The ant fungus garden acts as an external digestive system

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22 Contributions

- PCD and AMCR created the concept of applying 3D cartography to fungus gardens. DP conceived the
- idea of chemical proportionality. KEK, SPP and AMCR deconstructed fungus gardens and prepared
- extracts. AMCR processed samples for LC-MS/MS acquisition. KEK and JLK collected and maintained ant
- 26 colonies. AMCR, DP, RS, ME, JJJvdH and PCD performed data analysis. LFN supported FBMN. LFN and AT
- supported molecular formula assignment and structure prediction workflows in the GNPS environment.
- 28 MW supported FBMN and data visualization from GNPS. PCD, JLK and MJB provided supervision and

funding for the project. AMCR, JLK and PCD wrote the manuscript. All authors contributed to the writing
 and editing of the manuscript.

31 Abstract

Most animals digest their food within their own bodies, but some do not. Many species of ants grow

fungus gardens that pre-digest food as an essential step of the ants' nutrient uptake. To better

understand this digestion process, we generated a 3D molecular map of an Atta texana fungus garden,

revealing chemical modifications mediated by the fungus garden as plant material passes through.

36 Main

Many ant species access plant-derived nutrients with the help of fungal symbionts.¹ For 37 example, leaf-cutter ants grow a specific cultivar fungus in specialized underground structures called 38 "fungus gardens" as their main food source. This cultivar fungus breaks down forage material such as 39 leaves provided by the ants to obtain the necessary nutrients for its own growth.² In turn, the ants eat 40 the fungus' specialized hyphal tips, known as gongylidia, which contain nutrients that are metabolically 41 available to the ants.³ Fungal enzymes present in the garden transform plant metabolites such as 42 polysaccharides and phenolic compounds.^{4–6} Fungus gardens from leaf-cutter ants have been described 43 as bioreactors due to their capacity to process plant constituents that provide small carbohydrates.⁶ 44 Primary metabolites have been measured in the fungus gardens, and correlated to the differential 45 distribution of fungal metabolic enzymes.^{2,7} Nonetheless, maps of metabolic diversity in ant fungus 46 gardens have remained unavailable due to the lack of computational workflows that go beyond the 47 analysis of a few selected metabolites, which did not exist until recently. 48 Here, we highlight chemical transformations in a laboratory maintained Atta texana fungus 49 garden using molecular networking,^{8–10} 3D cartography,¹¹ and meta mass-shift analysis¹². The use of 50

non-targeted metabolomics, via liquid chromatography - tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS),^{10,13–15}

52 enabled us to identify molecular families and metabolite features (Supplementary Fig. S1-S2) that

chemically differentiate plant materials that are sequentially consumed by the fungus as they pass through 53 the garden (Supplementary Fig. S3-S4). These molecular families were annotated using various 54 annotation tools combined using the MolNetEnhancer^{10,16} workflow resulting in the annotation of plant 55 and fungus related chemical compound classes. Furthermore, we identified the types of chemical 56 transformations that are carried out based on the differential abundance of compounds that occur 57 58 among the sampled layers of the fungus garden (**Online methods**). The observed transformations provide insight into the chemistry and the modification of molecules (representing potential chemical 59 transformations or differential degradation) inside an ant fungus garden. 60 After plant materials are incorporated into the fungus garden by the ants, they are further 61 processed by the fungus, and following digestion any recalcitrant plant biomass becomes trash that the 62 ants remove from the garden (Fig. 1). Molecules from the plant material, such as saccharide-decorated 63 64 flavonoids and phenolic compounds, decreased in relative abundance when moving from the top to the bottom of the fungus garden, in contrast to other compounds that increased in relative abundance 65 across these layers (Supplementary Fig. S3), either due to chemical modifications or preferential 66 degradation of the less abundant compound (Supplementary Fig. S5-S14). Fungus garden and trash 67 samples were enriched with phytosphingosines (Supplementary Fig. S9), whereas features associated 68 with the trash material were enriched in steroids (Fig. 1, Supplementary Fig. S10), such as the fungal 69 metabolite ergosterol peroxide,^{17,18} and oxylipins (Supplementary Fig. S11-S12). Gradients of other 70 plant-derived metabolite abundances, such as triterpenoid derivatives, were observed as we moved 71 from the top to the bottom of the fungus garden, leading to high abundances at the bottom of the 72 fungus garden and in the trash (Supplementary Fig. S13-S14). These gradients parallel the metabolic 73 transformations of food components in the digestive tract of animals, such as those involving the 74 metabolism of flavonoids, steroids (molecules with steroidal cores), and fatty acids.^{19–21} In a similar way 75 76 to how food changes during its transit through the digestive tract of animals and the residual material is

discarded, plant material is transformed in the fungus garden and, finally, the residual material is
 removed from the colony. Thus, the initial food material is chemically distinct when compared to the

rg trash material removed by the ants (Supplementary Fig. S4).

Digestive processes generate modified products whose precursors are consumed. To provide an 80 overview of putative metabolic transformations occurring in ants' fungus gardens, we combined mass 81 82 shift analysis¹² and discovered relative metabolite abundances for pairs from each section of the fungus 83 garden by calculating a proportionality score (**Online Methods**). By considering the proportion between the relative abundances of two chemically related molecules (i.e. connected nodes in a network), their 84 mass shifts and the modifications that these imply (e.g. a 15.996 Da shift indicates a gain or loss of 85 oxygen, 2.015 Da an oxidation or reduction through the loss or addition of H_2), and their distribution 86 between two locations (leaves, layers of fungus garden and layers of trash material) we can discover 87 88 related molecules that have the largest variance in abundance between the layers (Online Methods, Fig. 1-3; Supplementary Fig. S15-S17). It should be noted that this approach cannot differentiate between 89 different types of changes in the absolute abundance of each molecule, e.g., chemical transformation 90 91 leading to the accumulation of a molecule or the complete degradation of a molecule leading to its decreased abundance. However, by considering the chemical similarities and relative abundances 92 93 between each molecular pair that are identified by molecular networking we imply relationships 94 between these molecules that are consistent with each molecule belonging to the same structural class and their abundance changes across samples. We interpret the abundance changes across layers to be 95 largely driven by anabolic or catabolic pathways, potentially linked to enzymatically mediated 96 transformations. Absolute molecular concentrations might also be altered by additions from the 97 external environment, but the closed nature of the laboratory maintained ant fungus gardens means 98 that such additions essentially only occur directionally via the leaves when they are incorporated into 99 100 the fungus garden by the ants.

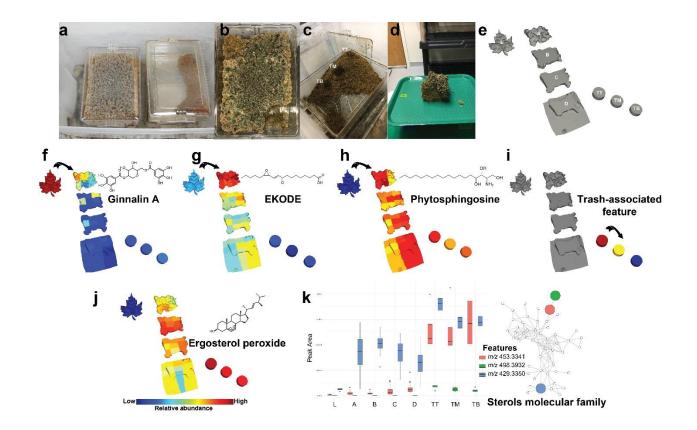


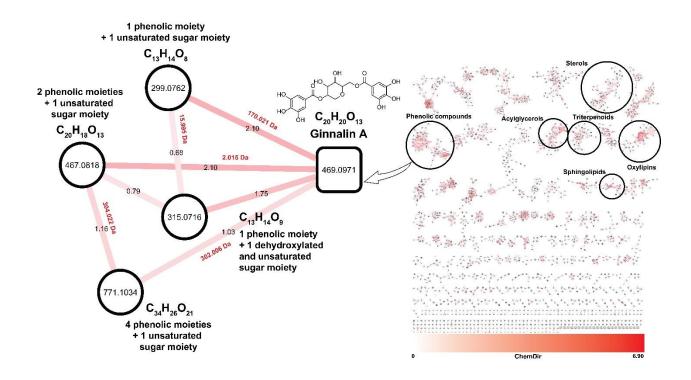
Fig. 1| Spatial distribution of molecular signatures from A. texana fungus garden. a-d. Deconstruction of the Atta texana 101 102 JKH000189 fungus garden: a. Plastic containers with an Atta texana fungus garden (left) and waste material removed by ants 103 (right). Ants have free access to both chambers; b. This picture shows the location of a removed 10x10x10cm portion of the 104 fungus garden (lower right corner). The green fragments at the top of the fungus garden are freshly incorporated maple leaves; c. Chamber containing the trash material removed from the fungus garden by the ants. Three sampling locations from the trash 105 106 are highlighted as "TB", "TM", and "TT"; d. Removed 10x10x10cm fungus garden portion for consequent sample preparation for LC-MS/MS; e. 3D representation of deconstructed fungus garden portion, as shown in (d). On the left side, a representation 107 108 of the maple leaves (L) placed in the outer colony box that ants cut and incorporate into the top of the fungus garden; layers of 109 the fungus garden from top to bottom (A, B, C, and D) and at the right side of the figure, the representation of the three sample locations from the trash chamber, from top to bottom (TT, TM and TB); f-i. Spatial distribution of ginnalin A, detected as m/z 110 469.0971 (f), (E)-9-oxo-11-(3-pentyloxiran-2-yl)undec-10-enoic acid (trans-EKODE-(E)-lb) detected as m/z 311.221 (g), 111 phytosphingosine detected as m/z 318.2995 (h), unknown feature associated to the trash material detected as m/z 474.3783 112 113 (i); j-k. The abundance of features belonging to the molecular family of sterols were also detected at high intensity in the trash material, suggesting that these compounds accumulate in the trash material: j. Ergosterol peroxide detected as m/z 429.3350; 114 115 k. Abundance of features associated with trash material belonging to the sterols molecular family (ergosterol peroxide, feature 116 m/z 498.3932 and feature m/z 453.3341). The boxes represent the 25%, 50%, and 75% quantile and the whiskers extend ±1.5 times the interquartile range. The annotation of ergosterol peroxide from GNPS libraries (cosine score = 0.71) was confirmed 117 using a reference standard (Supplementary Table S1), a level 1 match according to the 2007 metabolomics initiative,³² while 118 the m/z 498.3932 is consistent with a molecular formula of C₃₂H₅₂NO₃ (error 1.9 ppm) and belongs to the same molecular 119

120 family - a level 3 match.³² A detailed description of the sample preparation can be found in the **Online methods.** See **online**

methods for more details and a molecular cartography of this deconstructed *Atta texana* fungus garden visualized in 'ili¹¹ is
 shown in Supplementary Movie S1 [https://youtu.be/ ikhKelfrY8].

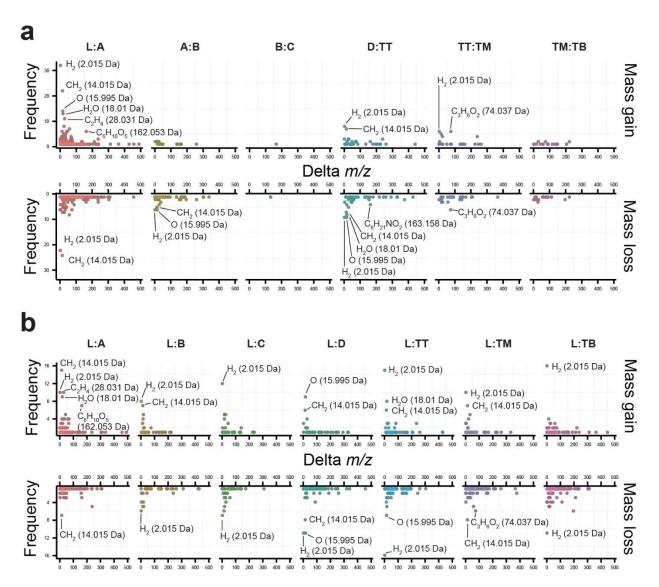
In this study, we introduce the proportionality concept using a modification to Meta-Mass Shift 123 analysis,¹² by considering also the abundances of the detected molecules, to quickly highlight features 124 (metabolites) potentially involved in chemical transformations. Proportionality scores highlighted such 125 126 changing pairs of nodes occurring in various locations in the A. texana fungus garden, and the associated mass shifts provided evidence of the types of modifications occurring in the sampled locations (Fig. 2). 127 Proportionality scoring is a logarithmic expression, and we selected an absolute value of 1 as cutoff to 128 prioritize potential transformations because a score closes to zero will indicate a low ratio of 129 abundances between two chemically related molecules in two sample locations, suggesting a low 130 change of intensities between the two mass spectrometry features of the molecular network pair (see 131 the definition and calculation of the proportionality scores in **Online Methods**). Differences representing 132 133 a gain or loss of H_2 (2.015 Da) were the predominant type of chemical transformation observed throughout the entire data set, being one of the most frequent mass shifts with a proportionality score > 134 1 among leaves, the fungus garden and trash layers (Fig. 3). This common modification was observed in 135 molecular families such as phenolic compounds (Fig. 2) and phytosphingosines (Supplementary Fig. 136 **S9**).²² Mass shifts corresponding to CH_2 (14.015 Da) and C_2H_4 (28.031 Da) were other common changes 137 observed in the top layer of the fungus garden, as well as between the bottom layer of the fungus 138 139 garden and the trash (Fig. 3). Oxidation or dehydroxylation combined with reduction processes result in the gain or loss of oxygen that can be detected and a mass difference of 15.995 Da. The transformations 140 corresponding to these differences were more frequently observed at the top layer of the fungus garden 141 during the breakdown of flavonoids and phenolic compounds (Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. S5-S8). 142 Chemical transformations consistent with addition or removal of sugar moieties in the A. texana 143 fungus garden were also highlighted by proportionality scores > 1. These transformations, 144

corresponding to mass differences of 162.053 Da (C₆H₁₀O₅), were associated with plant material and the
top layers of the fungus garden (Fig. 3), and corresponded to transformations involving chemical
substructures that were present in plant metabolites such as flavonoids and acylglycerols
(Supplementary Fig. S6, S17). The mass difference of 162.053 Da, consistent with the gain or loss of a
sugar moiety, was also present in a molecular family of acylglycerols and occurred in the top layer of the
fungus garden (Supplementary Fig. S17).



151 Fig. 2 Potential transformations highlighted by the proportional scoring of untargeted metabolomics data from Atta texana 152 fungus garden. Chemical features are highlighted from a molecular network based on their high proportionality score 153 calculated throughout the sample types from leaves, fungus garden layers and trash layers (red edge with label indicating the 154 proportionality score). The feature corresponding to m/z 469.0971 annotated as ginnalin A, a bioactive phenolic compound,²⁵ 155 was identified as a potential partner in several chemical transformations. Based on the information regarding the mass shifts 156 (red labels, in Daltons) of the connected nodes, and the suggested molecular formula, putative structures can be suggested 157 based on their fragmentation patterns. Together, with the spatial distribution (Supplementary Figures S8 and S16), it can be 158 suggested the involvement of this molecular family in chemical transformations occurring in the fungus garden. Ginnalin A was 159 detected in the leaves as well as in the fungus garden while the features of m/z 299.0762 and m/z 467.0818 were only detected 160 in the plant material. This suggest that ginnalin A and related features, m/z 315.0717 and m/z 771.1034 might be either 161 transformed from m/z 467.0818 and m/z 299.0762, which reach undetectable levels in the fungus garden, or are more

recalcitrant to degradation. Similarities in the fragmentation spectra (MS/MS) of these compounds enabled us to gain insight 162 into their potential structural differences. All fragmentation spectra for the connected nodes in the molecular network shown 163 164 in the figure shared the m/z 153.02 base peak corresponding to the phenolic moiety (gallic acid), indicating an unsaturation 165 located in the sugar moiety. The identification of ginnalin A based on spectral similarity to GNPS libraries (cosine score = 0.95) 166 corresponds to annotation at level 2 according to the 2007 metabolomics standards initiative,²⁶ while the matches for the 167 related molecules shown are at the molecular family level, a level 3 annotation.²⁶ Although double bonds of the saccharide 168 moiety can be suggested based on the molecular formula, it is not possible to define their location or the stereochemistry 169 thereof without additional information. Other examples of potential chemical transformations in Atta texana fungus gardens 170 described using this proportionality approach can be found in Supplementary Fig. S15-S17).



171 Fig. 3]. Frequency of delta masses observed in metabolomics data from a deconstructed Atta texana fungus garden.

172 Proportionality metrics were calculated between compounds found in different layers of the fungus garden, as well as between

173 plant, fungus garden and trash material: a. Frequency of delta masses calculated between samples corresponding to leaves (L),

174 layers of fungus garden from top to bottom (A, B, C and D), and trash material (samples collected from the chamber that ants

175 use to deposit the trash material. From the top, TT; middle, TM and bottom, TB). b. Frequency of delta masses between 176 compounds found in leaves (L) and each of the fungus garden and trash layers. Mass shifts between network pairs with 177 proportionality scores > 1 were retrieved as indicative of chemical transformations prevalent in specific locations. Frequencies 178 of annotated mass shifts observed from network pairs with high proportionality scores (proportionality values > 1, See 179 Supplementary Table S4) indicated that the regions where most transformations occur are between leaves and the top layer of 180 fungus garden (Layer A), between the bottom of fungus garden (Layer D) and the trash, as well as between the trash layers (TT, 181 TM and TB). None of the observed mass shifts resulted in a high score when proportionality was calculated between fungus layers C and D (proportionality C:D). The figure in panel b shows the most frequent mass shifts observed from network pairs 182 183 with highest transformation rates from proportionality calculated between leaves (L) and each of the sample groups, fungus 184 garden and trash layers. This indicates that most of these transformations are still observed throughout the fungus garden but

also that some of them are specific to the trash, such as $C_8H_{21}NO_2$ (163.158 Da) (as observed in panel **a**).

The existence of chemical gradients in the fungus garden resembles a digestion process, with 186 187 substrates being modified to facilitate their consumption and generating residues that need to be removed or discarded, as shown here by plant constituents passing through an ant-fungus garden 188 189 ecosystem. The metabolic transformations observed here are consistent with the modification of lipids by fungus gardens, as well as plant volatile compounds by fungus-garden-associated bacteria, as 190 recently reported from leaf-cutter ant fungus gardens,^{23,24} adding further support to the model 191 describing fungus gardens as external digestive systems for ants. The chemical modifications and the 192 193 types of (bio)transformations observed in our study might not vary based on changes in the available plant material, although environmental factors such as temperature or humidity, and the composition of 194 microbiome that are associated with ants and their fungus gardens,²³ will likely influence these 195 modifications. 196

In summary, the 3D cartographic analyses performed in this study provide an overview of chemical changes occurring in a fungus garden. Our results demonstrate that chemical transformations of the plant components are associated with certain regions of the fungus garden and show that the degree of modifications are more extensive than previously described.^{24,25} The results further support a model where fungus gardens serve a similar function to the mammalian digestive tract, where its function is to gradually metabolize food molecules from top to bottom akin to the gastrointestinal tract 203 from the mouth to anus. In other words, the plant material is digested starting when leaves enter the fungus garden, and continues all the way through the bottom layer of the fungus garden. Finally, there 204 are molecules that are removed from the system into the fungus garden trash. This is reminiscent of a 205 food to digestive tract to feces scheme.²¹ How the food molecules move down the ant's external 206 digestive tract is not yet known, but the ants "clean up" after themselves via removal of unwanted 207 208 fungal garden parts to the trash. The methodologies that we used provide a complementary overview of 209 metabolic processes occurring in a laboratory maintained A. texana fungus garden and we expect the approach can be leveraged to unravel similar processes in natural environments to compare between 210 natural and lab-maintained ecosystems. 211 **Online content** 212 213 Methods, additional references, Nature Research reporting summaries, source data, statements of data 214 availability and associated accession codes are available on line. 215 Acknowledgements. AMCR and PCD were supported by the National Sciences Foundation grant IOS-1656481. KEK, SPP, JLK and MJB were supported by NSF grant IOS-1656475. DP was supported by the 216 Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) with grant PE 2600/1. RRdS was supported by the São Paulo 217 Research Foundation (Awards FAPESP 2017/18922–2 and 2019/05026–4). PCD was supported by the 218 Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation through Grant GBMF7622, the U.S. National Institutes of Health 219

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224 **Competing interests** PCD is a scientific advisor to Sirenas. MW is Founder of Ometa Labs LLC.

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