Substrate promiscuity of xenobiotic-transforming hydrolases from stream

biofilms impacted by treated wastewater

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Abstract

Organic contaminants enter aquatic ecosystems from various sources, including

wastewater treatment plant effluent. Freshwater biofilms play a major role in the removal of

organic contaminants from receiving water bodies, but knowledge of the molecular mechanisms

driving contaminant biotransformations in complex stream biofilm (periphyton) communities

remains limited. Previously, we demonstrated that biofilms in experimental flume systems grown

at higher ratios of treated wastewater (WW) to stream water displayed an increased

biotransformation potential for a number of organic contaminants. We identified a positive

correlation between WW percentage and biofilm biotransformation rates for the widely-used

insect repellent, *N,N*-diethyl-meta-toluamide (DEET). Here, we conducted deep shotgun

sequencing of flume biofilms and identified a positive correlation between WW percentage and

metagenomic read abundances of DEET hydrolase (DH) homologs. To test the causality of this

association, we constructed a targeted metagenomic library of DH homologs from flume biofilms.

We screened our complete metagenomic library for activity with four different substrates and a

subset thereof with 183 WW-related organic compounds. The majority of active hydrolases in our

library preferred aliphatic and aromatic ester substrates while, remarkably, only a single reference

enzyme was capable of DEET hydrolysis. Of the 626 total enzyme-substrate combinations tested,

approximately 5% were active enzyme-substrate pairs. Metagenomic DH family homologs

revealed a broad substrate promiscuity spanning 22 different compounds when summed across

all enzymes tested. We biochemically characterized the most promiscuous and active enzymes

identified based on metagenomic analysis from uncultivated *Rhodospirillaceae* and

Planctomycetaceae. In addition to characterizing new DH family enzymes, we exemplified a

framework for linking metagenome-guided hypothesis generation with experimental validation.

Overall, this study expands the scope of known enzymatic contaminant biotransformations for

metagenomic hydrolases from WW-receiving stream biofilm communities.

Graphical abstract

Abbreviations

Trace organic contaminants: TrOCs

N,N-diethyl-meta-toluamide: DEET

Treated wastewater: WW

DEET hydrolase: DH

Trichloroacetic acid: TCA

Dimethylsulfoxide: DMSO

Ultra-High-Performance Liquid Chromatography Coupled to High-Resolution Tandem Mass

Spectrometry: UHPLC-HRMS/MS

Fast protein liquid chromatography: FPLC

Highlights

- Metagenomic DEET hydrolase abundances higher in biofilms grown in treated wastewater.
- Eleven out of 64 metagenomic hydrolases tested exhibited hydrolysis activity.
- Related enzymes in a single family of DEET hydrolases biotransform 20+ contaminants.
- Reference DEET hydrolase shows a substrate preference for benzamide moieties.
- 'True' DEET hydrolases are in low abundance even in biofilms that degrade DEET.

1. Introduction

Trace organic contaminants (TrOCs) released due to anthropogenic activities such as industrial production and agricultural practices are exerting increasing pressures on ecosystems and human health (Caliman and Gavrilescu, 2009; Daughton and Ternes, 1999; Evich et al., 2022; Fenner et al., 2013; Halden, 2011; Schwarzenbach et al., 2006). Many TrOCs and their transformation products exert toxicity through bioaccumulation, mixture effects, and specific toxic interactions (Altenburger et al., 2018; Carles et al., 2021; Jin et al., 2023). In aquatic systems, microbes are the dominant players in the biotransformation and removal of various TrOCs through metabolic and co-metabolic processes (Che et al., 2021; Fenner et al., 2013; Han et al., 2023, 2019; Xing et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2018). However, apart from a few specific pathways, the diversity of enzymes involved in microbial biotransformation processes remain largely unknown. Understanding the scope and diversity of microbial enzyme-substrate interactions within environmental microbiomes is critical to improve prediction of biotransformations and promote contaminant removal (Fenner et al., 2021).

Freshwater biofilms are ideal systems for investigating TrOC biotransformation processes due to their complex community composition and critical ecological functions in aquatic environments (Battin et al., 2016; Desiante et al., 2021). Most studies on biofilms have been conducted using amplicon sequencing to profile taxonomic community shifts that correlate with TrOC biotransformations in treated wastewater (Carles et al., 2022, 2021; Desiante et al., 2022; Mansfeldt et al., 2020; Tien et al., 2013). Metagenomics and metatranscriptomics analyses have recently deepened the resolution of community analysis to identify functional shifts in TrOC-exposed engineered wetland biomats (Vega et al., 2023, 2022). However, the number of studies conducted on the molecular mechanisms of TrOC biotransformations in freshwater biofilms or biomats is small relative to other systems such as enriched soil consortia (Vasileiadis et al., 2022) or activated sludge (Rich and Helbling, 2023). Activated sludge studies have used metagenomics and metatranscriptomics to correlate microbial taxa, functional genes, and pollutant

biotransformations (Achermann et al., 2020; Athanasakoglou and Fenner, 2022; Kennes-Veiga

et al., 2022; Stadler et al., 2018), but also have remained limited in uncovering experimentally-

validated enzymes involved in TrOC biotransformations. Many enzymes involved in the

biotransformation of contaminants remain a 'black box.'

In our previous study, stream biofilms cultivated at different ratios of stream water and

either ultrafiltered or non-ultrafiltered treated wastewater (WW) exhibited varying TrOC

biotransformation capacities (Desiante et al., 2022). Among 75 TrOCs tested, seven compounds

(*N,N*-diethyl-meta-toluamide (DEET), acesulfame K, caffeine, cyclamate, levetiracetam,

saccharin, and valsartan, Figure S1) showed clear evidence for increased biotransformation rates

in biofilms grown at higher WW percentages, as compared to controls grown in stream water or

in ultrafiltered WW. This phenomenon, previously defined as the *downstream effect* (Desiante et

al., 2022), strongly suggested that microorganisms present in the WW might affect the

biotransformation capacity of biofilms downstream of wastewater treatment plants. Notably, all

compounds that exhibited the *downstream effect* contained hydrolyzable moieties, primarily

sulfonamide- and amide-functional groups (Figure S1). This motivated us to initiate a large-scale

investigation into the potential roles of environmental hydrolases from wastewater effluent-

impacted biofilms in degrading TrOCs.

Here we employed a metagenome mining framework to investigate contaminant

biotransformations and enzyme-substrate specificity in complex stream biofilm communities. We

observed that increasing biotransformation rates of DEET (an insect repellant and one of the

seven *downstream effect* compounds) corresponded with higher metagenomic abundances of

DEET hydrolase (DH) homologs in stream biofilms with increasing proportions of treated

wastewater (WW). Because of the similarity in hydrolyzable moieties amongst all *downstream*

effect compounds, we hypothesized that diverse metagenomic DH family homologs detected in

WW-impacted biofilms have an expanded substrate specificity not only for DEET, but also for

other WW-relevant contaminants. Guided by protein structural modeling from metagenomic

sequences, we designed, constructed, and tested a targeted metagenomic library of 64 DH

homologs. This work maps the sequence-structure-substrate relationships of DH family enzymes

encoded by ten different bacterial phyla from complex stream biofilm communities. The results

not only expand our fundamental understanding of how enzyme diversity relates to

biotransformation processes, but also have implications for the identification of novel and

functional TrOC-degrading enzymes from environmental microbiomes.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Biofilm sampling

The biofilm samples which in this study were used for metagenomic sequencing and

hydrolase screening were previously analyzed by 16S and 18S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing

(Carles et al., 2021) and organic contaminant biotransformation experiments (Desiante et al.,

2022). Briefly, the experimental flume systems (Burdon et al., 2020) for biofilm growth consisted

of two independent experiments described by (Desiante et al., 2022), with 16 (for experiment 1)

and 20 water channels (for experiment 2) fed with different proportions of the following sources:

stream water mixed in proportions with either 10%, 30%, or 80% WW (for experiment 1) or 30%

or 80% ultrafiltered (pore size 0.4 µm) WW in experiment 2. Biofilms were grown on glass slides

placed in these flow-through channels for four weeks. Biofilms from different glass slides within

the same channel were scraped independently to form biological replicates (n=4 for each

treatment) and suspended in 400 mL of artificial river water (Carles et al., 2022, 2021; Desiante

et al., 2022).

2.2. DEET hydrolase metagenomic library construction

Metagenomic sequencing and standard pre-processing and assembly pipelines used are

described by Attrah et al. (2023). Protein FASTA files from the 75 metagenomes (Table S1) were

queried for hits to the sole characterized reference DEET hydrolase (A3R4E0_PSEPU). Filtering

steps for metagenomic library selection are described in the SI. The 64 selected metagenomic

DH homolog sequences were codon-optimized for *E. coli* expression using the build-optimization

software, BOOST (Oberortner et al., 2017), and cloned by the U.S. Department of Energy Joint

Genome Institute with C-terminal 6x-His tags, a tobacco etch virus cleavage site, and additional

flexible linker into the first multiple cloning site of pCDF-Duet vectors retaining the NdeI and HindIII

restriction sites. Sequence-verified constructs were transformed into T7 Express Competent *E.*

coli cells (NEB C2566I).

2.3. Sequence and structure bioinformatic analysis

Read mapping and coverage calculations for the *P. putida* reference DH and full-length

DH homologs from the above-described metagenomic library were computed as described in the

SI. DH phylogenetic analysis is further described in the SI. Full-length sequences of the 64

metagenomic DH proteins and reference enzymes were used as inputs for structural modeling

using AlphaFold 2.0 ColabFold v1.3.0 (Mirdita et al., 2022) with default parameters. Structural

alignment methods are described in the SI.

2.4. Colorimetric activity screening of *P. putida* DH and DH homologs

Activity screening for the 64 metagenomic DH homologs and the *P. putida* reference

sequence was performed using a previously established colorimetric screening protocol for

hydrolase activity (Robinson et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2020) and described in the SI.

2.5. HPLC analysis of *P. putida* DH and metagenomic DH homologs hydrolysis activity

The enzyme activity of *P. putida* DH and DH homologs with DEET and methylbenzoate

(MB) were tested in crude extracts containing soluble proteins. DEET and MB (final conc. 250

µM) were added to individual vials containing crude extract separately. Subsequently, reaction

progress was monitored by sampling and quenching the reaction with an equal volume of

acetonitrile at defined time intervals at 0, 1, 3, 5 and 24h and measured by HPLC (Summit HPLC

system, Dionex). Detailed information regarding the HPLC method is included in the SI.

2.6. Purification of *P. putida* DH and metagenomic DH homologs

Induction and expression of DH homologs, cell lysis, and harvesting of cell pellets were

performed as described in the SI with 400 mL Terrific broth culture media (12 g/L tryptone, 24 g/L

yeast extract, 0.4% (v/v) glycerol) supplemented with 10% (vol/vol) phosphate buffer (0.17 M

KH_2PO_4 and 0.72 M K_2HPO_4). Protein purification was performed using benchtop purification for

initial tests and FPLC (ÄKTA Pure 25, Cytiva) for data and figures reported in the manuscript.

Fractions obtained from both benchtop and FPLC purifications were subjected to analysis by

SDS-PAGE (Figure S2 – S4). The detailed purification methods can be found in the SI.

2.7. TrOCs selection

A total of 183 TrOCs were chosen for biotransformation experiments with purified *P. putida*

DH and the highly active DH homolog p055 selected as described in the Results & Discussion.

These TrOCs are commonly used pesticides, pharmaceuticals, and artificial sweeteners and were

selected to equally cover a number of relevant enzymatic transformation reactions. Stock

solutions of TrOCs were individually prepared in DMSO at a concentration of 10 mM and stored

at −20°C until use. Detailed information including the suppliers of each compound can be found

in Table S4 and S5

2.8. High-throughput biotransformation experiments of TrOCs in 96-well plates

Purified *P. putida* DH and the metagenomic DH homolog p055 were tested for their activity

with 14 sub-mixtures composed of the 183 TrOCs instead of testing individual compounds. To

avoid potential cumulative toxicities and competitive inhibition, we first conducted a hierarchical

clustering of all compounds based on their chemical fingerprints and reaction rules triggered by

enviPath (Wicker et al., 2016). Sub-mixtures were then designed to contain compounds with

different annotated reaction rules. Each of the 14 sub-mixtures (200 µM for each TrOC) was

prepared via appropriate dilution of the stock solutions in EtOH (Table S4 and S5) and stored at

−20°C for later biotransformation experiments. The capability of TrOCs biotransformation by

different enzymes was investigated in a clear-bottomed 96-well plate (Greiner). Individual TrOC

sub-mixtures were first added to an empty 96-well plate and the organic solvent EtOH was

completely evaporated before 245 µL 10 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH=8) was added to each well. The

plate was shaken at 50 rpm for 15 min to redissolve the TrOCs. Individually purified enzymes

(final concentration of ~190 nM) were then added to a well plate and mixed thoroughly. Samples

for LC-HRMS/MS analysis were collected at 0, 1, 6, and 24h. At each sampling event, a 20 µL

sample was taken and mixed with the same amount of pure methanol to completely denature the

enzyme, 160 µL buffer was then added to the sample mixture for an approximately 10 times

dilution of the original sample. After centrifugation (13,000 × g, 4°C for 15 min), the supernatant

was collected and stored at 4°C for LC-HRMS/MS analysis. An enzyme-free abiotic fresh buffer

control and trichloroacetic acid (TCA) treated inactivated enzyme control were set up in the same

way as the biological experiment described above. All experiments were conducted in duplicate.

Samples were submitted to LC-HRMS/MS analysis within two days after collection. Matrix match

calibration standards were used for quantification. Quantification was based on concentrations

calculated from peak area integration using TraceFinder 5.1 (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

2.9. UHPLC-HRMS/MS analysis

The parent compounds and transformation products (TPs) were analyzed by UHPLC-

HRMS/MS (Q Exactive, Thermo Fisher Scientific) using a method as previously described but

with slight modifications (Yu et al., 2022). Detailed methods for the LC method can be found in

the SI. Xcalibur 4.0 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used for data acquisition and analysis. Suspect

screening for DEET transformation products was conducted using TraceFinder 5.1. ChemDraw

Professional 20.0 and MarvinSketch (v19.20.0, ChemAxon, http://www.chemaxon.com) were

used for drawing, displaying, and characterizing chemical structures. The minimum incubation

time for different control groups at which the maximum removal percentage of individual

compounds was achieved was calculated based on Equation 1. The results were included in

Table S4 (for DEET hydrolase) and Table S5 (for p055). Significant biological removal was

defined as following criteria: (1) > 20% removal in enzymatic control, and (2) at least 10% more

removal compared to both abiotic buffer control and inactivated enzyme control.

Equation 1. $Removal\ Percentage\ (\%) = \frac{C_0 - C_{final}}{C_0} \times 100\%$

Where C_0 is the initial concentration measured by LC-HRMS/MS and C_{final} is the final

concentration after biotransformation experiments.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Metagenomic sequencing and analysis of WW-impacted biofilm communities

We initiated this study to identify enzymes involved in the biotransformation of TrOCs

exhibiting the *downstream effect* in WW-impacted stream biofilms. Our previous study employed

16S rRNA gene analysis to identify differentially-abundant amplicon sequence variants correlating

with these TrOC biotransformations (Desiante et al., 2022). However, since 16S rRNA gene

sequencing doesn't capture functional genes, here we used deeply-sequenced metagenomes (up

to 200 million reads per sample) from the same biofilms (Attrah et al., 2023) and searched for

genes linked to the biodegradation of *downstream effect* TrOCs. Among the proposed

biotransformation pathways for the seven TrOCs showing a *downstream effect* (Desiante et al.,

2022), only one compound (DEET) could be linked to an experimentally validated hydrolase

sequence at the time of our analysis (Rivera-Cancel et al., 2007). The sequence of the protein

involved in hydrolysis of the *downstream effect* compound cyclamate remained unknown although

its partial purification was reported (Nimura et al., 1974). Several other pathways for *downstream*

effect compounds were predicted (Desiante et al., 2022), but only one additional validated

hydrolase for the *downstream effect* compound, acesulfame K, was reported during the course of

this analysis (Bonatelli et al., 2023). Using the reported acesulfame K hydrolase gene as a query

(Bonatelli et al., 2023), we detected no significant BLAST hits in our assembled metagenomes.

However, in the same metagenomes we detected more than 3,500 DEET hydrolase (DH)

homologs. This diversity and abundance motivated us to investigate experimentally the link

between DH homologs and the DEET biotransformation phenotype observed in the biofilms.

Next, we calculated the abundances of DH homologs in assembled metagenomes of

biofilms grown in different WW percentages. We used the *Psuedomonas putida* DH as a query

since this is the only characterized enzyme known to have DH activity. We quantified sequence

counts in the biofilms grown in 0%, 10%, 30%, and 80% treated WW mixed with stream water for

two independent flume experiments (Figure 1A). Notably, in two separate, independent flume

experiments, we observed a positive correlation between the metagenomic DH abundances in

biofilms and the percentage of unfiltered WW the biofilms were grown in (Figure 1A, R^2 = 0.77 for

Exp. 2, R^2 = 0.42 for Exp. 1). We also calculated the coverage of metagenomic reads mapping to

the *P. putida* DH reference in the stream, filtered WW, and unfiltered WW samples and identified

significantly more reads mapping in WW relative to stream water (Figure S5, *p*-value < 2e-16).

3.2. Enzyme-mediated biotransformation of TrOCs

The positive association between DH homolog abundances and treated wastewater

percentages suggested that DEET hydrolysis was an enzyme-mediated biotransformation

reaction occurring in WW and WW-impacted stream biofilms. We detected the expected DEET

hydrolysis transformation product (TP137) in biofilms grown at 80% WW (Figure 1C). The

transformation products were consistent with the higher abundance of DH homologs found in

these biofilms (Figure 1A). Besides the DEET hydrolysis product, we also detected the product of

tolyl group oxidation (i.e., TP222) in 80% WW-grown biofilms, indicating that oxidative

biotransformation of DEET also occurred. A previous study on microbial degradation of DEET

using activated sludge exclusively reported transformation products of oxidative transformation

reactions i.e., amide *N*-deethylation and tolyl group oxidation (Helbling et al., 2010b) (Figure 1B).

The *N*-deethylation product, TP164, was not detected in the biofilms probably due to its transient

behavior as described previously (Helbling et al., 2010b). In contrast, the amide hydrolysis product

DEET detected here (Figure 1B) was only previously reported from a pure culture of *P. putida*

isolated from activated sludge through enrichments on 2.6 mM DEET (Rivera-Cancel et al., 2007).

To further understand the substrate specificity of this reference *P. putida* DH, we cloned,

heterologously expressed, and purified the *P. putida* DH as a reference enzyme, and tested its

reactivity against a panel of 183 wastewater-related TrOCs. To avoid cumulative inhibitory effects,

the 183 WW-relevant compounds were pooled into 14 sub-mixtures (Table S4 and S5).

Compounds were separated into sub-mixtures using a pooling strategy that aimed to maximize

differences in initial preferred biotransformation reactions as predicted by enviPath (Wicker et al.,

2016; Zhang and Fenner, 2023). Results showed that the *P. putida* DH transformed 13 out of the

183 TrOCs tested compared to abiotic and inactivated enzyme controls (Figure 1D). With the

exceptions of mesalazine, duloxetine, and mefenamic acid, all other compounds biotransformed

by the *P. putida* DH contained at least one hydrolyzable moiety (Figure S6). Of those, one

compound contained an ester group as sole hydrolyzable moiety, four more compounds

contained a combination of esters and one or more amide groups, and five compounds contained

exclusively secondary or tertiary amides as hydrolyzable moieties. These results expand on

previous findings (Rivera-Cancel et al., 2012) that in addition to the ability of the *P. putida* DH to

catalyze hydrolysis of certain tertiary amides, it also exhibits promiscuous activity towards ester

and secondary amide-containing contaminants (Figure 1D and Figure S6). Here we use the term

'promiscuous activity' to refer to substrate promiscuity, which is the capability of an enzyme to

accept other substrates beyond its primary substrate. Of the five compounds for which hydrolysis

could exclusively have taken place at the amide functional group (i.e., DEET, MMclB,

moclobemide, indomethacin, and tebutam), four (i.e., DEET, MMclB, moclobemide, and

indomethacin) contained benzamide functional groups. This points to DH preferring, but not being

limited to, the presence of the benzamide moiety in its substrates. Notably, of the over 80 amide-

containing compounds tested in our library, five more compounds—enzalutamide, apremilast,

tebufenozide, bentazone, and apalutamide—contained benzamide substructures yet did not

undergo significant biotransformation. Closer inspection of their molecular structures revealed

that all of these compounds contained an ortho-substitution on the benzamide ring with the

exception of tebufenozide. This structural characteristic has been previously described to hinder

hydrolysis of secondary amides in activated sludge microbial communities due to steric effects

(Helbling et al., 2010a).

Figure 1: A) Normalized counts of hits in biofilm metagenomes bearing sequence similarity to the *P. putida* DH recovered from assembled metagenomic sequences fitted with a linear regression model (95% confidence interval) across two independent experiments: experiment 1 (light gray) and experiment 2 (dark gray). B) Documented DEET biotransformation pathways and transformation products (TPs) detected in this study. The product TP164 in the dashed-gray box was reported previously (Helbling et al., 2010b) but not detected in this study. C) DEET degradation (solid line) and detected transformation products (TPs) (dashed line) in 80% WW and 0% WW (no TP was detected in 0% WW samples). D) Purified *P. putida* DH substrate specificity for active enzyme (in orange) relative to an inactivated enzyme (hashed lines) and abiotic buffer control (white). Detailed selection criteria and complete biotransformation data are available in the Methods and Table S4. Compounds structures are displayed in Figure S6.

3.3. Construction of a metagenomic library of DEET hydrolase family homologs.

Previous studies on the *P. putida* DH revealed it is a di-domain CocE/NonD family enzyme containing both alpha/beta hydrolase and Xaa-Pro dipeptidyl-peptidase protein domains (Rivera-Cancel et al., 2012, 2007). Referred here for simplicity as the 'DH family', enzymes in this diverse family were also previously shown to cleave cocaine (Bresler et al., 2000) and α-amino acid esters (Barends et al., 2006). The broad substrate range of DH family enzymes beyond DEET hydrolysis

along with our results from the *P. putida* DH (Figure 1D) suggested the potential for DH homologs

in WW-grown stream biofilms to transform other TrOCs beside DEET. Therefore, we turned our

attention to uncharacterized DH homologs detected in the 75 metagenomes from this study (Table

S1). After metagenomic assembly and gene calling (Attrah et al., 2023), we selected a library of

64 full-length DH homologs based on taxonomic and sequence diversity (Table S2, see SI).

Taxonomic annotations for the DH sequences were assigned to total 10 different bacterial phyla:

Acidobacteriota, *Actinobacteriota*, *Bacteriodota*, *Chloroflexota*, *Firmicutes* (*Bacillota*),

Gemmatimonadota, *Myxococcota*, *Planctomycetota*, *Proteobacteria* (*Pseudomonadota*), and

Verrucomicrobiota. Surprisingly, a full-length DH sequence with amino acid sequence identity

greater than 40% to the *P. putida* DH reference (Rivera-Cancel et al., 2007) could not be

recovered from the assemblies, although we did recover DH homologs from *Pseudomonas* and

other related genera. Full-length DH homologs recovered from metagenomes with start and stop

codons intact had an average of only 25% amino acid sequence identity with the *P. putida* DH

(Table S2). The high level of sequence diversity and general conservation of DH homologs across

phyla suggested a more conserved role of DH homologs *e.g.*, in primary metabolism, beyond

specialized DEET hydrolysis. In order to test this hypothesis experimentally, we next investigated

sequence-structure-function relationships of the metagenomic DH family enzymes (Figure 2).

3.4. Sequence-structure-function relationships among DH family enzymes

We reconstructed a maximum-likelihood phylogeny of metagenomic DH homologs relative

to the reference *P. putida* DH (Figure 2A). Although enzymes from many folds are often sequence-

diverse, they still often share conserved protein structures (Illergård et al., 2009). Thus, to further

test structural similarity of our DH homologs, we used AlphaFold2 (Jumper and Hassabis, 2022)

to construct structural models for the 64 metagenomic DH homologs in our library. Structural

model comparisons revealed that enzymes shared an average of 1.73 ± 0.43 angstrom (Å) root-

mean squared deviation (RMSD) of atomic positions with the *P. putida* reference DH (Table S6).

A RMSD less than two indicates relatively high structural similarity and is comparable to values

reported in structural alignments of other related members of contaminant-degrading enzyme

families (Perez-Garcia et al., 2021; Sidhu et al., 2019). We then compared our sequence

phylogeny (Figure 2B) with a neighbor-joining tree generated from the RMSD matrix of all-vs-all

structural alignments in our AlphaFold2 library (Figure 2C). This head-to-head tree comparison

enabled us to view how clades of sequence-similar DH proteins grouped generally-with

structurally-related DH proteins. This approach also enabled us to identify 'structural deviants'

among the DH homologs discussed further in section 3.6.

Important for this comparison, we verified that our DH homolog structural models were of

high confidence with an average predicted local distance difference test (pLDDT) score >80

inclusive of unstructured N- and C-termini (Table S6). Structural alignments of catalytic residues

in our library with the *P. putida* DH active site revealed 100% conservation of the catalytic serine

and greater than 90% conservation of a complete Ser-His-Asp catalytic triad (Table S6). Our

metagenomic library contained more variation (Table S6) with respect to oxyanion hole residues

(*P. putida* DH: Y84 and W167) and two other known substrate interacting residues M170 and

W214 (Rivera-Cancel et al., 2012). We hypothesized that these active site variants occurring in

nature might correspond to altered substrate specificity of the DH homologs in our metagenomic

library.

Figure 2. A) Representation of bacterial phyla as a relative abundance within the metagenomic DH homolog library (n = 64) B) Maximum-likelihood sequence-based phylogeny and C) neighbor-joining structural tree of DH family hydrolases. Tips with the same identity are linked between trees. Bootstrap support (1,000 replicates) for internal nodes is indicated by shading. Tips are colored based on the phylum of the assigned taxonomic origin of metagenomic hydrolases. Star colors correspond to activity measured with 4 substrates: Red = DEET (reference compound), Blue = methylbenzoate (aromatic ester), Green = 4-nitrophenyl trimethylacetate (branched aliphatic), Gold = 4-nitrophenyl butyrate (linear aliphatic). Functionally-divergent alpha/beta hydrolases (PDB IDs: 1MJ5, 3HI4 and 6QHV) were used as an outgroup.

3.5. Functional screening of the metagenomic DH homolog library

In order to test the substrate specificity of our metagenomic DH homolog library, we codon optimized, cloned and and expressed each of the 64 metagenomic sequences in *E. coli*. We screened for activity in each of the 64 hydrolase-expressing strains with four different ester or amide-containing substrates (Figure 2): DEET, methylbenzoate, 4-nitrophenyl butyrate, and 4-nitrophenyl trimethylacetate using a combination of HPLC and a previously-optimized 96-well plate protocol (Robinson et al., 2020) (Methods in SI). Eleven out of 64 metagenomic library enzymes tested were identified as active with at least one substrate, primarily with the linear and

branched 4-nitrophenyl aliphatic esters (Figure 3). Substrates with ester linkages were preferred

by metagenomic DH homologs likely because esters are generally susceptible to nucleophilic

attack, e.g., by the catalytic serine of the α/β-fold hydrolase triad conserved among all of the 64

DH homologs.

Out of the 64 enzymes screened, one metagenomic hydrolase (denoted p006) hydrolyzed

methylbenzoate and 4-nitrophenyl butyrate but not DEET (Figure 4). The substrate specificity of

p006 is striking in light of previous reports (Rivera-Cancel et al., 2012) confirmed by our own

results shown here (Figure 4) that the reference *P. putida* DH hydrolyzes both methylbenzoate

and DEET. Compounds containing tertiary amide groups, such as DEET, are more sterically

hindered than carboxylic acid esters. Additionally, after testing all 64 DH homologs, surprisingly

only the reference *P. putida* DH was capable of DEET hydrolysis (Figure 4). This may be due to

the fact that the *P. putida* DH contains active site residues which occur in a unique combination

relative to active site residues in the metagenomic DH homologs. Specifically, Y84, W167 and

M170 exclusively co-occur in the *P. putida* DH. Swapping each of these residues individually for

alanine negatively impacts the kinetics of DEET hydrolysis (Rivera-Cancel et al., 2012). Each of

these three residues (Y84, W167 and M170) occurred individually or in pairs in different proteins

in our metagenomic DH homolog library. However, all three residues co-occurring together were

not identified in any DH homologs (Table S6) in the full dataset or in public databases apart from

in the reference *P. putida* DH. This suggests that epistatic interactions between multiple amino

acids in the *P. putida* DH active site is critical for DEET hydrolysis. Moreover, in our metagenomic

analysis, we identified a naturally-occurring and diverse pool of genes encoding for various

combinations of the active site residues Y84, W167 and M170. Such observed genetic diversity

within microbial communities indicates a potential for developing specialized functions, especially

when exposed to selective pressure from contaminants. Specifically, we propose that different

active site variants in this diverse gene pool may contribute to the emergence of specialized

degradation enzymes, such as the *P. putida* DH which was identified under DEET enrichment

conditions (Rivera-Cancel et al., 2007)**.**

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Figure 3. A) Linear and branched 4-nitrophenyl (4NP) ester substrates tested: 4NP butyrate
(yellow star) and 4NP trimethylacetate (green star) both release 4NP as a chromophore B) The
ten most active metagenomic enzymes in our library tested in a colorimetric screening assay for
4NP hydrolysis activity. Units for enzyme activity are reported as $\log_{10}$ of nanomoles of 4NP
released per hour by an *E. coli* cell culture with an optical density unit (OD) of 1.0, enabling direct
comparison with the activity values reported from previous enzymatic screening studies
(Robinson et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2020). Enzyme activity is measured compared to negative
control empty vector (NEG) and reference *P. putida* DEET hydrolase (DH). The average activity
level calculated across all enzymes and substrates is drawn as a dotted gray line.
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3.6. Biochemical characterization of a new metagenomic hydrolase p055 and its reactivity

with TrOCs

Among the 64 enzymes in our functional metagenomic library, p055 had the highest

average combined enzyme activity with 4-nitrophenyl trimethylacetate and 4-nitrophenyl butyrate.

Analysis of the DNA and translated protein sequences of the metagenomic sequence p055 could

only resolve the taxonomic origin at the family level as belonging to purple nonsulfur bacteria

assigned to the family *Rhodospirillaceae*. By mapping metagenomic raw reads to all full-length

DH homologs in the library, we identified p055 as the only active enzyme in our library which also

showed a clear increasing trend in metagenomic abundance with WW % (Figure S7).

Furthermore, p055 was 'structurally deviant' from the *P. putida* DH and other DH homologs in the

metagenomic library (Figure 2). With respect to primary amino acid sequence identity, p055

grouped with other metagenomic hydrolases (Figure 2B), but it was clearly differentiated from the

rest of the DH homologs on the basis of its structure (Figure 2C). Closer analysis revealed p055

has much shorter alpha helices in one of its domains relative to reference *P. putida* DH (Figure

4). Of note, the helical regions are in a high-confidence region of the AlphaFold2 models (pLDDT >

95) suggesting the structural deviation was not a modeling artifact. We calculated the overall

alpha helix content of the reference *P. putida* DH and found it had higher alpha helix content than

all but one other enzyme among the active hydrolases identified in the metagenomic DH homolog

library (Table S7). Since the alpha helices in p055 (encircled region, Figure 4) are smaller relative

to the *P. putida* DH helices in the vicinity of the active site, we hypothesized p055 structural

deviation might also correspond to substrate variation.

To test p055 substrate specificity, we expressed and purified the metagenome-derived

enzyme to homogeneity as a 66 kDa protein with a yield of 640 μg/mL (Figure S4). We calculated

the specific enzymatic activity in buffers over a range of different pHs and determined p055 had

a pH optimum between 8.5 – 9 (Figure S8). The enzyme p055 had an optimal temperature of

35°C (Figure S9) and displayed activity up to 45°C which corresponds well with the optimal growth

temperatures of the *Rhodospirillaceae* as the predicted source (Baldani et al., 2014). Following

incubation for one hour at 40°C, the enzyme lost 50% of its activity (Figure S10), indicating p055

is not highly thermostable. Loss of activity at 40°C is not unexpected since this enzyme originates

from an environmental biofilm grown in WW and stream water where temperatures ranged from

12°C - 14°C (Desiante et al., 2022).

A screening of the substrate promiscuity of this environmental hydrolase p055 with the

183 TrOCs revealed reactivity towards 8 substrates (Figure 5C and Figure S11). By comparing

p055 substrate specificity with the *P. putida* DH reference, we identified 20 substrates which were

different between the enzymes and two substrates which were shared. Namely, both p055 and

P. putida DH catalyze the hydrolysis of bisacodyl and moclobemide. Bisacodyl is known as a

prodrug that can be metabolized by intestinal and bacterial enzymes to its deacetylated active

metabolite. As active esterases, *P. putida* DH and p055 are both capable of facilitating this

hydrolytic process.

Figure 4. A) AlphaFold2 model of DH homolog p055 and substrate specificity as measured by
LC-MS/MS, B) AlphaFold2 model of *P. putida* DH. The yellow encircled region corresponds to an
alpha-helix rich region in the vicinity of the active site which has higher alpha helix content than
most other active metagenomic DH homologs (Table S7). C) AlphaFold2 model of p006 and
HPLC measurements of DEET and methylbenzoate (MB) and product formation of 3-
methylbenzoate (red, denoted as "3MB") and benzoate (light blue, denoted as "B"), respectively,
by the *P. putida* DH and p006 (C). Detailed selection criteria and complete biotransformation data
are available in Methods and Table S5. Recent analysis of the amino acid sequence p006
suggests a more accurate taxonomic placement to the phylum *'Candidatus Hydrogenedentes'*
based on 93.6% amino acid identity and 100% query cover with proteins from a metagenome-
assembled genome (MAG) from wastewater (Lin et al., 2021).
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Overall, we detected activity in approximately 5% of the 626 distinct enzyme-substrate

combinations tested. The activity rate with our targeted metagenome mining approach was higher

than most untargeted functional metagenomics screens, where on average less than 0.08% of

colonies screened are active, depending on the activity screening method (Ferrer et al., 2016).

This result highlights the benefits of *in silico* analysis mapping sequence-structure-function

relationships to prioritize candidates for metagenomic libraries.

The fact that many of the metagenomic DH homologs tested were active with other organic

substrates, yet not active with DEET, also raises the question of whether there are additional

responsible enzyme(s) for DEET hydrolysis in stream biofilms. While DH homologs with high

similarity to the reference *P. putida* DH were not recovered in the metagenomic assembly

process, metagenomic short reads mapped to the *P. putida* DH (Figure S5). Therefore 'true' DHs

with activity similar to the *P. putida* DH are therefore likely present in low abundance. This also

emphasizes the limitations of metagenomic assembly-based approaches for capturing rare, low-

abundance genes involved in TrOC biotransformations. Here, we examined the only enzyme

family for which we could match an observed TrOC biotransformation to a validated reference

sequence detected in our metagenomes. In the environment, we also expect diverse hydrolase

families beyond DH and its homologs to contribute to hydrolysis of diverse TrOCs (Hübner et al.,

2021), including *downstream effect* compounds. Other DEET biotransformation products e..g,

formed from oxidative *N*-deethylation, were observed but the responsible enzymes are currently

not well-understood and represent future directions.

It is also worth noting that, within microbial communities, enzymes and their producers

exist in a mixture and certain transformation products of a TrOC may be further transformed by

enzymes produced by different community members (Wang et al., 2022). All the evidence points

to the importance of maintaining (bio)diversity in natural water systems to effectively cope with

and challenges by novel entities and anthropogenic activities. In our study, this was exemplified

by characterizing new DH homologs spanning ten different microbial phyla from complex WW-

impacted biofilm communities. Future studies investigating diverse enzyme families are

necessary to expand reference sets for TrOC biodegradation. This will not only deepen our

understanding of the fate of TrOCs in environments, but also facilitate the development of more

accurate prediction models for assessing TrOC biotransformations in natural and engineered

aquatic systems.

4. Conclusions

Through combined metagenome mining and experimental characterization, this work

yielded new insights into the involvement of DH family enzymes in TrOC biotransformations.

Several major conclusions arose from this study:

● This work provided lessons for the computational prediction of responsible enzymes for

TrOC removal including the importance of setting a high sequence similarity for assigning

protein functions. Depending on enzyme class, functions may or may not be conserved

when sequence similarity is low (e.g., less than 40%), even when structural similarity is

high as in the case of the DH homologs. Here we characterized enzymes with low amino

acid identity to the reference DH. Enzymes bearing low similarity to reference sequences

also come from unexplored regions of sequence space thereby presenting opportunities

for the discovery of new active metagenomic hydrolases such as p055 with altered

substrate specificity for other TrOCs.

● Activity-based screening approaches provide complementary and separate information

from sequence- and structure-based approaches to uncover enzymes involved in TrOC

biotransformations, as exemplified here. Additional strategies such as machine learning

based enzyme-substrate promiscuity predictions or (meta)transcriptomics to identify

candidates with differential expression patterns may point towards candidates not

detected by shifts in metagenomic abundances.

● Finally, our findings serve as a warning that correlations in 'omics data do not equal

causation. Experimental validation is often critical to test hypotheses generated from

microbiome analyses. Metagenomic DH homologs were identified by bioinformatics

methods as being active in DEET biotransformation but were not active with DEET,

despite being active with other substrates. In addition to sequence similarity, further knowledge on specific amino acids (e.g., active site), secondary structural features (e.g., alpha helices as analyzed here), and experimental or environmental conditions (e.g., pH, temperature) must be incorporated to improve the prediction of TrOC removal in environmental systems.

CRediT Authorship Contribution Statement

Y.Y.: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Visualization; N.F.T.: Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing - Review & Editing; M.R.S.: Methodology, Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing - Review & Editing; K.F.: Conceptualization, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition; S.L.R.: Conceptualization, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

Data Availability

Sequencing data are available on NCBI under the BioProject accession number PRJNA1008123. Scripts for data analysis and figures in this manuscript are available on github.com/MSM-group/DEET-hydrolase.

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