1 Nutrient availability shifts the biosynthetic potential of soil-derived microbial communities 2 Marc G Chevrette¹, Bradley Himes², Camila Carlos-Shanley^{2*} 3 4 ¹Wisconsin Institute for Discovery and Department of Plant Pathology, University of Wisconsin-5 Madison, Madison, WI, 53715 6 ² Department of Biology, Texas State University, San Marcos, 78666, TX 7 8 *corresponding author Camila Carlos-Shanley 9 Department of Biology 10 Texas State University 11 601 University Drive 12 San Marcos, TX 78666 13 (512) 245-5283 (voice) 14 (512) 245-8713 (fax) 15 carlos-shanley@txstate.edu 16 17 keywords: microbial community, biosynthetic gene clusters, microbial enrichment, nutrient 18 availability, growth inhibition assays. 19 20 21 22

23 Abstract

24 Secondary metabolites produced by microorganisms are the main source of antimicrobials other 25 pharmaceutical drugs. Soil microbes have been the primary discovery source for these secondary 26 metabolites, often producing complex organic compounds with specific biological activities. 27 Research suggests that secondary metabolism broadly shapes microbial ecological interactions, 28 but little is known about the factors that shape the abundance, distribution, and diversity of biosynthetic gene clusters in the context of microbial communities. In this study, we investigate 29 30 the role of nutrient availability on the abundance of biosynthetic gene clusters in soil-derived 31 microbial consortia. We found that soil microbial consortia enriched in medium with 150 mg/L of 32 glucose and 200 mg/L of trehalose (here defined as high sugar) had more biosynthetic gene cluster 33 and higher inhibitory activity than soil microbial consortia enriched in medium with 15 mg/L of 34 glucose + 20 mg/L of trehalose (here defined as low sugar). Our results demonstrate that laboratory 35 microbial communities are a promising tool to study ecology of specialized metabolites.

36

37 Introduction

38 The chemical products of microbial secondary metabolism (also called natural products) modulate 39 interactions within and between species and are thus a major means through which the microbial 40 world communicates [1]. Secondary metabolites have had an enormous impact on modern 41 medicine: they are the main source of antimicrobials used to treat infections, they have been used 42 as therapeutics for cancer and other important human diseases, and as immunosuppressants that 43 enable life-saving transplantation surgeries [2]. Soil microbes have been the primary discovery 44 source for these secondary metabolites, often producing complex organic compounds with specific 45 biological activities [3]. The enzymes that assemble microbial natural products are encoded by

46 genes located in biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs). While it is widely hypothesized that secondary 47 metabolism broadly shapes microbial ecological interactions, little is known about the factors that 48 shape the abundance, distribution, and diversity of biosynthetic gene clusters in the context of 49 microbial communities [4].

50 Some studies have attempted to show the gross differences in biosynthetic potential 51 between the microbial communities of different soil biomes, but these studies have limited 52 extrapolative value, and little is known of how environmental factors can contribute to enrichment 53 for secondary metabolism on finer scales. Comparisons between United States soil communities 54 from New Hampshire and Arizona suggest that the arid desert soils of Arizona may harbor more 55 antagonistic, inhibitory compounds than the forest soils of New Hampshire [5]. They observed a 56 diversity of Nonribosomal peptide synthetases (NRPSs) and polyketide synthases (PKSs) domains 57 in arid soils when compared with forest soils. One hypothesis is that this is due to the harsh, nutrient 58 poor conditions of the soil that may lead to increased pressures on nutrient acquisition and/or other 59 means of competition. Even within soils sourced from the same rhizospheres, biosynthetic capacity 60 sees shifts depending on soil depth [3]. BGCs and their producing organisms are found in almost 61 every known microbial niche and covary with some environmental [6]. However, these studies are 62 often limited to correlative descriptions subject to sampling biases and systematic assessments 63 with sufficient experimental control remain lacking.

Many bacteria dedicate very large portions of their genomes to BGCs, sometimes in excess of 25% of all genetic material [7], that is often maintained vertically over evolutionary timescales [8, 9], implying that they are important in their natural settings [8], yet under controlled laboratory conditions the producers of secondary metabolites often do not express their BGCs, therefore not producing their chemical products. A growing body of evidence is showing that a battery of 69 different culture conditions and/or perturbations is needed to the production of different elicit 70 secondary metabolite [10]. Recently, Hurley et al. [11], observed that the taxonomy and inhibitory 71 profile of the bacteria isolated from four United States soil samples used within the Tiny Earth 72 project is strongly affect by the selective media used. Potato dextrose agar (PDA) enriched for 73 strains that inhibited Acinetobacter baylyi and Pseudomonas putida, while tryptic soy agar (TSA) 74 enriched for *Erwinia carotavora* inhibiting strains. Understanding the link between secondary 75 metabolisms and nutrient availability has fundamental implications across microbial ecology, 76 including the ecology of antagonism, community maintenance, invasion, niche construction, and 77 niche defense. The aim of this study was to evaluate if carbon source availability can affect the 78 biosynthetic potential of enriched microbial communities.

79

80 Material and Methods

81 Sample Collection and community enrichment

82 Soil sample was collected from the Purgatory Creek Natural Area in San Marcos, Texas 83 (GPS coordinates 29.882029, -97.982068). The sample came from small field off of a trail 84 surrounded by a wooded area. Once the sample was taken back to the lab it was passed through a 85 sieve washed with 70% ethanol to filter out larger particles, the remaining sample was weighed 86 and then suspended in sterile PBS at a concentration of 1.5 mL of PBS per 0.1 g of soil sample. 87 Once the suspension had been made it was then used to inoculate six Erlenmeyer flasks containing 88 50 mL of M63 Minimal Media with a 5 mL/L concentration of SPV-4 Trace elements and a 1 89 mL/L concentration of MgSO4. The three low sugar group flasks (Media LS) contained 15 mg/L 90 of glucose and 20 mg/L of trehalose while the high sugar group flasks (Media HS) contained 150 91 mg/L of glucose and 200 mg/L of trehalose. Media LS concentrations of glucose and trehalose

92 were based on Jenkins et al. (2017) [12]. The inoculated flasks were cultured at 30°C and 225 rpm, 93 the OD600 of the culture was measured every 24 hours to monitor growth stage, the samples grown 94 in the lower nutrient flasks were called PCA1-3 while those in the higher nutrient flaks were called 95 PCB1-3. Once stationary phase had been reached samples of each of the flasks were gathered and 96 then centrifuged, the cell pellets were frozen at -80°C while the supernatant was kept refrigerated 97 to be used with certain microbes in a 96-well growth assay to determine antimicrobial potential.

98

99 Inhibition assays

100 To determine if the metabolites produced in the six cultures at stationary phase had 101 antimicrobial properties an inhibitory assay was developed that measured the inhibitory activity of 102 the metabolites at different concentrations against a panel of selected bacteria. The bacterial target 103 panel selected was compromised of bacterial species *Pseudomonas fluorescens* (ATCC13525), 104 Klebsiella pneumoniae (ATCC23357), Bacillus Subtilis (ATCC6051), and Salmonella 105 typhimirium LT2 (Nickerson-Arizona State). Target bacteria were grown on a 96 well plate 106 containing 10μ L sterile Thermo Scientific Iso-Sensitest broth + 90μ L microbial community 107 supernatant in quadruplicate for each treatment. Growth was measured using optical density at 625 108 nm via a BioTek plate reader and Gen5 software. Readings were taken at timepoints 0, 24 and 48 109 hours after inoculation, plates were grown at 37°C and 26°C depending on which bacterial species 110 was being tested (P. fluorescens and B. subtilis at 26°C, K. pnuemoniae and S. typhimirium at 111 37° C). Controls were frown with 90µL of sterile M63 minimal medium with carbon source + 10µL 112 sterile Thermo Scientific Iso-Sensitest. The optical density data measured from the control was 113 then used in comparison to the data from each respective community supernatant to determine if

114 the supernatants contained metabolites with inhibitory effects since the growth recorded from the 115 control plates was in the presence of no antimicrobial metabolites

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117 Metagenomic DNA Extraction, Sequencing and Analysis

118 DNA extraction and purification were performed for all six samples using the QIA amp 119 BiOstic Bacteremia DNA Kit and protocol (QIAGEN). The purified sample DNA was sequenced 120 at the Microbial Genome Sequencing Center (MiGS) core facility in Pittsburgh on the Illumina 121 NextSeq platform. Sequence reads were filtered and trimmed using the default settings of fastp 122 (Chen et al., 2018). Filtered reads were taxonomically classified using the Kaiju software using 123 the NCBI BLAST nr+euk database [13]. Co-occurrence network was built using the SparCC [14] 124 program implements in the MicrobiomeAnalyst platform [15] based on the Spearman correlation 125 between genus distribution across the datasets. Metagenomes were assembled using SPAdes 126 3.13.0 [16]. Biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) were annotated with antiSMASH 5.0 using the 127 default settings [17]. Contigs with BGCs were taxonomic classified using a Last Common 128 Ancestor (LCA) approach implemented in the Contig Annotation Tool (CAT) [18]. The short reads 129 of the metagenome datasets used in this study were deposited in the NCBI Short Read Archive 130 (SRA) accession numbers from SRR15633242- SRR15633247.

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132 **Results and Discussion**

In this study, soil microbial communities were enriched in minimal medium containing either 15 mg/L of glucose + 20 mg/L of trehalose (here defined as low sugar, LS) or 150 mg/L of glucose and 200 mg/L of trehalose (here defined as high sugar, HS). The supernatant of the microbial communities enriched on the high sugar (HS) medium was able to inhibit the growth of 137 B. subtilis (t=5.413, df=3, p=0.012), K. pneumoniae (t=3.846, df=3, p=0.031), P. fluorescens 138 (t=9.565, df=3, p=0.002) and S. typhimurium (t=5.249, df=3, p=0.13). While the supernatant of 139 the microbial communities enriched on the low sugar (LS) medium was able to inhibit the growth 140 of K. pneumoniae (t=4.65, df=3, p=0.019) and S. typhimurium (t=4.801, df=3, p=0.017) (Figure 141 1). Some studies have found that high concentrations of nutrient, such as glucose, inhibit the 142 production of secondary metabolites in some bacteria [19]. However, it seems that different carbon 143 sources can have different effects on the production of secondary metabolites in different bacteria 144 [20]. To our knowledge, our study is the first to evaluate the effect of glucose and trehalose 145 concentrations on the inhibitory activity of an undefined microbial consortia. While the approach 146 used in this study does not enable the identification of the major producers of inhibitory molecules 147 it allows to study how nutrient availability shapes interspecies interactions.

148 The number of reads in the metagenomic datasets after quality filtering and trimming 149 ranged from 9 to 10 million. Metagenomic assemblies ranged from 51 to 390 Mb (Table 1). 150 Taxonomic classification of reads showed that the HS microbial communities were dominated by 151 fungi, while LS microbial communities were dominated by bacteria (Figure 2a). Previous studies 152 have evaluated the effect of nutrient availability on microbial community diversity, abundance, 153 and composition. Experiment with soils amended with glucose found that concentrations higher 154 than 8mg C/g of soil favored the growth of fungi over bacteria, which the authors attribute to 155 difference in optimal osmotic potential [21].

Functional annotation of the contigs in Clusters of Orthologous Genes (COG) categories revealed that genes in the "Chromatin structure and dynamics" (t=8.214, df=4, p=0.007) and "Secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport, and catabolism" (t=5.915, df=4, p=0.018) categories were overrepresented in the HS microbial communities, while genes in "Signal 160 transduction mechanisms" (t=4.156, df=4, p=0.021) were overrepresented in the LS microbial 161 communities (Figure 3). Most biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) were overrepresented in the HS 162 microbial communities. Type I Polyketide Synthetase (T1PKS) and Non-Ribosomal Peptide 163 Synthetase (NPRS) biosynthetic gene clusters were more abundant in the HS communities, while 164 BGCs encoding bacteriocins and siderophores were more abundant in the LS communities (Table 165 2). Correlation analysis of microbial genera in the communities revealed many negative 166 correlations between the two most abundant fungal genera Trichoderma and Fusarium (both 167 belonging to the Sordariomycetes class) and bacteria belonging to the Enterobacteriaceae family, 168 such as Salmonella (Figure 4a). Most of BGCs in the HS microbial communities were classified 169 to the Sordariomycetes taxonomic class, while most of BGCs in the LS microbial communities 170 were classified to the Actinobacteria taxonomic class (Figure 4b).

171 Microbial communities with more BGCs were showed more inhibitory activity towards the 172 bacterial pathogens used in this study. Traditionally, inhibition assays and other screening assays 173 for antimicrobial activity are performed with axenic cultures, and the use of mixed cultures for 174 antibiotic discovery is still in its early days [22, 23]. It has been hypothesized that co-culture can 175 activate silent biosynthetic gene clusters and facilitate the discovery of new natural products [24, 176 25]. In this study we demonstrate that enriched microbial communities derived from environments 177 with complex microbial communities, such as soil and feces, could be screened for the production 178 of novel antibacterial compounds.

179

180 Conclusion

181 In conclusion, in this study we show that laboratory microbial communities are a promising
182 tool to study ecology of specialized metabolites. Future studies involving fraction libraries,

183	metatranscriptomic, and metabolomic approaches will contribute to our understanding of the
184	environmental and nutritional conditions that are favorable for production and/or selection of novel
185	secondary metabolite.
186	
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190	
191	Author contributions
192	C.CS. and B.H. designed the experiments. B.H. performed the experiments. M.G.C. and
193	C.CS. performed bioinformatic and statistical analyses. M.G.C., B.H. and C.CS. wrote and
194	reviewed the manuscript.

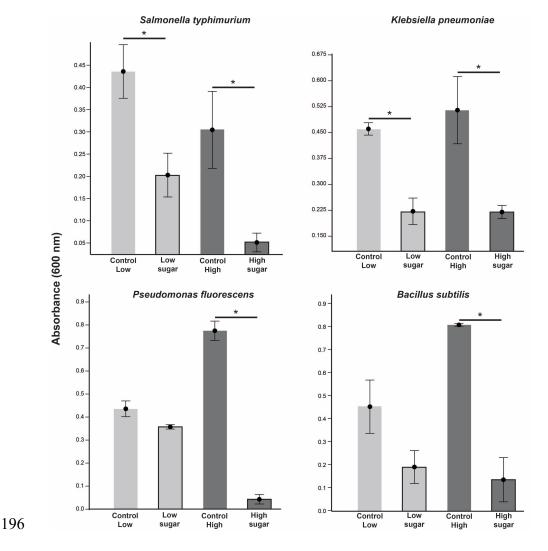
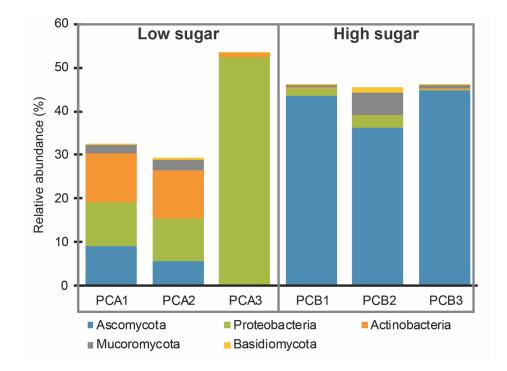


Figure 1. Effect of spent media of soil-derived microbial communities on the growth of Salmonella typhimurium, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Pseudomonas fluorescens and Bacillus subtilis. Absorbance at 600 nm was measured after 48h and results shown as average of three experiments. Asterisks (*) refers to significant comparisons (T-test, p<0.05) between spent media of soilderived microbial communities growing on low and high sugar medium and the fresh medium control.

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Figure 2. Taxonomic profile of metagenomic reads. Relative abundance of the top 5 phyla.
Samples PCA1-3 are biological replicates of the low sugar treatment and PCB1-3 are biological
replicates of the high sugar treatment.

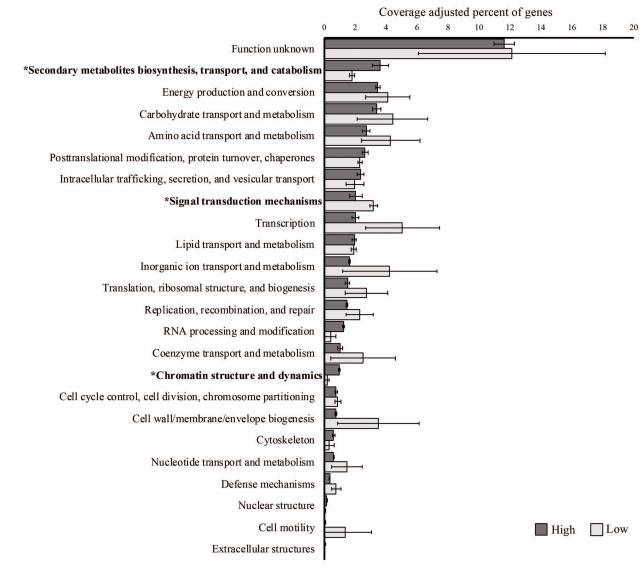
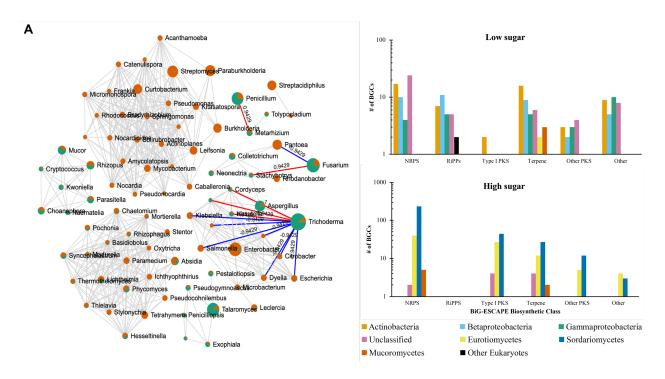




Figure 3. Percentage of genes in COG categories in the low and high sugar microbial communities (coverage adjusted). Values of the categories marked with an asterisk (*) were significantly different between the treatments (T-test, p-values<0.05).



215 Figure 4. A. Co-occurrence network where nodes are microbial genera and edges are Spearman 216 correlation values > 0.8 and with p-value < 0.01. Node size is proportional to genus abundance 217 and the average distribution of each genus in the low sugar treatment is shown in orange and in 218 the high sugar treatment is shown in green. Negative (blue) and positive (red) correlations of 219 Trichoderma, Fusarium and Penicillium are highlighted. B. Distribution of biosynthetic gene 220 clusters (BGCs) across microbial class. Contigs with BGCs were taxonomic classified using a Last 221 Common Ancestor (LCA) approach. NRPS = Nonribosomal peptide synthetase; PKS = polyketide 222 synthase; RiPP = Ribosomally synthesized and post-translationally modified peptide;

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Treatment	Sample	# of million reads	# of Contigs	Assembly length in Mb	GC %	# of BGCs	Total length of BGC's in Mb	% of base pairs in BGCs
	PCA1	9,7	1,092,758	390.8	0.4975	64	0.431052	0.11027591
Low sugar	PCA2	9,8	759,937	326.9	0.4535	65	0.703316	0.2150899
	PCA3	9,2	81,499	51.4	0.5892	51	0.355935	0.69244013
	PCB1	10,7	3,98,017	237.9	0.4856	139	3.543708	1.48934092
High sugar	PCB2	10,7	621,134	325.1	0.4785	122	1.336774	0.41122777
	PCB3	10,7	373,335	236.8	0.4902	168	1.54994	0.65444703

Table 1. Metagenome information.

BGCs= Biosynthetic gene clusters

Table 2. Distribution of biosynthetic gene cluster (BGC) classes across the metagenomic datasets.

	Low su	ıgar		High sugar			
BGC class	PCA1	PCA2	PCA3	PCB1	PCB2	PCB3	
NRPS	15	13	12	58	55	91	
NRPS-like	5	5	6	23	32	22	
terpene	21	16	8	16	13	17	
T1PKS	1	1	1	32	15	27	
bacteriocin	7	9	6	0	0	0	
siderophore	3	6	3	0	2	0	
NRPS T1PKS	0	1	0	4	3	3	
other	12	14	15	6	2	8	

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