structure, we observe analogues with extensions

extending up to 10 CH_2's (Table 1), which differ from the bisucaberins observed in the

Senges et al. study which reduce in size.[19] Similar to acyl DFOs, macrocyclised

derivatives have also shown to have flexible biosynthesis in feeding studies, including the

incorporation of 1,8-diaminooctane moieties.[19] There was no observation of putrebactin,

or avaroferrin in the culture despite the similar biosynthesis with bisucaberins and

desferrioxamines.

Dicarboxylic acid desferrioxamine analogues. Two new desferrioxamines,

observed only in coculture extracts, with dicarboxylic acid C-termini were also elucidated.

Dodecanedioic DFO-B (Figure S33) has an *m/z* of 745.5086, corresponding to the

molecular formula of $C_{36}H_{68}N_6O_{10}$. Tridecanedioic DFO-B (Figure S34) has an *m/z* of

759.5221, corresponding to the molecular formula of $C_{37}H_{70}N_6O_{10}$. This is the first

reported instance of large dicarboxylic acids being incorporated into DFO structures yet

there are examples of larger dicarboxylic acids being bound to CoA, like pimelic acid,

therefore we cannot rule the possibility out.

Microbial cytochrome p450s are responsible for adding complexity to fatty acids to

be used as building blocks for more complex metabolites or as signalling molecules.[49]

Previous studies have shown the bacterial production of dicarboxylic acids might occur

via cytochrome p450 monoxygenase.[50] In order to determine the presence of enzymes

that facilitate ω-oxidation in S29, protein sequences that belong to the long-chain fatty

acid ω-monooxygenase enzyme class (EC 1.14.14.80) and from fatty acid ω-oxidation

gene ontology (GO:0010430) were obtained from the Uniprot database. BLAST results

of these sequences against the S29 draft genome reveals just one hit (supplementary

data), comprising 3 orthologs with mid-term amino acid identity (40-50%), a methyl-

branched lipid ω-hydroxylase (cyp124) from Mycobacterium spp. (~43% identity) (Uniprot:

P9WPP2, P0A517 & P9WPP3). Pfam sequence search confirms cytochrome P450

domain for this protein and further experimentation could confirm its ω-monooxygenase

activity. Searching Uniprot under these search criteria returns only a handful of bacterial

sequences with a couple belonging to actinobacteria, therefore, the possibilities to track

this activity in the S29 genome are very narrow resulting in an inconclusive result

regarding the presence of an ω-monooxygenase in S29.

Ferrioxamines and DFO presence in pure and coculture experiments. A

number of metal complexed ferrioxamines were observed in subnetwork 2 (Figure 6).

Fe(III) and Al^{3+} are the only metals complexed with the variety of desferrioxamines

present, similar to studies before.[19,45] Although the binding affinity for Fe(III) is greater

than Al(III)[28], it appears that this difference in affinity is not enough to prevent Al(III)

chelation.[46] The importance of iron has already been addressed in regard to bacteria and

cell maintenance but Al(III) is toxic and has no direct role in metabolism and seems to be

an consequence of the chemical ecology of these metabolites.

Figure 6. Metal-complexed molecular families. The GNPS library was able to identify multiple metal ion complexes (hexagonal nodes). All other features observed in the molecular network were assignable as Fe(III) or Al(III) bound ferrioxamines. Al(III) analogue of new desferrioxamine analogue –uC12 acyl FO-B. Table S1 contains accurate mass information on all complexed ions found in this figure.

The molecular network was also used to evaluate the production of the DFOs

between the two cocultivations with *A. niger* and *B. cinerea* and the *Streptomyces* sp.

S29 monoculture (Figure S3). The results showed that 32 of the 71 were present in the

monoculture, whereas all of the remaining were found in coculture extracts only (Table

1). There was no qualitative significant difference in the siderophores produced under

cocultivation with *A. niger* compared to those produced in cocultivation with *B. cinerea*,

indicating the potential broad response to a fungal microbe in the environment. These

results might point to DFO and siderophore production in a broader context as a common

chemical response to other microbes, whether it be bacterial or fungal, in close

environmental proximity to the primary organism.

MS2LDA analysis. In order to further evaluate the overall chemical space that DFOs inhabit in the molecular network, MS2LDA was performed. MS2LDA is a technique which identifies molecular 'fingerprints' in fragmentation patterns and assigns these into motifs (13 Mass2Motifs were manually curated). By merging the two networks (GNPS molecular network and MS2LDA) after motifs were annotated, it is clear that further DFO chemical space is there to be discovered. Figure S4 represents the overall results of this merged network where we have highlighted the previously identified features (107) and edges (970) from the original molecular networking job and all of the nodes (351) and edges (1991) that contain DFO motifs identified through MS2LDA. This near tripling of features by inclusion of the MS2LDA workflow doesn't necessarily correlate to an increase in metabolites, but upon validation of the data, there seems to be very minimal features corresponding to isotopes or adducts.

In order to evaluate the accuracy of this analysis, a characterized DFO in this study (legonoxamine E, Figure 5) and an unknown DFO observed using MS2LDA (*m/z* 650.37, $[M+2H]^{2+}$) were more closely analysed (Figure S5). The unknown desferrioxamine is a singleton (Figure S5B) in both the original network and the merged network, yet, MS2LDA identifies it contains DFO motifs and upon closer inspection and prediction of its molecular formula ($C_{59}H_{103}N_{12}O_{20}$). The potential of this putative DFO being a dimer was ruled out based on fragmentation analysis lacking the monomer. Elucidation of its full structure was not able to be completed with MS/MS data alone, therefore, further studies are underway to characterise its structure. Nonetheless, this example displays the utility of MS2LDA to evaluate the chemical potential of a bacterium and its potential use in these types of studies in the future.

***Streptomyces* sp. S29 siderophore biosynthetic gene clusters.** DFOs are

biosynthesized by nonribosomal peptide synthetase independent siderophore (NIS)

pathways and the presence of at least one gene encoding a homolog to IucA/IucC has

become recognized as a marker of NIS biosynthetic gene clusters.[47] DFO biosynthesis is

encoded by the highly conserved *des* biosynthetic gene cluster (*desEFABCD* genes)

found in many *Streptomyces* species [48]. Using FeGenie[41], the identification of iron-related

genes revealed 27 siderophore biosynthesis and 11 transport related genes in the

Streptomyces sp. S29 genome. These siderophore biosynthesis related genes are

grouped in five biosynthetic gene clusters and antiSMASH [43] predictions reveal that three

of the five contain at least one gene homolog to IucA/IucC and the other two correspond

to NRPS dependent pathways.

Region 7 (Figure S53) contains a siderophore BGC in *Streptomyces* sp. S29 with

high homology to *desA-D* genes and to the ferric-siderophore uptake and utilization genes

(*desE-F*). This *des* cluster follows the same structure as many *Streptomyces* spp.,

including the position of iron boxes upstream putative *desE* (s29_002291) and *desA*

(s29_002293) genes (Fig S31). DesC of the *des* BGC from *Streptomyces* sp. S29

(s29_2295) exhibits high identity to DesC from S. coelicolor (72%) and to LgoC from

Streptomyces sp. MA37 (69%). In *S. coelicolor* A3(2), transcription of *des* BGC is

repressed by the divalent metal-dependent regulatory (DmdR) protein DmdR1 and

derepressed by iron limitation.[44] BLASTN/P analysis revealed a putative DmdR repressor

in *Streptomyces* sp. S29 (s29_002782) with 89% nucleotide and 93% amino acid identity

to DmdR1 (AJ271797.1 / CAC28070.1). BLASTN analyses identified eight putative

DmdR-binding sites (iron boxes) in *Streptomyces* sp. S29 by query of putative iron boxes

found upstream in different ORFs in *S. coelicolor* A3(2) genome.[19]

Acyltransferases involved in hydroxamate biosynthesis normally exhibit narrow

substrate tolerance (e.g. IucB, which shows a high degree of specificity towards acetyl-

CoA).[19] The array of DFOs produced by *S. coelicolor* (B, E, G1 and amphiphilic) and aryl

DFOs (legonoxamine A-B) produced by *Streptomyces* sp. MA37, has been attributed to

substrate tolerant acyltransferases DesC and LgoC. [19,45] Senges et al. acknowledged in

their evaluation of the *Streptomyces chartreusis* secretome that in iron depleted minimal

medium they also observed additional desferrioxamines produced and that the overall

biosynthetic potential may be much broader than what has been predicted.[28] Cloning and

more detailed analysis of the *Streptomyces* sp. S29 *des* gene cluster is ongoing to link

the chemical potential shown in this study.

In conclusion, the chemistry observed in the *Streptomyces* sp. S29 secretome

shows it potential as an agent to prevent fungal infection, evidenced by its locking away

of Fe(III) via overproduction of desferrioxamines. New analogues were observed in both

monoculture and cocultivation studies with fungal phytopathogens, *A. niger* and *B.*

cinerea. *Streptomyces* sp. S29 seems to produce an arsenal of desferrioxamine

analogues using any available precursor materials available whether that be putrescine,

cadaverine, aryl, acyl, or long chained dicarboxylates. The role of bacterial communities

in plant and crop protection is becoming more important due to the growing world

population, with a strong emphasis on improving strategies at preventing phytopathogenic

infection. Overall, the production of 46 new and 25 previously reported siderophores

indicates this *Streptomyces* sp. should be studied further for its plant protective properties

as a biocontrol agent.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Strain collection

Streptomyces sp. S29 was isolated from a soil sample collected from Lupine plant

(*Lupinus oreophilus*) roots originating from a polyextreme enviroment at Quebrada

Nacimiento, Socaire, San Pedro de Atacama, Atacama Desert (23°37'06''S;67°50'56''W

- 3,646 m.a.s.l). One aliquot was heated at 100 °C for 5 min and directly sprinkled onto

Gause #1 and Starch-Casein plates, both complemented with nystatin, cycloheximide

and nalidixic acid. Another aliquot was resuspended in ¼ Ringer solution, heated at 60

°C for 10 min and dilutions of $10^{-1/2}$ and 10^{-1} were spread onto agar plates. Plates were

incubated at 30 °C for ~1 week and colonies were subcultured on ISP2 plates. Based on

morphological characteristics of the colony and antifungal activity experiments against *B.*

cinerea and *A. niger*, 16S rRNA sequence of S29 isolate was used to identify and confirm

its taxonomy using EzBioCloud database (3) (data not shown).

Phytopathogens

Aspergillus niger and *Botrytis cinerea*, biochemically characterized field samples, were

provided by Laboratorio de microbiología, Facultad de Ciencias naturales, matemática y

medio ambiente, Universidad Tecnológica Metropolitana (UTEM), Santiago, Chile.

Molecular identification of these strains was carried out by sequencing of internal

transcribed spacer (ITS) region amplified by PCR using universal primers ITS1 and ITS4

(supplementary data).

Biological screening

Preliminary antifungal screening of the lupine rhizosphere *Streptomyces* collection was

carried out starting from spore stocks, where Streptomyces isolates were grown on ISP2

at 30°C for 1 week. On PDA plates, two inverted agar plugs (different isolates) from these

ISP2 plates, set at 2 cm from the centre, were grown at 30°C O.N. After this, the centre

of the PDA plates was inoculated using 10 μL of a 5x10⁴ spores/mL spore stock of a

phytopathogen (*Botrytis/Fusarium*) and grown at 25°C. Inhibition observations were

carried out at 4, 11 and 17 days from pathogen inoculation.

Disc diffusion assays were adapted for the microbes tested using the Clinical and

Laboratory Standards Institute M44 Method for Antifungal Disk Diffusion Susceptibility

Testing of Yeasts.[51] Extract concentrations were standardised to 200 μg/mL for all

bioassays conducted.

In order to conduct post-fermentation streaks, 50 μL of fermentation was

aseptically transferred onto a ISP2 agar plate. 24- and 48-hour incubation (28°C) intervals

were checked for fungal growth. Due to the faster growth rate of the fungi, we would

expect any presence of fungal spores to lead to the observation of mycelial growth, yet

no fungal growth was observed.

Cocultivation and extraction

A set of experiments were carried out on these three organisms in order to determine the

effect of the fungal culture being added to the *Streptomyces* sp. (a) *Streptomyces* sp. S29

alone: a single colony was aseptically transferred to 100 mL of iron deficient medium

(ISP2), shaken at room temperature at 150 RPM for 7 days, in order to induce production

of siderophores. (b) *Streptomyces* sp. S29 + *Aspergillus niger*: 100 mL of bacterial culture

was grown for 5 days, at room temperature and shaken at 150 RPM. On the second day

of bacterial growth, an independent axenic culture of *A. niger* (spores) was grown for 3

days (10 mL of PDA liquid medium, room temperature and 150 RPM shaking). On the

fifth day of bacterial growth, the fungal liquid culture was transferred axenically to the

bacterial culture and allowed to grow an addition 2 days. (c) *Streptomyces* sp. S29 +

Botrytis cinerea: the same procedure as described in experiment b was followed.

Additionally, each experiment contained 3 g/50 mL of sterilised glass beads to prevent

aggregation. Each coculture was then scaled up to 3 L total volume in an attempt to

produce sufficient secondary metabolites for structure elucidation.

Each liquid fermentation included Diaion HP-20 resin (3 g/50 mL) that was

sterilised with culture medium. After 7 days, the resin was vacuum filtered, subsequently

washed five times with milli-q water and finally macerated exhaustively in methanol (3×).

The methanolic extract was then dried on a rotary evaporator and subsequently

underwent Kupchan partitioning.[46] Finally, the *sec*-butanol fraction underwent C18 solid-

phase extraction (Phenomenex), with each separation yielding 5 fractions of increasing

methanol and these samples were subsequently prepared for LC-MS studies.

The 100% methanol fractions from the *Botrytis* and *Aspergillus* co-culture were

subjected to further separation via reversed phase-HPLC with a Waters Sunfire C18

semi-preparative column (5 μM, 100Å, 250 × 10 mm) wand a solvent system of A–95/5

MeOH/H_2O and B-MeOH. The Agilent 1200 HPLC utilized a solvent gradient of 0% B to

100% B at 2.0 mL/min over 50 min.

Liquid chromatography – mass spectrometry

All runs were analysed using an Agilent 1290 UHPLC coupled to Bruker MAXIS II Q-ToF

mass spectrometer. LC utilizes a Phenomenex Kinetex XB-C_{18} (2.6 mM, 100 × 2.1 mm)

column with a mobile phase of 5% MeCN+0.1% formic acid to 100% MeCN+0.1% formic

acid in 11 min. Bruker MAXIS II has a mass range of *m/z* 100-2000, capillary voltage 4.5

kV, nebulizer gas 5.0 bar, dry gas 12.0 l/min, and dry temperature of 220 °C. MS/MS

experiments were conducted under Auto MS/MS scan mode with a step collision energy

from 80-200%. Samples were prepared at a concentration of 0.3 mg/mL. Raw data files

were analysed using Bruker Daltonics 3.6.

GNPS Molecular Networking and MS2LDA

A   molecular   network   was   created   using   the   online   workflow   (https://ccms-

ucsd.github.io/GNPSDocumentation/) on the GNPS website (http://gnps.ucsd.edu). The

data was filtered by removing all MS/MS fragment ions within +/- 17 Da of the precursor

m/z. MS/MS spectra were window filtered by choosing only the top 6 fragment ions in the

+/- 50Da window throughout the spectrum. The precursor ion mass tolerance was set to

0.02 Da and a MS/MS fragment ion tolerance of 0.02 Da. A network was then created

where edges were filtered to have a cosine score above 0.7 and more than 5 matched

peaks. Further, edges between two nodes were kept in the network if and only if each of

the nodes appeared in each other's respective top 10 most similar nodes. Finally, the

maximum size of a molecular family was set to 100, and the lowest scoring edges were

removed from molecular families until the molecular family size was below this threshold.

The spectra in the network were then searched against GNPS' spectral libraries. The

library spectra were filtered in the same manner as the input data. All matches kept

between network spectra and library spectra were required to have a score above 0.7

and at least 6 matched peaks. All features originating from the medium/instrument blanks

were excluded from the final molecular network.

For documentation on running MS2LDA, the user is referred to the original

publication and guidelines, which are also present at ms2lda.org.[47] All spectral images in

the supplementary information were created using Metabolomics Spectrum Resolver

(https://metabolomics-usi.ucsd.edu/).[48]

All siderophores dereplicated and elucidated in this study can be found in Table 1.

The structure elucidation of each new derivative and its corresponding MS/MS spectra

were generated using Metabolomics Spectrum Resolver are displayed in the

supplementary information (Table S2 and Figures S7-S52). All MS/MS spectra were also

annotated and deposited in the GNPS library, as well as the original datasets (Table S2).

All data files and workflows can be found at the links below:

GNPS molecular networking job:

https://gnps.ucsd.edu/ProteoSAFe/status.jsp?task=3c73305ef7ed48e19cb18e50b8b6b2bd

MS2LDA annotation experiment: http://ms2lda.org/basicviz/summary/1319/

MASSIVE: doi:10.25345/C5772V

Streptomyces sp. S29 genome sequencing and assembly

Streptomyces sp. S29 total DNA was extracted from liquid culture using DNeasy

UltraClean Microbial Kit (Qiagen). Whole genome sequencing (WGS) of the strain was

performed by an Illumina MiSeq (2 x 300 PE). Nanopore sequencing was performed using

a Rapid Sequencing Kit (SQK-RAD004) and MinIon Flow Cell (R9.4.1). The sequence

was assembled using Canu, polished using Racon, Illumina dataset was mapped onto

the contigs using BWA mem and then corrected using Pilon. The genome was annotated

using NCBI pgap software (6).

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supplementary Information

Tables of known and new desferrioxamine derivatives and their corresponding CCMS

Library IDs and Metabolomics Resolver Images (Table S2), disc diffusion assay results,

desferrioxamine containing subnetworks, new desferrioxamine analogues with annotated

structures and MS^2 spectra, ITS regions for fungal phytopathogens, cytochrome p450

enzyme sequence.

Author Contributions

DLS[†] and ED[†] contributed equally to this work.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

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