TITLE:

Edaphic controls on genome size and GC content of bacteria in soil microbial communities

AUTHORS:

Peter F. Chuckran[1]

Cody Flagg[2]

Jeffrey Propster[1]

William A. Rutherford[3]

Ella Sieradzki[4]

Steven J. Blazewicz[5]

Bruce Hungate[1]

Jennifer Pett-Ridge[5,6]

Egbert Schwartz[1]

Paul Dijkstra[1]

[1] Center for Ecosystem Science and Society (ECOSS) and Department of Biological Sciences,

Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, Arizona, USA

[2] National Ecological Observation Network (NEON), Boulder, Colorado, USA

[3] School of Natural Resources and the Environment, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona,

USA

[4] Department of Environmental Science, Policy, and Management, University of California,

Berkeley, California, USA

[5] Physical and Life Sciences Directorate, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore,

California, USA

[6] Life & Environmental Sciences Department, University of California Merced, Merced,

California, USA

Abstract:

Genomic traits, such as genome size, GC content, codon usage, and amino acid content, shed

insight into the evolutionary processes of bacteria and selective forces behind microbial

community composition. Nutrient limitation has been shown to reduce bacterial genome size and

influence nucleotide composition, yet little research has been conducted in the soil environment,

and the factors which shape soil bacterial genomic traits remain largely unknown. Here we

determined average genome size, GC content, codon usage, and amino acid content from 398

soil metagenomes across the United States from the National Ecological Observation Network

(NEON) and observed the distribution of these traits across numerous environmental gradients.

We found that genomic trait averages were most strongly related to pH, which we suggest results

in both physiological constraints on growth as well as affects availability of nutrients in soil.

Low pH soils had higher carbon to nitrogen ratios (C:N) and tended to have communities with

larger genomes and lower GC-content, potentially a result of increased physiological stress and

increased metabolic diversity. Conversely, smaller genomes with high GC content were

associated with high pH and low soil carbon to nitrogen ratios, indicating potential resource

driven selection against carbon-rich AT base pairs. We found that this relationship of nutrient

conservation also applied to amino acid stoichiometry, where bacteria in soils with C:N ratios

tended to code for amino acids with lower C:N. Together, these relationships point towards

fundamental mechanisms which underpin nucleotide and amino acid selection in soil bacterial

communities.

MAIN TEXT:

In bacteria, nutrient constraints exert influence on traits such as genome size, GC content,

codon frequency, and amino acid content [1–3]. For free living bacteria, low nutrient

concentrations often select for genomic traits which reduce the cost of reproduction, such as low

GC content and smaller genomes [3]. Since the AT base pair has a carbon to nitrogen ratio (C:N)

of 10:7 (1.42), whereas a GC base pair has a C:N of 9:8 (1.13), the AT base pair is more

advantageous in nitrogen-limited environments. However, much of the existing and foundational

literature on processes controlling genomic traits in free-living bacteria are based on the study of

marine isolates [4] and aspects of this framework may not cleanly transpose onto soil bacteria.

For example, we had previously found that community-averaged GC content and genome size

were positively correlated between marine metagenomes, but surprisingly negatively correlated

between metagenomes collected from soils [5]. Since the growth of soil bacteria is thought to be

more limited by carbon than nitrogen [6, 7], we hypothesized that the distribution of genomic

traits in soil bacteria might exhibit unique patterns reflecting carbon limitation: specifically,

higher GC content and smaller genomes when carbon availability is low.

To better understand the relationship between genomic traits of soil bacteria and edaphic

characteristics, we analyzed 398 metagenomes collected and sequenced by the US-based

National Ecological Observation Network (NEON) [8] across a broad geographic scale (Fig. 1A)

and analyzed genomic traits alongside a range of environmental and soil properties. For each

metagenome, QC filtered reads were assembled into contigs and annotated. Bacterial contigs

were then used to generate a community-level estimate of bacterial GC content, codon

frequency, and amino acid content. Using the chemical formulas for each amino acid, we

calculated the total relative carbon and nitrogen content of amino acids for each metagenome

(see Methods). Average genome size of a community was estimated from the number of single

copy genes recovered from the QC filtered metagenomic reads. Since this estimate uses all QC

filtered reads and may therefore be biased by the presence of large fungal genomes, we

calculated an additional estimate of bacterial genome size using 16S rRNA gene datasets

produced from the same soil samples (sequenced separately from the metagenomes). By aligning

community taxonomic data against a database of genome sizes from high-quality isolates, we

were able to calculate a community weighted mean of genome size for the bacteria in a

community. Genomic traits were then paired with NEON environmental data (soil chemistry,

climate, etc.), as well as select meteorological data accessed from GRIDMET [9].

We hypothesized that microbial communities in carbon limited environments would exhibit

smaller genome sizes, higher GC content, and amino acid composition with a lower carbon to

nitrogen ratio (C:N). To test this, we assessed the relationship between extractable soil C:N

($C_{extr}:N_{extr}$) and genomic traits across all NEON sites (Fig. 1A). Most of the communities with

small genome size and high GC content were located in the mountain-west. We further found a

negative correlation between GC content and $C_{extr}:N_{extr}$ ($p < 0.001$; Fig. 1B), and a positive

correlation between $C_{extr}:N_{extr}$ and both estimates of average genome size ($p < 0.001$; Fig. 1C).

The C:N of the sum of all coded amino acids was positively correlated with soil $C_{extr}:N_{extr}$

($R^2$=0.24, $p < 0.001$, Fig. 1D), and closely tracked metagenome GC content ($R^2$=0.51, $p < 0.001$,

Fig. 1E)—reflecting the resource alignment between the stoichiometry of nucleic acids in codons

and their corresponding amino acids [10]. We found that synonymous codon usage skewed

towards codons with a higher GC content—perhaps best represented by the strong preference for

guanine and cytosine at fourfold degenerate sites ($p < 0.01$; Fig. 2A). Preferential selection for

codons with higher AT content was most pronounced where soil C:N was high. For each amino

acid, codons with higher GC were more often negatively correlated with soil $C_{extr}:N_{extr}$ compared

to codons with lower GC, which more often were positively correlated with soil $C_{extr}:N_{extr}$ (Fig.

2B&C).

These results are in line with our original hypothesis wherein lower C:N lead to communities

averaging smaller genomes, higher GC, and lower C:N of amino acids. However, genomic traits

in soil microbial communities may also be driven by other environmental factors, such as

temperature [11, 12] and pH [13]. To assess the relationships between genomic traits and other

environmental drivers, we used a machine learning, random-forest model approach to determine

the environmental variables which explain the most variance in GC content and average genome

size. With this model, we assessed the importance of over 100 environmental factors and

geographic range in shaping genomic features.

Random forest models indicated that GC content and the average genome size of a

community were most strongly related to soil pH (Fig. 3A), where soils with low pH fostered

communities with low GC content (Fig. 3B) and larger average genome size (Fig. 3C). Although

changes in the average genome size of a community as determined by single copy genes could be

biased by large fungal genomes at low pH, we additionally found a relationship between pH and

genome size when genome size was determined by aligning 16S gene sequences with a database

of isolates of known size.

Soil pH represents the intersection of numerous environmental vectors and, accordingly,

we hypothesize that there are several mechanisms underpinning the relationship between pH and

genomic traits. First, low pH causes physiological stress in soil bacteria and is often associated

with a greater number of repair mechanisms, such as chaperones [14]. This might preferentially

select for bacteria with a greater investment in stress alleviation and maintenance, and thus larger

genomes. Second, low pH is often associated with the accumulation of soil organic carbon

(SOC). Since soil pH is largely driven by the balance between precipitation and

evapotranspiration [15], low pH often coincides with greater precipitation excess and primary

production. Higher biomass inputs into acidic soils, combined with a reduction in the

decomposition rate due to low pH, results in the build-up of SOC. The accumulation of SOC not

only alleviates carbon limitation—which may reduce GC content—but also potentially favors

larger genomes with increased metabolic diversity. It has been suggested that the requirement for

increased metabolic diversity might explain why soil bacterial genomes tend to have large

genomes [16] and, similarly, we found that soils with lower pH were associated with higher

$C_{extr}:N_{extr}$ (Fig. 4), as well as larger genomes and lower GC content (Fig. 4). Third, genomic traits

in soil bacteria may relate to other forms of stress coinciding with pH. Aridity has been shown to

drive streamlining in certain soil bacteria [17] and, as discussed above, influences the pH in soil.

We did find a positive relationship between mean annual precipitation and average genomes size

(Supplemental Fig. 1), although the relationship was not as strong as that for pH or soil $C_{extr}:N$-

$_{extr}$. Previous work has shown relationships between precipitation, pH, and genome size [13], and

in a previous analysis we found that soil metagenomes collected from both hot and cold deserts

often had smaller genomes and greater GC content than soils collected in more mesic systems

[5].

139            Our work demonstrates that soil pH determines the broad-scale distribution of genomic

traits between soil bacterial communities, which we suggest can be attributed to pH being a

metric which captures multiple environmental parameters, such as soil nutrients, precipitation

patterns, and physiological stress. Soil pH is well established driver of community composition

in soils [18] and our results emphasize the degree to which pH dictates belowground microbial

life and perhaps influence evolution of soil bacteria. Additionally, we found several trends which

suggest that selection pressure in soil bacterial communities might reflect carbon limitation.

Whereas marine communities tend to harbor small AT-rich bacteria in response to nitrogen

limitation [3], we found that soils low in carbon tended to select for communities where genomes

were smaller but high in GC content. These results are derived from community averages and

more work must be done to uncover both the mechanisms and taxonomic level at which such

changes in genomic traits occur. However, it is evident that the distribution of genomic traits in

soil remains distinct from marine systems, and that physiological stress and nutrient demand are

likely written into the DNA of soil bacteria.

METHODS

Data for this project was gathered from the National Ecological Observation Network (NEON)—

an observational network collecting ecological data from across the United States, funded by the

US National Science Foundation. NEON maintains 81 field sites in number of distinct biomes

across the US. Terrestrial sites include a central meteorological station as well as many dispersed

plots from which samples are collected [19]. A full description of NEON sites can be found at

https://www.neonscience.org/field-sites/about-field-sites.

*Metagenomic traits*

From the NEON data portal (https://www.neonscience.org/data), we accessed the metadata for

all available metagenomes as of January 2021. From these data we selected 398 metagenomes

which demonstrated the greatest read depth while maximizing the number of collection sites (43

total). In January of 2021, selected metagenomes were downloaded from the NEON data portal

to the high-performance computing cluster at Northern Arizona University.

Raw reads were QC filtered using Trimmomatic v0.39 (parameters: TruSeq2-

PE.fa:2:30:10 LEADING:10 TRAILING:10 SLIDINGWINDOW:10:20 MINLEN:50) [20]. We

then used the program MicrobeCensus [21] to determine the average genome size of a microbial

community from the QC-filtered reads. MicrobeCensus estimates the total number of single copy

genes to create an estimate of average genome size from unassembled reads. Contigs were

assembled from QC-filtered reads using MEGAHIT v1.2.9 (parameters: --k-list 21,29,39,59,79 --

min-contig-len 400) [22] and read depth for each contig was determined using BBMap v38.87

[23]. Open reading frames (ORFs) were then identified using Prodigal v2.6.3 (parameters: -p

meta) [24] and taxonomy was assigned to each ORF using Kaiju v1.7.4 using the default

parameters [25].

Using the read depth for each contig and the estimated taxonomic identity for each ORF,

we calculated a depth adjusted GC content for the bacterial reads in a metagenome. Similarly, we

calculated the depth-adjusted amino acid content for each metagenome. Using known chemical

formulas for each amino acid and the depth-adjusted amino acid content, we calculated an

estimate of the total C:N of the amino acids in each metagenome. For amino acids with fourfold

degenerative sites (alanine, glycine, proline, threonine, valine), we calculated the frequency of

nucleotides at the third position and averaged these values across the selected amino acids. This

provided a metagenome-level estimate of nucleotide frequencies for fourfold degenerative sites.

Since our estimate of average genome size for a metagenome was based on the QC

filtered reads, large fungal genomes could potentially bias our estimate. To assure that trends we

observed were not solely driven by the presence of large fungal genomes, we also estimated

average genome size using a community-weighted mean derived from aligning bacterial 16S

rRNA gene sequences against a database of genomes of known size. In August 2021 we

downloaded all available 16S gene sequences and associated metadata from the Genome

Taxonomy Database [26] and compiled a database consisting of high quality (>95% complete,

<5% redundant) bacterial genomes. We then accessed 16S rRNA gene datasets from the NEON

data portal derived from the same plots as our metagenomes. Operational taxonomic units

(OTUs; clustered at 97%) identified by NEON were then aligned to our high-quality database

using BLAST. The best alignment (at >99% identity) was used as the assigned taxonomy. The

genome size of each assigned OTU was then adjusted for read depth and used to calculate a

community-weighted mean genome size with mean coverage (read depth) as the weight factor.

*Analysis with environmental characteristics*

From the NEON data portal and meteorological data, we gathered 205 environmental parameters

associated with each site and date of collection. A full list of the NEON data products used in

this analysis can be found in Supplemental Table 1. Data were accessed between January and

April 2021. Where possible, edaphic characteristics were paired with metagenomes from the

same soil sample. Otherwise, metagenomes were paired with data from plot or site level

averages. Microbial PLFA biomarkers were used to calculate fungal to bacterial biomass ratios

[27, 28].  Standard precipitation and standard precipitation evapotranspiration indices (SPI and

SPEI) were gathered from GRIDMET [9] using Google Earth Engine [29]. Regression analysis

was used to determine the relationship between soil carbon and genomic traits. All models were

constructed in R (v 3.6.1) [30].

Random forest models were constructed using the Tidymodels [31] and ranger [32]

packages in R, with the objective of determining the environmental parameters which most

strongly influenced genomic traits. A non-parametric, machine learning/random forest regression

model approach was selected given its proven ability to handle non-linear, complex interactions

in space and time across multiple predictor variables [33]. Prior to tuning the random forest

hyperparameters, predictors which did not provide data for at least two-thirds of metagenomes

were dropped, and the remaining variables were scaled and centered prior to analysis. The full

dataset contained several environmental measurements which were either very similar or

functionally identical metrics collected at multiple levels (e.g., site, plot, and soil core).

Redundant predictors were removed by first running a random forest which included all

available predictors, which were then ranked by variable importance.  We calculated Pearson's

correlation coefficients between all predictors and then removed those which were highly

correlated ($R^2 > 0.8$) with a predictor which explained more variability. We then ran a random

forest model which included only remaining predictors.

Upon publication, all code and corresponding data generated through this analysis will be

made publicly available through Github.

227
228

FUNDING

This work was supported by funding from the USDA National Institute of Food and Agriculture

Foundational Program (award #2017-67019-26396). Support for SB, ES, JP, PD, and BH

was provided by the U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Biological and Environmental

Research, Genomic Science Program LLNL 'Microbes Persist' Soil Microbiome Scientific

Focus Area (award #SCW1632). Work conducted at LLNL was conducted under the auspices of

the US Department of Energy under Contract DE-AC52-07NA27344. Funding agencies did not

play a role in study design; the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; or writing of the

manuscript.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS:

We would like to thank Anita Antoninka, Alicia Purcell, Junhui Li, Megan Foley, Raina

Fitzpatrick, Bram Stone, Victoria Monsaint-Queeney, and Carl Roybal for their intellectual

contributions to this work.

REFERENCES:

1.    Shenhav L, Zeevi D. Resource conservation manifests in the genetic code. *Science (80- )* 2020; **370**: 683–687.

2.    Batut B, Knibbe C, Marais G, Daubin V. Reductive genome evolution at both ends of the bacterial population size spectrum. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2014; **12**: 841–850.

3.    Giovannoni SJ, Cameron Thrash J, Temperton B. Implications of streamlining theory for microbial ecology. *ISME J* 2014; **8**: 1553–1565.

4.    Giovannoni SJ, Tripp HJ, Givan S, Podar M, Vergin KL, Baptista D, et al. Genetics: Genome streamlining in a cosmopolitan oceanic bacterium. *Science (80- )* 2005; **309**: 1242–1245.

5.    Chuckran PF, Hungate B, Schwartz E, Dijkstra P. Soil, ocean, hot spring, and host-associated environments reveal unique selection 1 pressures on genomic features of bacteria in microbial communities 2 3 AUTHORS: 4. *bioRxiv* 2021; 2021.04.05.438506.

6.    Soong JL, Fuchslueger L, Marañon-Jimenez S, Torn MS, Janssens IA, Penuelas J, et al. Microbial carbon limitation: The need for integrating microorganisms into our understanding of ecosystem carbon cycling. *Glob Chang Biol* 2020; **26**: 1953–1961.

7.    Hobbie JE, Hobbie EA. Microbes in nature are limited by carbon and energy: the starving-survival lifestyle in soil and consequences for estimating microbial rates. *Front Microbiol* 2013; **4**: 324.

8.    National Ecological Observatory Network (NEON). Soil microbe metagenome sequences (DP1.10107.001). 2021.

9.    Abatzoglou JT. Development of gridded surface meteorological data for ecological applications and modelling. *Int J Climatol* 2013; **33**: 121–131.

269    10.    Bragg JG, Hyder CL. Nitrogen versus carbon use in prokaryotic genomes and proteomes.

270           *Proc R Soc B Biol Sci* 2004; **271**: 374–377.

271    11.    Sabath N, Ferrada E, Barve A, Wagner A. Growth temperature and genome size in

272           bacteria are negatively correlated, suggesting genomic streamlining during thermal

273           adaptation. *Genome Biol Evol* 2013; **5**: 966–977.

274    12.    Sorensen JW, Dunivin TK, Tobin TC, Shade A. Ecological selection for small microbial

275           genomes along a temperate-to-thermal soil gradient. *Nat Microbiol* 2019; **4**: 55–61.

276    13.    Gravuer K, Eskelinen A. Nutrient and rainfall additions shift phylogenetically estimated

277           traits of soil microbial communities. *Front Microbiol* 2017; **8**: 1271.

278    14.    Malik AA, Puissant J, Buckeridge KM, Goodall T, Jehmlich N, Chowdhury S, et al. Land

279           use driven change in soil pH affects microbial carbon cycling processes.

280    15.    Slessarev EW, Lin Y, Bingham NL, Johnson JE, Dai Y, Schimel JP, et al. Water balance

281           creates a threshold in soil pH at the global scale. *Nature* 2016; **540**: 567–569.

282    16.    Barberán A, Ramirez KS, Leff JW, Bradford MA, Wall DH, Fierer N. Why are some

283           microbes more ubiquitous than others? Predicting the habitat breadth of soil bacteria. *Ecol*

284           *Lett* 2014; **17**: 794–802.

285    17.    Simonsen AK. Environmental stress leads to genome streamlining in a widely distributed

286           species of soil bacteria. *ISME J 2021* 2021; 1–12.

287    18.    Fierer N. Embracing the unknown: Disentangling the complexities of the soil microbiome.

288           *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2017; **15**: 579–590.

289    19.    Hinckley ELS, Bonan GB, Bowen GJ, Colman BP, Duffy PA, Goodale CL, et al. The soil

290           and plant biogeochemistry sampling design for The National Ecological Observatory

291           Network. *Ecosphere* 2016; **7**: e01234.

292    20.    Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. Trimmomatic: A flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence

293           data. *Bioinformatics* 2014; **30**: 2114–2120.

294    21.    Nayfach S, Pollard KS. Average genome size estimation improves comparative

295           metagenomics and sheds light on the functional ecology of the human microbiome.

296           *Genome Biol* 2015; **16**: 51.

297    22.    Li D, Liu CM, Luo R, Sadakane K, Lam TW. MEGAHIT: An ultra-fast single-node

298           solution for large and complex metagenomics assembly via succinct de Bruijn graph.

299           *Bioinformatics* 2015; **31**: 1674–1676.

300    23.    Bushnell B. BBTools Software Package. https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/. .

301    24.    Hyatt D, Chen GL, LoCascio PF, Land ML, Larimer FW, Hauser LJ. Prodigal:

302           Prokaryotic gene recognition and translation initiation site identification. *BMC*

303           *Bioinformatics* 2010; **11**: 1–11.

304    25.    Menzel P, Ng KL, Krogh A. Fast and sensitive taxonomic classification for metagenomics

305           with Kaiju. 2016.

306    26.    Parks DH, Chuvochina M, Rinke C, Mussig AJ, Chaumeil P-A, Hugenholtz P. GTDB: an

307           ongoing census of bacterial and archaeal diversity through a phylogenetically consistent,

308           rank normalized and complete genome-based taxonomy. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2021.

309    27.    Willers C, Jansen van Rensburg PJ, Claassens S. Phospholipid fatty acid profiling of

310           microbial communities-a review of interpretations and recent applications. *J Appl*

311           *Microbiol* 2015; **119**: 1207–1218.

312    28.    Orwin KH, Dickie IA, Holdaway R, Wood JR. A comparison of the ability of PLFA and

313           16S rRNA gene metabarcoding to resolve soil community change and predict ecosystem

314           functions. *Soil Biol Biochem* 2018; **117**: 27–35.

29.    Gorelick N, Hancher M, Dixon M, Ilyushchenko S, Thau D, Moore R. Google Earth

Engine: Planetary-scale geospatial analysis for everyone. *Remote Sens Environ* 2017; **202**:

18–27.

30.    Team RC. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. *R Found Stat Comput*

*Vienna, Austria* 2018.

31.    Kuhn M, Wickham H. Tidymodels: a collection of packages for modeling and machine

learning using tidyverse principles. 2020.

32.    Wright MN, Ziegler A. ranger: A Fast Implementation of Random Forests for High

Dimensional Data in C++ and R. *J Stat Softw* 2015; **77**.

33.    Breiman L. Random forests. *Mach Learn* 2001; **45**: 5–32.

FIGURES:

**Figure 1:**

Distribution of genomic traits across sites and soil extractable carbon and extractable nitrogen ratios ($C_{extr}:N_{extr}$); **(A)** Geographic

distribution of sites, with mean bacterial GC-% and estimated average genome size. **(B)** Relationship between $C_{extr}:N_{extr}$ and bacterial

GC content (%). **(C)** Relationship between $C_{extr}:N_{extr}$ and genome size, estimated from the number of single copy genes per

metagenome (black circles) and from 16S rRNA gene datasets and genome size estimated from isolates (open circles)**. (D)**

Relationship between $C_{extr}:N_{extr}$ and bacterial amino acid C:N ratios averaged per metagenome. **(E)** Relationship between bacterial

GC-% and pooled amino acid C:N ratios**.**

**Figure 2:**

Nucleotide bias in codons derived from open reading frames of bacteria in soil metagenomes;

**(A)** The distribution of nucleotides at the third position in fourfold degenerate codons across all

metagenomes, with letters corresponding to groups identified via Tukey's post-hoc test. **(B)** The

relationship between codon frequency and soil $C_{extr}:N_{extr}$ shown for aspartic acid and glutamic

acid, with number of GC base pairs in each codon being indicated by color. **(C)** The relationship

between codon frequency and soil $C_{extr}:N_{extr}$ shown for each codon, with color indicating the

slope of the relationship and an asterisk indicating significance ($p < 0.05$). Codons are arranged

left to right in increasing number of GC base pairs.

**Figure 3:**

Results from the random forest model and relationships between soil pH and genomic traits; **(A)** Variable importance plot for the top

10 environmental parameters predicting GC content from the random forest model (RMSE = 0.017; $R^2$ = 0.66). **(B)** The relationship

between soil pH and GC content (%) of bacterial contigs. **(C)** The relationship between soil pH and both average genome size (derived

from metagenomes) and community-weighted genome size (derived from the identification of 16S rRNA genes).

357 **Figure 4:**

358 The relationship between soil pH and soil $C_{extr}:N_{extr}$ with points colored by bacterial GC content

359 and point size corresponding to average genome size.