1	Differential response to prey quorum signals indicates predatory range of
2	myxobacteria
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12	Running Head: Myxobacterial response to prey quorum signals
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14	Originality-Significance Statement: This manuscript provides the first multiomic
15	analysis of how predatory myxobacteria respond to exogenous prey signaling molecules
16	and details the differences observed by comparing responses from two myxobacteria.
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18	Summary: Multiomic analysis of transcriptional and metabolic responses from the
19	predatory myxobacteria Myxococcus xanthus and Cystobacter ferrugineus exposed to
20	prey signaling molecules of the acylhomoserine lactone and quinolone quorum signaling
21	classes provided insight into myxobacterial specialization associated with predatory
22	eavesdropping. We suggest that the general response observed from both myxobacteria
23	exposed to acylhomoserine lactone quorum signals is likely due to the generalist predator

24 lifestyles of myxobacteria and ubiquity of acylhomoserine lactone signals. We also provide data that indicates the core homoserine lactone moiety included in all 25 acylhomoserine lactone scaffolds to be sufficient to induce this general response. 26 Comparing both myxobacteria, unique transcriptional and metabolic responses were 27 observed from Cystobacter ferrugineus exposed to the quinolone signal 4-hydroxy-2-28 29 heptylquinoline (HHQ) natively produced by Pseudomonas aeruginosa. We suggest that 30 this unique response and ability to metabolize guinolone signals contribute to the superior 31 predation of *P. aeruginosa* observed from *C. ferrugineus*. These results further 32 demonstrate myxobacterial eavesdropping on prey signaling molecules and provide insight into how responses to exogenous signals might correlate with prey range of 33 34 myxobacteria.

Abstract: A potential keystone taxa, myxobacteria contribute to the microbial food web 35 36 as generalist predators. However, the extent of myxobacterial impact on microbial 37 community structure remains unknown. The chemical ecology of these predator-prey interactions provides insight into myxobacterial production of biologically active 38 specialized metabolites used to benefit consumption of prey as well as the perception of 39 40 quorum signals secreted by prey. Using comparative transcriptomics and metabolomics, we compared how the predatory myxobacteria Myxococcus xanthus and Cystobacter 41 42 ferrugineus respond to structurally distinct exogenous guorum signaling molecules. 43 Investigating acylhomoserine lactone (AHL) and guinolone type guorum signals used by the clinical pathogen Pseudomonas aeruginosa, we identified a general response to AHL 44 signals from both myxobacteria as well as a unique response from C. ferrugineus when 45 exposed to the quinolone signal 4-hydroxy-2-heptylquinolone (HHQ). Oxidative 46 detoxification of HHQ in C. ferrugineus was not observed from M. xanthus. Subsequent 47 48 predation assays indicated *P. aeruginosa* to be more susceptible to *C. ferrugineus* predation. These data indicate that as generalist predators myxobacteria demonstrate a 49 50 common response to the ubiquitous AHL quorum signal class, and we suggest this 51 response likely involves recognition of the homoserine lactone moiety of AHLs. We also 52 suggest that oxidation of HHQ and superior predation of P. aeruginosa observed from C. 53 ferrugineus provides an example of how prey signaling molecules impact predatory 54 specialization of myxobacteria by influencing prey range.

56 Introduction

The uniquely multicellular lifestyles of myxobacteria have motivated continued efforts to 57 58 explore the myxobacterium Myxococcus xanthus as a model organism for cooperative behaviors including development (Islam et al., 2020; Sharma et al., 2021), motility 59 (Mercier et al., 2020; Rendueles and Velicer, 2020; Zhang et al., 2020b), and predation 60 61 (Thiery and Kaimer, 2020; Zhang et al., 2020a; Sydney et al., 2021). Often attributed to their need to acquire nutrients as generalist predators (Nair et al., 2019) and capacity to 62 prey upon clinical pathogens (Livingstone et al., 2017), myxobacteria have also been a 63 valuable resource for the discovery of novel specialized metabolites as potential 64 therapeutic lead compounds (Herrmann et al., 2017; Baltz, 2019; Perez et al., 2020). The 65 diversities in structural scaffolds and observed activities as well as the unique chemical 66 space associated with myxobacterial metabolites when compared with more thoroughly 67 explored Actinobacteria make myxobacteria excellent sources for efforts focused on the 68 69 discovery of therapeutics (Herrmann et al., 2017; Baltz, 2019). However, the connection between myxobacterial predation and production of these biologically active metabolites 70 remains underexplored. Currently, only the metabolites myxovirescin (Xiao et al., 2011; 71 72 Ellis et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019) and myxoprincomide (Cortina et al., 2012; Muller et al., 2016) have been directly implicated to be involved during Myxococcus xanthus 73 74 predation of *Escherichia coli* and *Bacillus subtilis* respectively. In fact, the chemical ecology of predator-prey interactions between myxobacteria and prey remains 75 underexplored (Findlay, 2016). The predatory capacity or prey range of myxobacteria 76 77 cannot be directly correlated with phylogeny (Livingstone et al., 2017; Arend et al., 2020). 78 Presently, the best determinants for broadly assessing prey ranges are genetic features

that might provide specific traits to overcome predation resistances of individual prey. For
example, myxobacteria possessing the formaldehyde dismutase gene *fdm* demonstrated
comparatively better predation of toxic formaldehyde secreting *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*a clinical pathogen observed to be somewhat recalcitrant to myxobacterial predation
(Arend et al., 2020).

84 The recent observation that acylhomoserine lactone (AHL) guorum signals from prev microbes impact the predatory capacity of *M. xanthus* suggests that guorum signals might 85 86 influence predator-prey interactions (Lloyd and Whitworth, 2017). Although two orphaned, 87 functional AHL synthases have been reported, no myxobacteria have been observed to 88 produce AHLs (Albataineh et al., 2021). However, a recent survey of signaling systems within the family Myxococcaceae reported the presence of conserved AHL receptor 89 (LuxR) homologs and inferred that many myxobacteria within the 2 genera Myxococcus 90 91 and Corallococcus are capable of sensing AHL signaling molecules (Whitworth and 92 Zwarycz, 2020). While this suggests that predatory myxobacteria might eavesdrop on prey quorum signaling, the observed reaction from *M. xanthus* might also simply be the 93 result of exogenous AHLs as a nutritional gradient. Herein we utilize a combination of 94 95 transcriptomics and metabolomics to determine how myxobacterial responses to quorum signals produced by *P. aeruginosa* might indicate predatory capacity. 96

97 By exposing myxobacteria to structurally and functionally distinct classes of prey quorum 98 signals comparing ubiquitous AHL signals and quinolone signals more unique to 99 pseudomonads (Papenfort and Bassler, 2016), we anticipated that a differential response 100 exclusive to a specific signal class would support predatory eavesdropping and perhaps 101 correlate with improved predation of *P. aeruginosa*. For these experiments we exposed

each myxobacterium to AHL signals (Galloway et al., 2011) as well as the quinolone 102 signal 4-hydroxy-2-heptylguinolone (HHQ) (Deziel et al., 2004; Dubern and Diggle, 2008; 103 104 Garcia-Reves et al., 2020). Ubiguitous to Proteobacteria (notably excluding myxobacteria) and numerous other non-Proteobacteria genera, AHLs are the most 105 common class of quorum signal autoinducers and are often implicated in interspecies 106 107 communication within polymicrobial communities (Shiner et al., 2005; Mukherjee and 108 Bassler, 2019). Also associated with the modulation of interspecies and interkingdom 109 behaviors (Reen et al., 2011), the guinolone signal HHQ contributes to the pathogenicity 110 of *P. aeruginosa* by participating in the regulation of various virulence factors (Dubern 111 and Diggle, 2008; Reen et al., 2011). Exploration of the myxobacterial response to prey quorum signals not only provides insight into the impact of shared chemical signals might 112 113 have on predator-prey interactions within bacterial communities but may also provide 114 further genetic determinants that indicate predatory capacities of myxobacteria.

115 As a model organism for developmental studies, *M. xanthus* is the best characterized myxobacterium and has already demonstrated a behavioral response to exogenous AHLs 116 (Lloyd and Whitworth, 2017). However, we suspected that routine use as a laboratory 117 118 strain, constitutive toxicity (Livingstone et al., 2018), and well-explored specialized 119 metabolism (Cortina et al., 2012; Herrmann et al., 2017) of *M. xanthus* might diminish its 120 viability as the sole myxobacterium for these experiments. Therefore, Cystobacter 121 ferrugineus was also included as a more recent myxobacterial isolate with a less explored 122 biosynthetic capacity and prey range (Akbar et al., 2017; Goes et al., 2020). Both M. 123 xanthus and C. ferrugineus have an annotated solo LuxR-type AHL receptor present in 124 their genomes (WP 011555271.1 and WP 071900454.1) (Subramoni and Venturi, 2009;

Tobias et al., 2020; Xu, 2020). However, homology-based annotation of these features 125 126 only indicates the helix-turn-helix DNA-binding domain of LuxR receptors, and neither 127 include an AHL-binding site motif (PF03472) (Baikalov et al., 1996; Vannini et al., 2002; Mukherjee and Bassler, 2019). Despite the absence of a canonical receptor, exogenous 128 AHLs have been observed to stimulate the motility and predatory activity of *M. xanthus* 129 130 (Lloyd and Whitworth, 2017). Also of note, neither *M. xanthus* or *C. ferrugineus* possess a homologous PgsR-type HHQ receptor (Diggle et al., 2003; Wade et al., 2005). Utilizing 131 132 a multiomic approach to assess the transcriptomic and metabolomic responses of M. xanthus and C. ferrugineus when exposed to AHL and guinolone signals, we sought to 133 determine if structurally and functionally dissimilar quorum signals from prey elicit distinct 134 135 responses from predatory myxobacteria that correlate with successful predation of P. aeruginosa. 136

137 **Results**

138 C6-AHL induces a general transcriptional response from both *M. xanthus* and *C.* 139 *ferrugineus*

140 Exposure experiments utilizing a concentration of C6-AHL previously shown to elicit a 141 predatory response from *M. xanthus* (9 µM) (Lloyd and Whitworth, 2017) were conducted in triplicate for both *M. xanthus* and *C. ferrugineus* with DMSO exposures serving as 142 143 vehicle, negative controls for comparative analysis. Comparative transcriptomic analysis from RNAseg data revealed C6-AHL exposure impacted transcription of a total of 76 144 genes from *C. ferrugineus* experiments and just nine genes from *M. xanthus* experiments 145 when only considering a \geq 4-fold change in transcription at p \leq 0.01 (Figure 1, 146 147 Supplemental Dataset 1). For this reason, our analysis of *M. xanthus* exposure

experiments was expanded to include significant features at p ≤0.05 resulting in an 148 149 updated total of 59 impacted features from C6-AHL exposure (Figure 1). While this 150 indicates less variability across C. ferrugineus exposure experiments, we contend that this expansion provides a broader and more thorough analysis of statistically significant 151 152 impacted features for our analysis. A similar consideration of *C. ferrugineus* genes with 153 \geq 4-fold change in transcription at p \leq 0.05 by C6-AHL exposure would provide an 154 additional 119 impacted genes for consideration (Supplemental Dataset 1). M. xanthus 155 features included at the more stringent significance cutoff of p <0.01 are indicated in 156 Figure 1. These data revealed that C6-AHL exposure elicited a general downregulation of genes with a total of 55 downregulated genes observed from *M. xanthus* and 51 genes 157 from C. ferrugineus. Only one gene was observed to be upregulated by M. xanthus when 158 159 exposed to C6-AHL, and 25 total upregulated genes were observed from *C. ferrugineus* 160 during C6-AHL exposure.

161 Comparing annotated features impacted by C6-AHL exposure across both datasets and their putative roles by general system, numerous features involved in signal transduction 162 pathways and transcriptional regulation were included in both datasets with seven 163 164 regulatory features downregulated by M. xanthus and six downregulated by C. ferrugineus (Figure 2). Both myxobacteria also had a TetR family transcriptional regulator 165 166 upregulated by C6-AHL exposure. Multiple features associated with primary and 167 specialized metabolisms and cell wall biogenesis and maintenance were downregulated 168 by C6-AHL exposure across both datasets. Considering previous reports that C6-AHL 169 exposure suppresses *M. xanthus* sporulation (Lloyd and Whitworth, 2017), we sought to 170 determine if C6-AHL exposure effected either of the transcriptional regulators associated

with *M. xanthus* sporulation FruA or MrpC (Ogawa et al., 1996; Robinson et al., 2014; 171 Marcos-Torres et al., 2020). While no significant change in FurA was observed, 172 transcription of the gene product MrpC was downregulated 1.7-fold by *M. xanthus* 173 exposure to C6-AHL. However, transcription of the FruA (WP 071904077.1) or MrpC 174 (WP 071900118) homologs from C. ferrugineus was not significantly changed by C6-175 176 AHL exposure. While no obvious predatory features associated with motility or lytic 177 enzymes were directly impacted in our C6-AHL exposed *M. xanthus* results, we suspect 178 that this could be due to the previously reported constitutive toxicity of M. xanthus 179 observed in both the presence and absence of prey (Livingstone et al., 2018). The increased transcription of lytic enzymes and mobile genetic elements observed from C. 180 *ferrugineus* exposed to C6-AHL suggest a predatory response; however, these features 181 182 could also be associated with a defense response akin to phage defense. Transcription of neither of the annotated LuxR-type receptors (M. xanthus, WP 011555271.1; C. 183 184 ferrugineus, WP 071900454.1) was affected by C6-AHL exposure. Overall considering the most significantly impacted features across both datasets, C6-AHL exposure elicited 185 somewhat similar responses from both myxobacteria including numerous features 186 187 associated with transcriptional regulation and signal transduction, primary and specialized metabolisms, and cell wall maintenance. 188

189 HHQ elicits contrasting responses from *M. xanthus* and *C. ferrugineus*

190 Comparative transcriptomics from RNAseq data from exposure experiments with HHQ (9 191 μ M) introduced to plates of *M. xanthus* and *C. ferrugineus* were also conducted in 192 triplicate with DMSO exposures serving as HHQ unexposed, negative controls for 193 comparative analysis. Comparative transcriptomic analysis from RNAseq data revealed

HHQ exposure led to a \geq 4-fold (p \leq 0.05) change in transcription of a total of 186 genes 194 from *C. ferrugineus* and 31 total genes from *M. xanthus* (Figure 3). Unlike the similar 195 196 responses elicited by C6-AHL exposure, contrasting responses were apparent when comparing data between the myxobacteria. Data from *M. xanthus* experiments revealed 197 overlap between responses to C6-AHL and HHQ with a total of nine upregulated genes 198 199 and 22 downregulated genes including five genes also downregulated by C6-AHL 200 exposure. Overlapping annotated features impacted by both C6-AHL and HHQ included 201 a NmrA/HSCARG family protein (WP 011556972.1), an immunity 49 family protein 202 (WP 011550233.1), a CHASE2 domain-containing protein (WP 011554259.1), and two hypothetical proteins (WP 011555268.1 and WP 011552217.1). Comparing impacted 203 204 genes from AHL and HHQ exposure experiments, further overlap between putative roles 205 of annotated genes was also observed from *M. xanthus* with multiple impacted genes 206 predicted to be involved in transcriptional regulation and signal transduction and cell wall 207 biogenesis and maintenance (Figure 2 and Figure 4). Of note, the pleiotropic regulator MrpC was also downregulated 2.2-fold in *M. xanthus* exposed to HHQ which is 208 209 comparable to 1.7-fold downregulation of MrpC observed with C6-AHL exposure.

Unlike the overlap in responses to both signals observed from *M. xanthus*, none of the 186 genes effected by HHQ exposure overlapped with the 76 genes impacted by C6-AHL exposure. Considering annotated genes by functional category, *C. ferrugineus* genes upregulated by HHQ exposure (156 total) were largely associated with signal transduction and transcriptional regulation, various metabolic pathways, and multiple genes associated with protein translation and turnover, cell wall biogenesis and maintenance, and specialized metabolism were downregulated (29 total) (Figure 4). Interestingly, an

217 annotated FAD-dependent oxidoreductase (WP 071901324.1) homologous to the 218 monooxygenase PsgH from P. aeruginosa (91% coverage; 38% identity) which 219 hydroxylates HHQ to yield 2-heptyl-3,4-dihydroxyquinolone or pseudomonas quinolone signal (PQS) was upregulated 31-fold (Diggle et al., 2003; Ritzmann et al., 2021). An 220 221 outlier to the contrasting responses to HHQ, an annotated DUF2378 family protein (M. 222 xanthus, WP 011553830.1; C. ferrugineus, WP 084736518.1) was significantly 223 upregulated in both myxobacteria; DUF2378 family proteins are ~200 amino acid proteins 224 with no known function that are exclusive to myxobacteria. Overall, these results indicate 225 that M. xanthus exhibits a similar transcriptional response to both C6-AHL and HHQ 226 whereas HHQ elicits a distinct response from C. ferrugineus dissimilar from the more 227 general response observed from both myxobacteria when exposed to C6-AHL.

228 Differential metabolic impact of AHL and HHQ signals

229 Subsequent exposure experiments were conducted with *M. xanthus* and *C. ferrugineus* 230 exactly as done for our RNAseg experiments with an additional AHL signal, 3-oxo-C6-231 AHL, also included. Crude, organic phase extracts generated from these experiments were subjected to untargeted mass spectrometry and the XCMS-MRM (v3.7.1) platform 232 233 (Domingo-Almenara et al., 2018; Forsberg et al., 2018) was utilized for comparative 234 analysis and determination of statistical significance for all detected features. Comparing 235 features with significantly impacted intensities ($p \le 0.02$) during these signal exposure 236 experiments, all three signals elicited a more apparent response from C. ferrugineus 237 (Figure 5 and Supplemental Figure 1). Despite the comparatively diminished response 238 from *M. xanthus*, two general trends were apparent when comparing the signals 239 responses between both myxobacteria. First, C6-AHL and 3-oxo-C6-AHL exposure

resulted in highly similar responses from both myxobacteria with few to no uniquely 240 241 impacted features specific to either AHL signal (Figure 5). Second, HHQ exposure 242 induced a dramatic change in the metabolic profile of C. ferrugineus that was not observed from HHQ-exposed M. xanthus. A total of 47 features from C. ferrugineus were 243 impacted by both AHL signals while 133 features were affected by HHQ exposure. 244 245 Intrigued by the difference in responses, additional experiments where both myxobacteria were exposed to exogenous C6-AHL and HHQ simultaneously were done. Comparative 246 247 analysis of results revealed that the addition of C6-AHL did not dramatically impact the 248 change in metabolic profile observed from either myxobacteria when exposed to HHQ 249 (Figure 6). Conversely, impacted features observed in our previous AHL exposure 250 experiments were not observed in our C6-AHL + HHQ experiments. For example, of the 251 47 total overlapping C. ferrugineus features with significantly changed intensities during 252 AHL exposure conditions, 36 were not observed to change during C6-AHL + HHQ 253 exposure experiments. From these results, we determined that both myxobacteria 254 demonstrate a metabolic response unique to either HHQ or AHL-type chemical signals with a conserved response to both C6-AHL and 3-oxo-C6-AHL. These data also revealed 255 256 a unique metabolic response from C. ferrugineus when exposed to HHQ similar to our 257 previous transcriptomic observation.

258 **Conserved metabolomic response to AHLs and determination of core L-**259 **homoserine lactone elicitor**

Intrigued by the overlap in metabolic responses observed from AHL signal exposure, we were curious if the core homoserine lactone moiety present in all AHL-type quorum signals was sufficient to elicit a similar response. Untargeted mass spectrometry and

XCMS-MRM analysis of additional exposure experiments with C. ferrugineus including 263 either L-homoserine lactone (L-HSL) the stereoisomer present in natural AHL-type 264 265 guorum signals (Papenfort and Bassler, 2016; Mukherjee and Bassler, 2019), Dhomoserine lactone (D-HSL) the enantiomer of L-HSL, or boiled C6-AHL were completed 266 267 to determine any overlap with previously observed responses to C6-AHL and 3-oxo-C6-268 AHL exposure. Comparative analysis of statistically impacted features by signal intensity 269 ($p \le 0.02$) revealed 20 overlapping features from the L-HSL, C6-AHL, and 3-oxo-C6-AHL 270 exposure experiments and just three overlapping features from the L-HSL, D-HSL, C6-271 AHL, and 3-oxo-C6-AHL exposure experiments (Figure 7, Supplemental Figure 2). Hierarchical clustering of detected feature intensities from L-HSL, D-HSL, C6-AHL, and 272 273 control datasets also revealed clustering between L-HSL and C6-AHL datasets 274 (Supplemental Figure 3). These results suggest that the core homoserine lactone core 275 present in all AHLs is sufficient for predatory eavesdropping by myxobacteria.

276 Oxidative detoxification of HHQ observed from C. ferrugineus

Comparing metabolomic datasets from HHQ exposure experiments, oxidized analogs of 277 HHQ detected at 260.164 m/z were exclusive to the C. ferrugineus dataset. Authentic 278 279 standards for the oxidized HHQ quinolone signals PQS and 2-heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline 280 *N*-oxide (HQNO) were used to determine that both oxidized signals were present in HHQ-281 exposed C. ferrugineus extracts (Figure 8, Supplemental Figure 4) (Cao et al., 2020). 282 Oxidative detoxification of quinolone signals including HHQ has been reported from 283 numerous bacteria (Thierbach et al., 2017; Ritzmann et al., 2021). Additional experiments 284 exposing *C. ferrugineus* to either PQS or HQNO provided insight into a similar oxidative 285 detoxification route for quinolone signals with HHQ observed to be oxidized to either

HQNO or PQS. The presence of a metabolite with an exact mass and similar MS² 286 fragmentation pattern matching 2-heptyl-3,4-dihydroxyguinoline-N-oxide (PQS-NO) an 287 288 oxidation product reported by Thierbach et al. was also observed in C. ferrugineus extracts from HHQ, PQS, and HQNO exposure experiments suggesting subsequent 289 290 oxidation of both PQS and HQNO (Figure 8, Supplemental Figures 5 and 6) (Thierbach 291 et al., 2017). These results suggest that C. ferrugineus possesses a detoxification route 292 for guinolone signals not observed from *M. xanthus* and oxidizes the guinolone signals 293 HHQ, PQS, and HQNO.

294 C. ferrugineus response to HHQ correlates with superior predation of P. aeruginosa Predation assays using the lawn culture method were conducted in triplicate on lawns of 295 296 P. aeruginosa with both M. xanthus and C. ferrugineus (Morgan et al., 2010). These 297 assays confirmed that *P. aeruginosa* was comparatively more susceptible to predation by 298 C. ferrugineus (Figure 9). These results suggest the unique response to exogenous HHQ 299 observed from C. ferrugineus to be an evolved trait associated with exposure to guinolone 300 signals that correlates with a prey range which includes guinolone signal-producing 301 pseudomonads.

302 Discussion

Although the predatory lifestyles of myxobacteria have long been associated with their capacity as a resource for natural products discovery, the chemical ecology of predatorprey interactions remains underexplored (Findlay, 2016; Munoz-Dorado et al., 2016; Herrmann et al., 2017). The recent discovery that exogenous AHL quorum signals associated with Gram-negative prey bacteria increase the predatory capacity of *M. xanthus* provides an excellent example of shared chemical space within microbial 309 communities influencing predation (Lloyd and Whitworth, 2017). Utilizing comparative 310 transcriptomics and metabolomics, we sought to determine the generality of predatory 311 eavesdropping and how the phenomenon might correlate with prey range by comparing 312 responses from *M. xanthus* and *C. ferrugineus* when exposed to structurally distinct 313 quorum signals associated with the clinical pathogen *P. aeruginosa*.

314 Initial transcriptomic data comparing M. xanthus and C. ferrugineus exposed to C6-AHL 315 revealed overlapping transcriptional responses from both myxobacteria. Originally 316 referenced as predatory eavesdropping, we sought to determine the impact of C6-AHL 317 on genes with annotations affiliated with predation and predatory responses such as 318 motility features, lytic enzymes, and specialized metabolism (Munoz-Dorado et al., 2016). 319 Transcription of multiple genes associated with transcriptional regulation, metabolism, 320 and cell wall maintenance was influenced by exogenous C6-AHL across both 321 myxobacteria. The only potential predatory features with a transcriptional response to C6-322 AHL exposure were putative lytic enzymes from C. ferrugineus, and no annotated genes predicted to be involved in motility were affected by C6-AHL in either myxobacteria. 323 324 Considering the original observation that AHLs stimulate predation by increasing the 325 vegetative population of *M. xanthus*, we suggest that the observed change in transcription 326 of genes associated with metabolism and signal transduction from both myxobacteria 327 may correspond with a similar population-based response and shift in vegetative state 328 (Lloyd and Whitworth, 2017). The decreased transcription of the gene encoding for MrpC, 329 a developmental regulator involved in sporulation (Robinson et al., 2014), observed in our 330 *M. xanthus* dataset also supports a population-based response to C6-AHL.

Subsequent comparative metabolomics experiments indicated that C6-AHL and 3-oxo-331 332 C6-AHL elicit overlapping responses from both myxobacteria and that the core AHL 333 moiety L-HSL also elicits a similar response from C. ferrugineus. We conclude that the overlap between C6-AHL, 3-oxo-C6-AHL, and L-HSL indicates an evolved recognition of 334 the homoserine lactone unit present in all AHL guorum signals (Papenfort and Bassler, 335 336 2016; Mukherjee and Bassler, 2019). As generalist predators, a more general process for 337 AHL perception that responds to a core moiety in the scaffold of AHLs might be preferred 338 to a specialized process associated with the variable N-acylamides of AHLs. We also 339 suspect this centralized response to L-HSL may relate to the absence of a LuxR-type 340 AHL receptor that includes a conserved AHL-binding domain. The ubiquity of AHL quorum signals amongst Gram-negative bacteria combined with the overlap in observed 341 responses from *M. xanthus* and *C. ferrugineus* suggest that AHL-based eavesdropping 342 343 by myxobacteria could be a general trait that benefits predation.

344 Unlike the overlap in responses to AHL exposure, the guinolone signal HHQ elicited a contrasting transcriptomic from *M. xanthus* and *C. ferrugineus*. Contrary to *M. xanthus*, 345 C. ferrugineus upregulated genes associated with signal transduction and transcriptional 346 347 regulation, various metabolic pathways, and multiple genes associated with protein translation and turnover, cell wall biogenesis and maintenance, and specialized 348 349 metabolism when exposed to HHQ. Interestingly, an annotated FAD-dependent 350 oxidoreductase homologous to the monooxygenase PqsH from P. aeruginosa, which 351 hydroxylates HHQ to yield PQS was upregulated 31-fold in C. ferrugineus exposed to 352 HHQ. Subsequent metabolomic experiments confirmed the presence of two oxidized 353 analogs of HHQ, PQS and HQNO (Dubern and Diggle, 2008; Thierbach et al., 2017). The

detection of these oxidized quinolones as well as an additional feature, PQS-NO, 354 355 previously associated with the oxidative detoxification of guinolone signals in HHQ 356 exposed C. ferrugineus samples and absence in M. xanthus samples suggests that M. xanthus is unable to similarly metabolize HHQ (Dubern and Diggle, 2008; Thierbach et 357 al., 2017; Ritzmann et al., 2021). Oxidative detoxification of quinolone signals produced 358 359 by pseudomonads has previously been reported from strains of Arthrobacter, 360 Rhodococcus, and Staphylococcus aureus (Thierbach et al., 2017). We suggest that this 361 oxidative detoxification process contributes to the superior predation of *P. aeruginosa* 362 observed from C. ferrugineus in our predation assays comparing both myxobacteria.

Despite being considered keystone taxa within microbial communities (Petters et al., 363 2021), the extent of myxobacterial bacterivory and its contribution to nutrient cycling within 364 365 microbial food webs remains unknown. These results further demonstrate myxobacterial 366 eavesdropping on prey signaling molecules and provide insight into how responses to 367 exogenous signals might correlate with prey range of myxobacteria. Although broadly considered generalist predators, predatory specialization has been observed from 368 myxobacteria. Oxidation of guinolone signals and superior predation of P. aeruginosa 369 370 observed from C. ferrugineus provides an example of how prey signaling molecules and the shared chemical ecology of microbial communities influence myxobacterial predation. 371

372 **Experimental Procedures**

Cultivation of *M. xanthus* and *C. ferrugineus*. *Cystobacter ferrugineus* strain Cbfe23,
DSM 52764, initially obtained from German Collection of Microorganisms (DSMZ) in
Braunschweig, and *Myxococcus xanthus* strain GJV1 were employed in this study. *Cystobacter ferrugineus* was grown on VY/2 agar (5 g/L baker's yeast, 1.36 g/L CaCl₂,

377 0.5 mg/L vitamin B12, 15 g/L agar, pH 7.2). Whereas, CTTYE agar (1.4% w/v agar, 1%

378 Casitone, 10 mM Tris-HCI (pH 7.6), 1 mM potassium phosphate (pH 7.6), 8 mM MgSO₄,

379 0.5% yeast extract) was utilized to culture *M. xanthus*.

380 **Quorum signal exposure experiments.**

For signal exposure conditions, required volumes for 9 µM of filter sterilized, HHQ 381 382 (Sigma), C6-AHL (Cayman Chemical), 3-oxo-C6-AHL (Cayman Chemical), L-HSL (Cayman Chemical), D-HSL (Cayman Chemical), PQS (Sigma), and HQNO (Sigma) from 383 384 a 150 mM stock prepared in DMSO were added to autoclaved medium at 55°C. Boiled 385 AHL samples were prepared according to established methodology (Lloyd and Whitworth, 2017). For RNA-seq and LC-MS/MS analysis, C. ferrugineus was cultivated on VY/2 agar 386 medium, and *M. xanthus* was cultured on CTTYE agar medium. For all signal exposure 387 388 experiments both myxobacteria were grown at 30°C with C. ferrugineus grown for 10 days 389 and *M. xanthus* grown 14 days.

390 **RNA sequencing experiments and analysis.**

Myxobacterial cells were scrapped from the agar plates and stored in RNA-ladder. Total 391 RNA was isolated from the samples using the RNeasy PowerSoil Total RNA Kit (Qiagen) 392 393 following the manufacturer's instructions. Consistent aliquots of biomass (500 mg) from each myxobacteria were used for RNA extractions. The concentration of total RNA was 394 395 determined using the Qubit® RNA Assay Kit (Life Technologies). For rRNA depletion, 396 first, 1000 ng of total RNA was used to remove the DNA contamination using Baseline-ZERO[™] DNase (Epicentre) following the manufacturer's instructions followed by 397 398 purification using the RNA Clean & Concentrator-5 columns (Zymo Research). DNA free 399 RNA samples were used for rRNA removal by using RiboMinus[™] rRNA Removal Kit

(Bacteria; Thermo Fisher Scientific) and final purification was performed using the RNA 400 Clean & Concentrator-5 columns (Zymo Research). rRNA depleted samples were used 401 for library preparation using the KAPA mRNA HyperPrep Kits (Roche) by following the 402 manufacturer's instructions. Following the library preparation, the final concentration of 403 each library was measured using the Qubit® dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Life Technologies), 404 405 and average library size for each was determined using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies) (Supplemental Tables 1 and 2). The libraries were then pooled in 406 407 equimolar ratios of 0.75 nM, and sequenced paired end for 300 cycles using the NovaSeq 408 6000 system (Illumina). RNA sequencing was conducted by MR DNA (Molecular Research LP). RNAseq analysis was performed using ArrayStar V15 and the R-package 409 DESeq2 for differential expression data. Raw data from RNAseq analysis publicly 410 available at the National Center for Biotechnology Information Sequence Read Archive 411 412 under the following BioProjects PRJNA555507, PRJNA730806, PRJNA730808.

413 **Organic phase extraction of metabolites.**

After cultivation, myxobacterial plates were manually diced and extracted with excess 414 EtOAc. Pooled EtOAc was filtered and dried in vacuo to provide crude extracts for 415 416 LCMS/MS analysis. LC-MS/MS analysis of the extracted samples was performed on an 417 Orbitrap Fusion instrument (Thermo Scientific, San Jose, CA) controlled with Xcalibur 418 version 2.0.7 and coupled to a Dionex Ultimate 3000 nanoUHPLC system. Samples were 419 loaded onto a PepMap 100 C18 column (0.3 mm × 150 mm, 2 µm, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Separation of the samples was performed using mobile phase A (0.1% formic 420 421 acid in water) and mobile phase B (0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile) at a rate of 6 μ L/min. 422 The samples were eluted with a gradient consisting of 5 to 60% solvent B over 15 min,

ramped to 95% B over 2 min, held for 3 min, and then returned to 5% B over 3 min and 423 held for 8 min. All data were acquired in positive ion mode. Collision induced dissociation 424 (CID) was used to fragment molecules, with an isolation width of 3 m/z units. The spray 425 voltage was set to 3600 volts, and the temperature of the heated capillary was set to 426 300°C. In CID mode, full MS scans were acquired from m/z 150 to 1200 followed by eight 427 subsequent MS² scans on the top eight most abundant peaks. The nominal orbitrap 428 resolution for both the MS¹ and MS² scans was 60000. The expected mass accuracy 429 430 based on external calibration was <3 ppm. MZmine 2.53 was used to generate extracted 431 ion chromatograms (Pluskal et al., 2010).

432 **XCMS analysis**.

Generated data were converted to .mzXML files using MS-Convert (Adusumilli and Mallick, 2017). Multigroup analysis of converted .mzXML files was done using XCMS-MRM and the default HPLC/Orbitrap parameters (Domingo-Almenara et al., 2018; Forsberg et al., 2018). Within the XCMS-MRM result tables, determination of signalimpacted detected features was afforded by filtering results for those with a p \leq 0.02.

Lawn culture predation assays. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* ATCC 10145^T was 438 439 purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC). The predation experiment was performed according to (Pham et al., 2005; Morgan et al., 2010). Briefly, overnight 440 441 grown culture of *P. aeruginosa* was palleted at 5000 x g. The cell pellet was washed with 442 TM buffer and pelleted again. The pelleted cells were resuspended in TM buffer to an OD₆₀₀ 0.5. A 250 µL volume of resuspended cell suspension was utilized to make a 443 444 uniform bacterial lawn on a WAT agar plate. Myxobacterium M. xanthus GJV1 was grown on CTTYE agar, and *C. ferrugineus* was grown on VY/2 agar for 7 days. A 600 mm² agar 445

446 block of each myxobacteria was excised and placed at the center of the *P. aeruginosa*

cell lawn. Assays were incubated at 30°C and swarm diameters measured after 4 days.

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- 454 *xanthus* strain GJV1.

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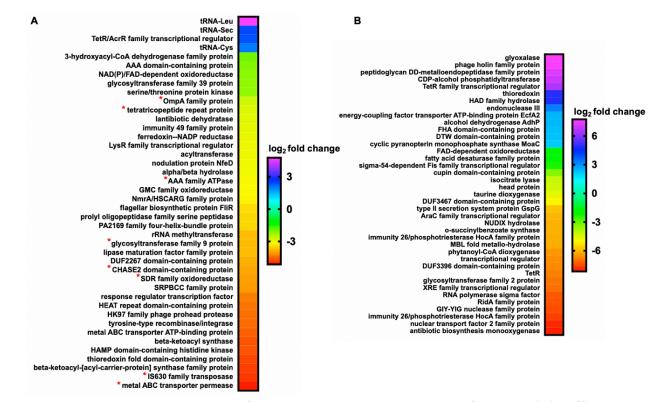
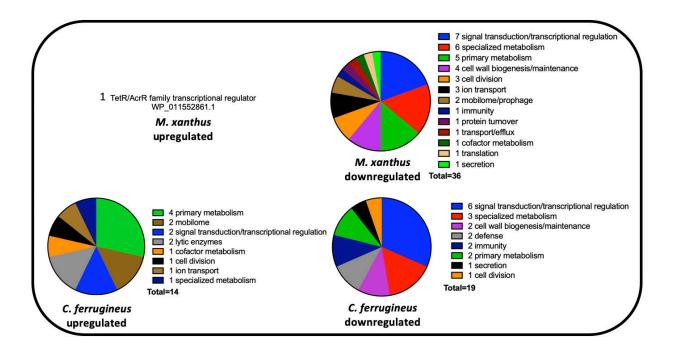


Figure 1: Transcriptomic data from myxobacteria exposed to C6-AHL. (A) Differentially expressed genes and features from *M. xanthus* exposed to C6-AHL when compared to signal unexposed *M. xanthus* control ($p \le 0.05$); * indicates features also impacted at $p \le 0.01$. (B) Differentially expressed genes from *C. ferrugineus* exposed to C6-AHL when compared to signal unexposed *C. ferrugineus* control ($p \le 0.01$). Data depicted as an average log₂ fold change from three biological replicates. Impacted features annotated as hypothetical not included.



- **Figure 2:** Putative roles of Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (PGAP)-annotated
- genes impacted by C6-AHL exposure (from Figure 1) comparing *M. xanthus* and *C.*
- 626 ferrugineus.

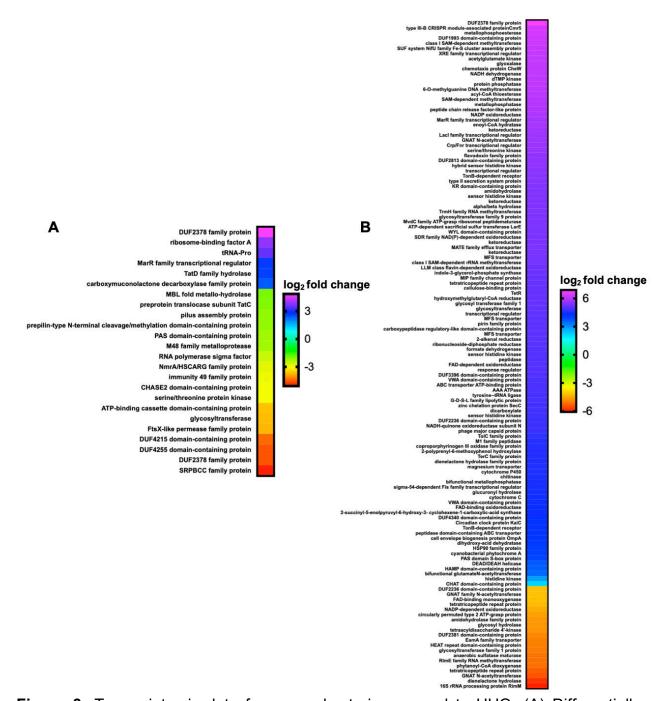
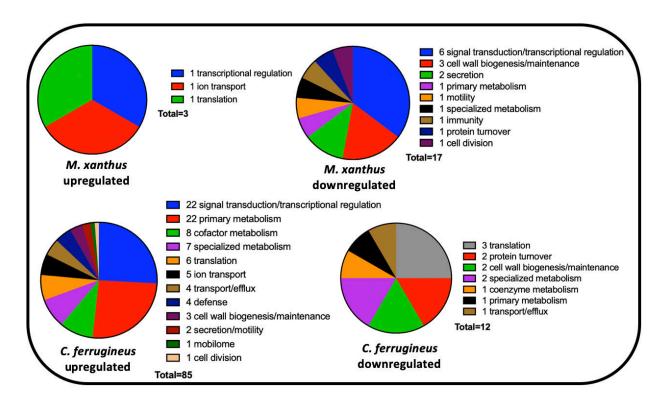
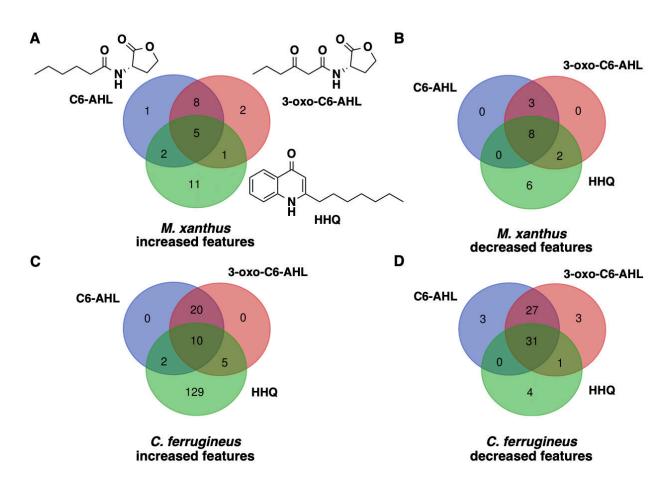


Figure 3: Transcriptomic data from myxobacteria exposed to HHQ. (A) Differentially expressed genes and features from *M. xanthus* exposed to HHQ when compared to signal unexposed *M. xanthus* control ($p \le 0.05$). (B) Differentially expressed genes from *C. ferrugineus* exposed to HHQ when compared to signal unexposed *C. ferrugineus*

- 631 control (p ≤ 0.05). Data depicted as an average log₂ fold change from three biological
- 632 replicates. Impacted features annotated as hypothetical not included.

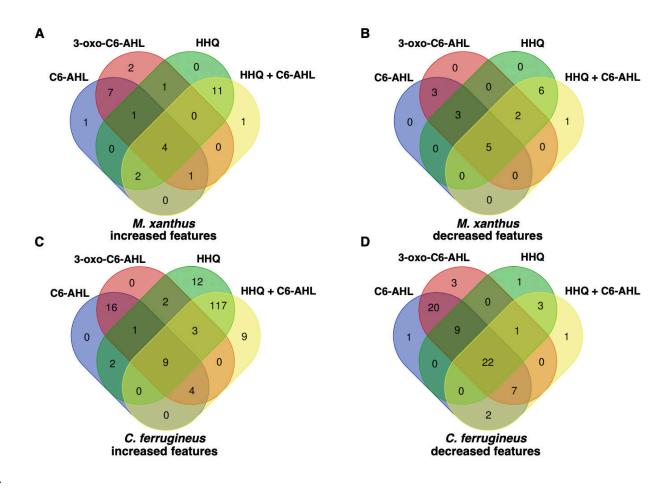


- **Figure 4:** Putative roles of PGAP-annotated genes impacted by HHQ exposure (from
- Figure 3) comparing *M. xanthus* and *C. ferrugineus*.



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Figure 5: Comparison of metabolomic response to C6-AHL, 3-oxo-C6-AHL, and HHQ exposure experiments with *M. xanthus* (A and B) and *C. ferrugineus* (C and D). Numbers included in each Venn diagram account for a unique detected feature with a significantly impacted intensity upon exposure to the indicated signaling molecule provided by XCMSmultigroup analysis (n=3, p \leq 0.02).



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Figure 6: Comparison of metabolomic response to C6-AHL, 3-oxo-C6-AHL, and HHQ exposure experiments with *M. xanthus* (A and B) and *C. ferrugineus* (C and D) including additional C6-AHL + HHQ exposure experiments. Numbers included in each Venn diagram account for a unique detected feature with a significantly impacted intensity upon exposure to the indicated signaling molecule provided by XCMS-multigroup analysis (n=3, p \leq 0.02).

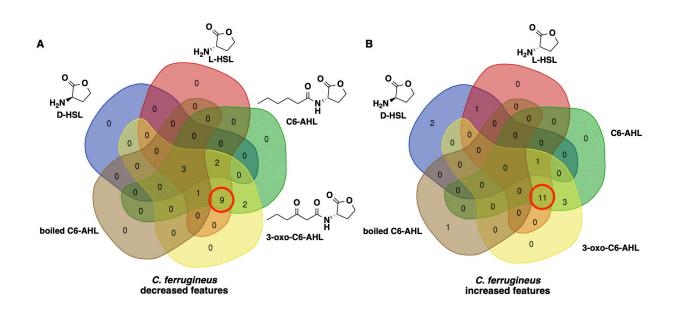


Figure 7: Overlap in metabolic response to C6-AHL, 3-oxo-C6-AHL, and L-HSL exposure observed from *C. ferrugineus*. Venn diagrams include the number of metabolic features with a significant increase (A) or decrease (B) in detected ion intensity compared to signal unexposed controls provided by XCMS-multigroup analysis (n=3; p \leq 0.02). Red circles indicate overlapping metabolic features of L-HSL with C6-AHL and 3-oxo-C6-AHL.

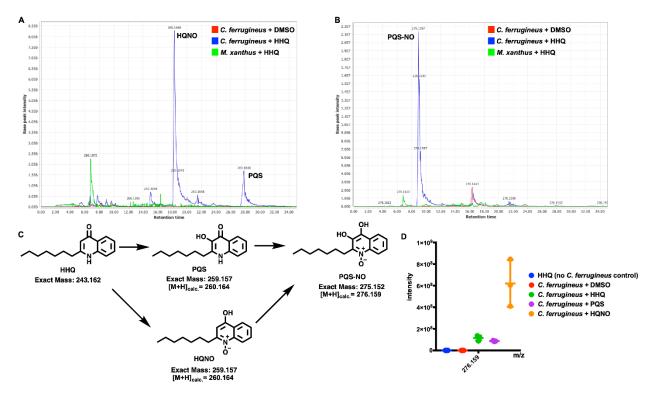
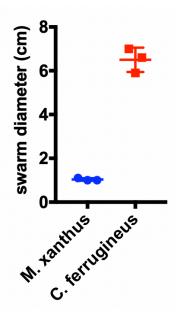


Figure 8: (A) Extracted ion chromatograph (EIC) depicting presence of HQNO and PQS 660 661 in HHQ exposed extracts from *C. ferrugineus* and not observed in HHQ exposed extracts from *M. xanthus*. (B) EIC depicting presence of PQS-NO in HHQ exposed extracts of *C*. 662 ferrugineus, also not present in *M. xanthus* extracts. Chromatographs rendered with 663 MZmine v2.37. (C) Oxidative detoxification of HHQ by C. ferrugineus including exact 664 mass values from ChemDraw Professional v17.1. (D) Detected ion intensities for PQS-665 NO comparing crude extracts of C. ferrugineus exposed to HHQ, PQS and HQNO; 666 detected intensity data provided by XCMS-multigroup analysis (n=3; $p \le 0.02$). 667 668



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Figure 9: Lawn culture predation assay data depicting superior predation of *P. aeruginosa* by *C. ferrugineus* (n=3; p \leq 0.005). Statistical significance calculated using an unpaired t test with Welch's correction.