TITLE: Secondary metabolite profiling of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates reveals rare

genomic traits

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Abstract

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is a ubiquitous gram-negative opportunistic pathogen with remarkable phylogenetic and phenotypic variability. In this work, we applied classical molecular networking analysis to secondary metabolite profiling data from seven *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains, including five clinical isolates from the lung secretions of people with cystic fibrosis. Combined with whole-genome sequencing, we show that some *P. aeruginosa* isolates, including nmFLRO1, produce a previously unreported class of acyl putrescines, isolate SH3A does not produce di-rhamnolipids because its genome belongs to phylogenetic clade 5, and the secondary metabolite profile of isolate SH1B reflects a frame-shift mutation in the quorum sensing regulator *rhlR*. This study highlights for the first time that secondary metabolite profiling provides unique insight into genetic variation of *P. aeruginosa*.

Importance

Secondary metabolite profiling of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates can be used to identify rare genomic variants that impact quorum sensing and metabolite biosynthesis that underlie virulence.

Introduction

   Pseudomonas aeruginosa is a ubiquitous gram-negative bacterium responsible for both acute and chronic infections. The remarkable phylogenetic and phenotypic diversity of *P. aeruginosa*, including varied virulence mechanisms, conversion to mucoid by overproduction of alginate, and altered quorum sensing (QS) pathways contribute to its survival in varied environments [1-5]. One mechanism *P. aeruginosa* uses to interact with its environment is through the production of secondary metabolites [6-8]. These compounds are known to mediate a variety of virulence mechanisms used by *P. aeruginosa* in the host environment, including swarming motility, QS, iron acquisition, and the production of reactive oxygen species [9-11]. Recently, liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) profiling of the *P. aeruginosa* secondary metabolome has been applied to identify markers of virulence, measure the effect of nutritional changes on QS pathways, and to capture the diversity of the metabolites produced [7-9, 12, 13].

   The secondary metabolome of *P. aeruginosa* has been extensively characterized and consists of a small number of molecular families, including homoserine lactones (HSLs), phenazines (PHZs), alkyl quinolones (AQs), rhamnolipids (RLs), and the siderophores pyochelin (PCH) and pyoverdine (PVD) [7, 9, 11, 14]. The production of secondary metabolites by *P. aeruginosa* is dependent, in part, on the functionality of their biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) and the QS pathways that regulate their production [15]. The QS system of *P. aeruginosa* is composed of three interdependent regulatory circuits: *las, rhl,* and *pqs* systems [16]. Historically considered hierarchical, the three QS systems are inherently intertwined with overlapping regulons. In the *las* QS system, LasI produces the autoinducer 3-oxo-dodecanoyl-L-homoserine lactone (3-oxo-C12-HSL), which is subsequently bound by the LasR transcriptional regulator

[17, 18]. LasR bound to 3-oxo-C12-HSL dimerizes and activates a variety of transcriptional

pathways, including the *rhl* QS system. In *rhl* QS, RhlI produces *N*-butanoyl-L-homoserine

lactone (C4-HSL), which binds to the RhlR transcriptional regulator, enabling dimerization and

activation of its regulon [19]. The RhlI/RhlR system directly controls RL production [20]. Both

las and *rhl* QS systems regulate the *pqs* QS system through the transcriptional regulator PqsR

(MvfR) [16]. PqsR regulates the production of AQs, including the autoinducers 2-heptyl-4-

quinolone (HHQ) and Pseudomonas quinolone signal (PQS), with PQS a more potent inducer of

PqsR than HHQ. The BGC for the AQs includes the protein PqsE, which is not required for AQ

production, but is required for production of the PHZs, including pyocyanin (PYO) [19]. The

function of PqsE in QS has not been fully elucidated, but it is known to function as a chaperone

providing stability to RhlR and may also produce an uncharacterized signaling molecule [21,

22]. Both RhlR and PqsE are required for production of PYO by *P. aeruginosa* [17, 18]. The

BGCs of secondary metabolites are well conserved in the genomes of *P. aeruginosa* isolates, but

mutations within the QS pathways are common. Mutations affecting LasR are more common

than RhlR [23]. However, some isolates with LasR QS mutations are still capable of producing

secondary metabolites by secondary mutations within other transcriptional regulators, including

MexT, which can activate the *rhl* QS pathways [24].

Herein, we applied secondary metabolite profiling to five isolates of *P. aeruginosa* from

cystic fibrosis (CF) sputum cultured in synthetic CF medium 2 (SCFM2), a medium developed

to mimic the nutritional environment of the CF lung [25]. Approximately 60% of adults with CF

have chronic and recurrent airway infections caused by *P. aeruginosa*, which contributes to

morbidity and mortality [26]. By performing presence-absence analysis on the metabolomics

data, we show that CF clinical isolates produce the same suite of secondary metabolites as

laboratory strains PAO1 and PA14. However, some metabolites were only produced by one or

more of the clinical isolates. Evaluating the metabolomics data for metabolites produced only by

a single isolate of *P. aeruginosa*, we discovered that one of the isolates, mFLRO1, produces a

class of acyl putrescines from the conjugation of putrescine with various fatty acids and another,

SH3A, only produces mono-RLs due to its genome similarity to phylogenetic clade 5

representative strain PA-W1. By evaluating the metabolomics data for metabolites produced by

all strains except one, we discovered that the genome of isolate SH1B has a one base frameshift

mutation in *rhlR* that disrupts QS signaling, leading to decreased production of RLs and PHZs.

Taken together, our data shows that profiling the secondary metabolome can be used to identify

rare genomic variants that impact QS and metabolite biosynthesis in *P. aeruginosa* isolates.

Results and Discussion

Five *P. aeruginosa* CF clinical isolates, including nmFLRO1, mFLRO1, SH1B, SH2D,

and SH3A, were subjected to secondary metabolite profiling and whole genome sequencing

(Table S1). Isolates nmFLRO1 and mFLRO1 were isolated at the University of California, San

Diego Adult CF Clinic. Strains SH1B, SH2D, and SH3A were isolated from an individual with

CF in Hanover, Germany before, during, and after a transient infection with *Burkholderia*

cenocepacia H111, respectively [27]. The isolates were cultured in SCFM2 alongside laboratory

strains PAO1 and PA14 and gross morphology of the cultures was visualized using a stereo

microscope (Figure 1A). All *P. aeruginosa* strains formed macrostructures at the air-liquid

interface of the cultures, which descended into aggregates on the bottom of the wells. Aligning

with our previous results, PAO1 cultures in SCFM2 were blue in color, indicating production of

the phenazine pyocyanin (PYO) [7]. The cultures of the other strains were less visually distinct,

ranging in color from a moderate yellow (nmFLRO1) to faint green (SH3A) and colorless

(mFLRO1). The color of the cultures and complexity of the macrostructures were strain-

dependent and somewhat variable between replicates (Figure S1). Although most of the macro-

aggregate structures were dispersed across the top of the well, two replicates of mFLRO1 formed

a tighter pattern. The variability in culture color and aggregation between the strains was not due

to differences in growth, as there was similar recovery of colony forming units (CFU/mL) after

disruption of the aggregates from all cultures (Figure 1B). Although all cultures became alkaline,

those of mFLRO1 were less basic than the other strains (Figure 1C).

Classical molecular networking analysis of isolates cultured in SCFM2. To determine

whether the CF isolates produced the same suite of secondary metabolites as the laboratory

strains, culture extracts were subjected to LC-MS/MS metabolomics and classical molecular

networking (CMN) [28]. CMN organizes structurally related metabolites into molecular families

by leveraging the concept that molecules with similar chemical structures have similar

fragmentation patterns in their MS/MS spectra. In the molecular network, the MS/MS spectra of

metabolites are represented as nodes and the relatedness between the MS/MS spectra is

illustrated by the thickness of the connecting edges. Each node in a classical molecular network

is most often composed of MS/MS spectra from multiple samples. Metadata groups denoting

strain name ("Strain," e.g., "PAO1") and type ("Origin," e.g., "Lab") were used to identify which

samples contributed to each node via MS/MS spectra. The number of nodes shared by each

combination of sample groups was quantified and visualized as UpSet plots.

Four hundred nine molecular ions were captured in the classical molecular network

(Figure 2A). Under the experimental conditions, four members of the PHZ molecular family

were measured, including PYO, 1-hydroxyphenazine (1-HP), phenazine-1-carboxamide (PCN),

and phenazine-1-carboxylic acid (PCA). Forty-two AQs were detected, including HHQ, 2-

heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline *N*-oxide (HQNO), PQS, and their associated nonyl congeners (NHQ,

NQNO, and C9-PQS). RLs produced by *P. aeruginosa* consist of two sub-families, mono- and

di-RLs with one and two rhamnose units bound to 3□(3□hydroxyalkanoyloxy) alkanoic acids

(HAAs), respectively. Both mono- and di-RLs were detected from various cultures, as was the

siderophore PCH. The HSLs and PVD were below the limit of detection.

Three hundred thirty-three molecular ions (81%) were detected from the cultures of at

least one laboratory strain and one clinical isolate (Figure 2B), with 109 nodes (26%) measured

from the cultures of all strains (Figure 2C). Secondary metabolites detected from all strains

included 1-HP, PCN, PCA, HHQ, HQNO, PQS, NHQ, NQNO, C9-PQS, and PCH. Notably

absent from this set of secondary metabolites were the RLs and PYO. Seventeen nodes were

detected in all strains except SH1B, including those representing RLs and PYO (Figure 2C).

Although most nodes in the network represented shared molecular ions between lab and clinical

strain cultures, 74 nodes (18%) were detected solely from the cultures of clinical isolates (Figure

2B), primarily from the cultures of mFLRO1 (20 nodes) and SH3A (14 nodes) (Figure 2C). Only

two nodes were measured solely from the cultures of the laboratory strains (Figure 2B). This data

suggests that *P. aeruginosa* isolates produce the same suite of secondary metabolites as

laboratory strains; however, some clinical isolates produce unique compounds and/or are unable

to produce specific secondary metabolites under these culture conditions.

Clinical isolate mFLRO1 produces acyl putrescines. Twenty nodes in the classical molecular

network represented molecular ions uniquely detected from the cultures of mFLRO1 (Figure 2).

Four of these nodes clustered within a molecular family of 11 members (Figure 3A). Two nodes

of the molecular family had spectral matches to the MS/MS spectra of acyl putrescine synthetic

standards deposited within the GNPS libraries (Figure S2) [29]. Acyl putrescines consist of the

polyamine putrescine conjugated to fatty acids of varying chain length and unsaturation. The two

library matches putatively identified putrescine conjugated to hexadecenoic acid (putrescine

C16:1) and octadecenoic acid (putrescine C18:1). These annotations were manually confirmed

by comparing the experimental accurate mass and MS/MS measurements to the predicted and

library values. The other nine members of the acyl putrescine molecular family were putatively

annotated based on mass defect and MS/MS spectral similarity to the GNPS library matches.

Of the eleven nodes within the acyl putrescine molecular family, nine nodes were

composed of spectra solely from the cultures of clinical isolates. To determine which of the

isolates produced the highest quantity of acyl putrescines, their relative abundance was

quantified and compared between strains (Figure 3B, Figure S3). Only eight of the acyl

putrescines were measured above the limit of quantitation. Strain mFLRO1 produced the highest

concentration of acyl putrescines, preferentially producing putrescine C16:1, putrescine C18:1,

and putrescine conjugated to hexadecanoic acid (putrescine C16:0).

To determine whether other *P. aeruginosa* isolates could produce acyl putrescines, two

publicly available metabolomics datasets were downloaded from the MassIVE data repository

and queried using MassQL. Datasets MSV000086107 and MSV000089869 contain LC-MS/MS

data that captured the secondary metabolome of eight *P. aeruginosa* clinical isolates collected at

the University of California, San Diego Adult CF Clinic and 35 isolates from various sites of

infection selected from the Helmholtz Centre for Infection Research biobank, respectively [9,

13]. The data for both datasets were collected from *P. aeruginosa* isolates cultured in LB.

MassQL is a computational method that enables users to search publicly available

metabolomics data for patterns captured in MS data that are intrinsically related to compound

structure, such as isotopic ratios or compound class-specific fragments captured in the MS/MS

spectra [30]. The MS/MS spectra of datasets MSV000086107 and MSV000089869 were

searched for the presence of two structural characteristics of acyl putrescines captured in their

MS/MS spectra: a neutral loss corresponding to the mass of NH_2 (-17.0264 Da) and a fragment

ion of m/z 72.0802 corresponding to the molecular formula $C_4H_{12}N^+$. This MassQL query

resulted in the identification of acyl putrescines in both datasets. These results were manually

verified by comparing experimental accurate mass and MS/MS measurements between the

queried dataset and the annotations of the acyl putrescines described above.

The acyl putrescines were quantified from all samples within each dataset using the built-

in quantitation algorithm of GNPS Dashboard [31]. GNPS Dashboard is a web-based platform

for the visualization of open-source format LC-MS data. Chromatographic peak area for

individual molecules is calculated in GNPS Dashboard using user provided exact mass and

retention time parameters. Importantly, due to differences in experimental conditions and data

acquisition, intensity values could only be compared within each dataset. Statistical comparison

of acyl putrescine abundance between the isolates included in the datasets could not be

performed as both datasets contained metabolomics data for single replicates.

Acyl putrescines were detected from all eight clinical isolates within dataset

MSV000086107, with VVP0003 and VVP0006 producing the highest relative quantities (Figure

3C). Unlike mFLRO1, which predominantly produced putrescine C16:1, putrescine C18:1, and

putrescine C16:0, the fatty acids incorporated into the acyl putrescines by the isolates of dataset

MSV000086107 varied in length and unsaturation. Isolate VVP0003 preferentially produced

putrescine C14:0, putrescine 16:1, and putrescine 16:0; VVP0006 produced putrescine C15:0,

and VVP0008 produced putrescine C16:1. Acyl putrescines were also detected in culture extracts

of Dataset MSV000089869 isolates (Figure 3D, Figure S4). Of the 35 isolates included in the

study, strains F1764 (isolated from the respiratory tract) and ZG316717 (isolated from an ear

infection) produced the highest levels of acyl putrescines, with both preferentially making

putrescine C15:0 and putrescine C17:1. This result showed that different *P. aeruginosa* isolates

produce acyl putrescines, with strain-dependent incorporation of different fatty acids.

Dysregulation of polyamine biosynthesis in *P. aeruginosa* clinical isolates is well

documented [32-36]. Putrescine is catabolized to succinate and ammonia through the putrescine

utilization pathway and/or converted to spermidine by *P. aeruginosa*. To control free spermidine

levels, *P. aeruginosa* is known to *N*-acetylate spermidine [37, 38]. However, neither acetylated

nor acylated spermidine was detected in mFLRO1 culture extracts. Production of acyl

putrescines by *P. aeruginosa* isolates may be an alternative deactivation mechanism to control

culture alkalinity due to putrescine degradation, as evidenced by the lower alkalinity of mFLRO1

cultures compared to the other isolates (Figure 1C), and/or to reduce the toxicity associated with

high free spermidine levels [39, 40].

Clinical isolate SH3A is genetically related to PA-W1. Fourteen nodes in the classical

molecular network represented molecular ions uniquely detected from the cultures of SH3A

(Figure 2). Three of these nodes clustered within a molecular family of 13 members (Figure 4A).

Three nodes within the molecular family had spectral matches to the MS/MS spectra of

characterized mono- and di-RLs RC10C10, RRC10C10, and RRC10C12:1 in the GNPS

libraries. The other ten members of the RL molecular family were annotated based on mass

defect and MS/MS spectral similarity to the GNPS library matches. This analysis led to the

identification of seven mono-RLs and three di-RLs, including the discovery of one mono-RL and

one di-RL with monoacetylated rhamnose units (Figure S5).

The three nodes representing molecular ions in the RL molecular family detected from

only SH3A cultures were annotated as three mono-RLs (RC10C11, RC12C12:1, and RC12C12).

Further evaluation of the metadata information in category "Strain" of the molecular family

revealed that although SH3A produced mono-RLs, di-RLs were not detected from SH3A

cultures. To determine whether preferential production of mono-RLs was unique to SH3A, RL

relative abundance was quantified and compared between strains (Figure 4B, Figure S6). Only

nine of the RLs were measured above the limit of quantitation. Strain SH3A was the only strain

to exclusively produce mono-RLs.

In *P. aeruginosa*, di-RLs are produced by the sequential functions of RhlA, RhlB, and

RhlC (Figure 4C). RhlA produces HAAs, which are subsequently glycosylated by the

rhamnosyltransferase RhlB to form mono-RLs [41]. RhlC condenses dTDP-L-rhamnose with

mono-RLs to produce di-RLs. Although RhlA and RhlB are encoded in a bicistronic operon

(*rhlAB*), RhlC is encoded separately on the *P. aeruginosa* genome [42]. The inability of SH3A to

produce di-RLs led to the hypothesis that SH3A did not have functional RhlC, resulting in the

production of only mono-RLs. PCR analysis of the SH3A genome revealed that it did not encode

for RhlC (Figure 4D).

Previously reported phylogenetic analysis of thousands of *P. aeruginosa* strains showed

that the genomes of isolates segregate into five distinct phylogenetic clades, where the genomes

of PAO1, PA14, PA7, and PA-W1 are representative examples of clades 1, 2, 3, and 5,

respectively [43-45]. Isolates belonging to phylogenetic clades 3-5 represent less than 1% of the

sequenced genomes of *P. aeruginosa* and are genetically distinct from laboratory strains PAO1

and PA14, with some researchers advocating for these isolates to be considered a separate

species [46]. Despite compelling evidence of the existence of clade 4, it has not yet been

independently confirmed [43].

To determine if the genome of SH3A belonged to clade 3 or 5, the presence or absence of

the differentiating genes was evaluated between the genomes of PAO1 (clade 1), PA14 (clade 2),

PA7 (clade 3), PA-W1 (clade 5) and SH3A (Table 1). The genomes of clades 1, 2, 3, and 5 can

be distinguished from each other by the presence or absence of a subset of genes, including *exoS,*

exoY, phzH, genes for the type III secretion system (T3SS), *rhlC, exlA, exlB, catA, oprA,* and

fosA [44, 47]. Unlike clade 1 and 2 genomes, clade 3 and 5 genomes do not contain genes for

exoS, *exoY, phzH, rhlC,* and the T3SS, but have genes for *exlA, exlB* and *oprA* [43, 45].

Evaluation of the presence of these genes revealed that the SH3A genome is a member of clade 3

or clade 5 of the *P. aeruginosa* phylogenetic tree.

Clade 3 and 5 genomes can be differentiated from each other by the presence of *catA* in

clade 3 genomes but absent from clade 5 genomes and *fosA* absent in clade 3 genomes, but

present in clade 5 genomes. Notably, the deletion of *rhlC* from the clade 3 and 5 genomes are

thought to have occurred through different evolutionary events [44]. In clade 3 genomes, the loss

of *rhlC* is the result of a five gene deletion event, including *fosA, rhlC, PA1131, PA1132,* and

PA1133. In clade 5 genomes, the loss of *rhlC* is thought to result from a smaller deletion event,

leaving *fosA*, *PA1132,* and *PA1133* intact. This analysis revealed that SH3A has the genes *fosA,*

PA1132, and *PA1133* intact; meaning it does not produce di-RLs because the SH3A genome

belongs to clade 5 of the *P. aeruginosa* phylogenetic tree.

Like the genomes of PA7 and PA-W1, *rhlC* and *phzH* are absent from the genome of

SH3A. RhlC is required for di-RL production and PhzH is required to produce the PHZ PCN

[42, 48]. Similar to *rhlC*, *phzH* is encoded in the *P. aeruginosa* genome in a location distinct

from the core phenazine biosynthetic pathways [48]. As the isolates representing clades 3 and 5

are poorly represented in publicly available genomic databases, screening the secondary

metabolome of libraries of *P. aeruginosa* isolates for loss of di-RL and PCN production despite

production of the mono-RLs and the other PHZs could be used to prioritize strains that putatively

belong to the phylogenetic clades 3 and 5 for genome sequencing, enabling more thorough

phylogenetic comparison between isolates within the clade.

Clinical isolate SH1B genome has disrupted *rhlR*. Seventeen nodes in the classical molecular

network represented molecular ions that were detected from all cultures, except those of SH1B

(Figure 2). Three of these nodes clustered within the RL molecular family and were annotated as

the mono-RLs RC10C10, RC10C12:1, and RC10C12. Further evaluation of the metadata

information in category "Strain" of the molecular family revealed that no RLs were detected

from SH1B cultures. Although SH1B produced AQs and PCH, the PHZ PYO was not detected

from SH1B cultures. To verify this observation, the secondary metabolites 1-HP, PYO, PCA,

HHQ, HQNO, PQS, RC10C10, RRC10C10, and PCH were quantified from SH1B cultures and

compared to levels from PA14 (Figure 5A, Figure S7). Indeed, SH1B produced markedly

reduced levels of PHZs, RLs, and PQS compared to PA14, but continued to produce HHQ,

HQNO, and PCH. This pattern of secondary metabolite production was reminiscent of the results

from the secondary metabolite profiling of an *rhlR* deletion mutant compared to its PA14

parental strain [49, 50].

To confirm that the pattern of SH1B secondary metabolite production reflected the

pattern of the *rhlR* deletion mutant, the publicly available metabolomics dataset MSV000083500

was downloaded and processed. Dataset MSV000083500 consists of LC-MS/MS data that

captured the secondary metabolome of Δ*rhlR* and its parental strain PA14 cultured in LB in

biological triplicate [50]. Comparison of the secondary metabolite levels between Δ*rhlR* and

wild-type PA14 (WT) indicated that although Δ*rhlR* produced reduced quantities of RLs and

PHZs, it produced AQs and PCH at levels equivalent to or higher than WT (Figure 5B, Figure

S8). The similarity of the secondary metabolite profile of SH1B to Δ*rhlR* led to the hypothesis

that SH1B had disrupted *rhl* QS signaling.

To determine if the genome of *P. aeruginosa* isolate SH1B had a mutation in the *rhlR*

gene, the nucleotide sequence of the SH1B *rhlR* was compared to the sequences from the

genomes of the other strains in this study. This analysis revealed that the SH1B *rhlR* gene

sequence contained a one-base insertion frame-shift mutation (678insC), which disrupts the stop

codon and leads to improper termination of RhlR protein synthesis (Figure 5C, Figure S9). The

SH1B *rhlR* is predicted to produce a protein consisting of 308 amino acids, which is 67 amino

acids longer than the RhlR produced by most *P. aeruginosa* strains. Moreover, the sequence for

the SH1B *rhlR* stop codon is within the nucleotide sequence of *rhlI*, fully abrogating *rhl* QS.

To evaluate the frequency of this mutation among *P. aeruginosa* isolates, the nucleotide

and predicted amino acid sequences for SH1B *rhlR* were searched against the genome sequences

of *P. aeruginosa* isolates deposited into NCBI and Pseudomonas Genome Database [51, 52].

This analysis identified four other isolates with elongated *rhlR* gene sequences, including PA103

(isolated from sputum), BL22 (isolated from human eye), PABL048 (isolated from blood), and

PS1793 (isolated from sputum). The *rhlR* nucleotide sequences of SH1B, PA103, BL22,

PABL048, and PS1793 are 100% identical (Figure S10). This analysis indicated that the *rhlR*

frame-shift mutation identified in the SH1B genome is rare (<0.5%) in the sequenced genomes

of *P. aeruginosa*. Taken together, the inability of SH1B to produce RLs and PYO, but maintain

production of AQs and PCH is due to a loss of function mutation in the *rhl* QS signaling

pathway.

These results suggest that secondary metabolite profiling of *P. aeruginosa* isolates could

be used to screen isolate libraries for mutants with defective QS pathways. Mutations within the

QS signaling pathways of *P. aeruginosa* frequently occur, with mutations in *lasR* more common

than mutations in *rhlR* [49]. The *las* QS system controls a regulon of virulence-associated genes,

including the biosynthesis of all secondary metabolite molecular families [3]. Therefore, *P.*

aeruginosa isolates with true loss of *lasR* function would be expected to be unable to produce

any secondary metabolites. Despite the frequency of *lasR* loss of function mutations, some

isolates with these mutations are still able to produce QS-regulated virulence factors [53]. In

evolution experiments of laboratory strain *P. aeruginosa* PAO1, mutations within the gene of

virulence-associated transcriptional regulator MexT recovered RL and PYO biosynthesis in

isolates with a loss of function *lasR* mutation, providing an explanation for the origin of LasR-

independent *rhl* QS pathway activation [24]. As a result, *P. aeruginosa* isolates with predicted

lasR and/or *rhlR* loss of function mutations could be screened for the absence of the production

of specific secondary metabolite classes, enabling the separation of true loss of QS function

isolates from those that have escape mutations in *mexT* or other regulatory genes and provide

additional insight into the association of genotypes with virulence.

Conclusion

In this work, we used untargeted LC-MS/MS to profile the secondary metabolome of

seven *P. aeruginosa* strains, including five uncharacterized clinical isolates (nmFLRO1,

mFLRO1, SH1B, SH2D, and SH3A) from the sputum of people with CF and two laboratory

strains (PAO1 and PA14). By analyzing the data with CMN, we quantified the commonalities

and differences in secondary metabolite production between *P. aeruginosa* isolates and

laboratory strains. This analysis revealed that *P. aeruginosa* isolates and laboratory strains

produce a common secondary metabolome, but the ability to produce the different secondary

metabolite molecular families is dictated, in part, by the genome sequence of the strain under

study. We identified that some *P. aeruginosa* isolates, including mFLRO1, can produce a class

of acyl putrescines and posit the production of this molecular family is a mechanism to

deactivate putrescine degradation. Genomic sequencing of SH3A illustrated that its lack of di-RL

production was indicative of its genome belonging to clade 5 of the *P. aeruginosa* phylogenetic

tree. Using secondary metabolite profile similarity to Δ*rhlR*, we discovered that the genome of

SH1B has a loss of function mutation in RhlR that disrupts *rhl* QS signaling, resulting in loss of

RL and PYO biosynthesis. These results indicate that secondary metabolite profiling of *P.*

aeruginosa isolates can provide unique insight into their genomic variability. Considering that

this study profiled the secondary metabolome of five *P. aeruginosa* clinical isolates and captured

three rare genetic traits representing <1-5% of the population with publicly available genomes or

metabolomes, it raises the question of how truly infrequent these traits are in the population and

whether the isolates captured in the current databases accurately represent the genomic diversity

of *P. aeruginosa*. Future investigations into *P. aeruginosa* population diversity should integrate

secondary metabolite profiling to aid in the prioritization of rare genotypes for sequencing,

discern the effect of mutations on QS pathways, and be integrated with phenotypic screening to

identify biomarkers of virulence.

Materials and Methods

Strains. The *P. aeruginosa* strains used in this study are summarized in Table S1.

Culture of *P. aeruginosa* in SCFM2. Synthetic Cystic Fibrosis Medium 2 (SCFM2) was

prepared as previously described with the following alteration: commercial bovine submaxillary

mucin type I-S (BSM, Millipore Sigma) was dialyzed prior to addition to the medium [25].

Briefly, BSM was suspended in 1X 3-morpholinopropane-1-sulfonic acid (MOPS) buffer (pH

7.0), dialyzed against 1X MOPS using a 10 kD molecular weight cut-off cassette (Thermo Fisher

Scientific), and sterilized using a liquid autoclave cycle (15-minute sterilization time) prior to

addition to the medium. SCFM2 was stored in the dark at 4°C, checked for sterility prior to use,

and used within one month of preparation. *P. aeruginosa* was inoculated from streak plates into

5 mL LB broth and incubated overnight at 37°C, shaking at 220 RPM. 0.990 µL of SCFM2 were

inoculated with 10 µL of *P. aeruginosa* LB culture (OD600 of 0.05; ~1x10^6 CFU/mL) in a

polystyrene 48 well plate. The plate was covered with its lid and incubated statically, under

ambient oxygen conditions, at 37°C for 48 hrs.

Sample Processing. Gross phenotypes of SCFM2 cultures were photographed with a top-down

view of each well using a Stemi 508 stereo microscope with an Axiocam 105 color camera

(Zeiss). Samples were mechanically disrupted by pipetting. Disrupted samples were aliquoted for

growth measurements (CFU/mL), culture pH, and metabolomics analysis. All biological

replicates (n = 3) were serially diluted, spotted onto LB agar, incubated at 37°C overnight, and

counted to determine colony forming units by volume (CFU/mL).

Sample Preparation for Metabolomics Analysis. Each sample was chemically disrupted with

an equal volume of 1:1 solution of ethyl acetate (EtOAc, VWR HiPerSolv Chromanorm) and

methanol (MeOH, Fisher Scientific Optima LC/MS grade). The samples were dried and stored at

-20°C until use. After thawing, samples were resuspended in 100% MeOH, diluted 5-fold in

100% MeOH containing 1 µM glycocholic acid (Calbiochem, 100.1% pure), and centrifuged for

10 min at 4000 RPM (Thermo Sorvall ST 40R) to remove non-soluble particulates prior to

injection.

LC-MS/MS Data Acquisition. Mass spectrometry data acquisition was performed using a

Bruker Daltonics Maxis II HD qTOF mass spectrometer equipped with a standard electrospray

ionization (ESI) source as previously described [7]. The mass spectrometer was tuned by

infusion of Tuning Mix ESI-TOF (Agilent Technologies) at a 3 µL/min flow rate. For accurate

mass measurements, a wick saturated with Hexakis (1H,1H,2H-difluoroethoxy) phosphazene

ions (Apollo Scientific, *m/z* 622.1978) located within the source was used as a lock mass internal

calibrant. Samples were introduced by an Agilent 1290 UPLC using a 10 µL injection volume.

Extracts were separated using a Phenomenex Kinetex 2.6 µm C18 column (2.1 mm x 50 mm)

using a 9-minute, linear water-acetonitrile (ACN) gradient (from 98:2 to 2:98 water:ACN)

containing 0.1% formic acid at a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min. The mass spectrometer was operated

in data dependent positive ion mode, automatically switching between full scan MS and MS/MS

acquisitions. Full scan MS spectra (*m/z* 50 - 1500) were acquired in the TOF and the top five

most intense ions in a particular scan were fragmented via collision induced dissociation (CID)

using the stepping function in the collision cell. LC-MS/MS data for PA mix, a mixture of

available commercial standards of *P. aeruginosa* secondary metabolites, were acquired under

identical conditions. Bruker Daltonics CompassXport was used to apply lock mass calibration

and convert the LC-MS/MS data from .d format to .mzXML format.

Classical Molecular Networking (CMN). The Molecular Networking workflow (version

release 26) was applied to the .mzXML files using the GNPS analysis platform [28]. Briefly, the

data were filtered by removing all MS/MS fragment ions ± 17 Da of the precursor m/z. MS/MS

spectra were window filtered by choosing only the top 6 fragment ions in each ± 50 Da window

throughout the spectrum. The precursor ion mass tolerance was set to 0.05 Da and the MS/MS

fragment ion tolerance to 0.1 Da. Each node was set to consist of at least 5 matching spectra with

a minimum of 5 matched fragment ions between nodes to generate an edge. A network was then

created where edges between nodes were filtered to have a cosine score above 0.8. Further, edges

between two nodes were kept in the network only if each of the nodes appeared in each other's

respective top 10 most similar nodes. Finally, the maximum size of a molecular family was set to

80, and the lowest scoring edges were removed until each molecular family was below this

threshold. The spectra in the network were then searched against the GNPS spectral libraries.

Library spectra were filtered in the same manner as the input data. All matches kept between the

network spectra and library spectra were required to have a cosine score above 0.7 and at least 5

matched peaks.

UpSet Plot Generation. The network table generated via CMN was downloaded from

Cytoscape. A binary presence/absence table was created from the network table to determine

whether each node was detected in the cultures of each strain according to the GNPSGROUP

designations. The binary table was visualized in R using the UpSetR package [22, 23].

Secondary Metabolites Quantitation from CF Isolates. MZmine (version 2.53) was used to

perform feature finding on the .mzXML files [54]. The output files included a feature table

containing area under the curve (AUC) integration values for each feature (*m/z*-RT pair) and an

.mgf file containing MS/MS fragment ions for each feature. Features were normalized by row

sum and the mean aggregation was applied to peak abundances for each group. Features were

filtered for rhamnolipids, acyl putrescines, and *P. aeruginosa* secondary metabolites using exact

mass and retention time.

Secondary metabolite analysis of PA14 and Δ*rhlR*. The publicly available *P. aeruginosa*

secondary metabolite profiling dataset MSV000083500 was downloaded from MassIVE [50,

55]. MZmine (version 2.53) was used to perform feature finding on the .mzML files [54]. The

output files included a feature table containing area under the curve (AUC) integration values for

each feature (*m/z*-RT pair) and an .mgf file containing MS/MS fragment ions for each feature.

Features were filtered for known *P. aeruginosa* metabolites.

Metabolite Annotation. The classical molecular network

(https://gnps.ucsd.edu/ProteoSAFe/status.jsp?task=de0b3f2b01174831b5a2be8546812ca1) was

visualized using Cytoscape (version 3.7.1) [56]. Extracted ion chromatograms of m/z values of

interest were visually inspected using the GNPS Dashboard (https://dashboard.gnps2.org/) and

MS/MS spectra were visualized using the Metabolomics Spectrum Resolver

(https://metabolomics-usi.gnps2.org/) [31, 57]. All annotated nodes corresponding to *P.*

aeruginosa specialized metabolites identified from CMN are listed in Table S2. Annotations of

metabolites corresponding to commercial standards (level 1 annotation) were confirmed by

comparing the experimental data (exact mass, MS/MS, and retention time) with data acquired for

the compound in PA mix using Bruker Daltonics DataAnalysis v4.1 (Build 362.7) [58]. Putative

annotation of metabolites of interest corresponding to matches to the GNPS libraries (level 2

annotation) were validated by comparing the experimental data (exact mass, MS/MS) to reported

data and putative structures, respectively [28, 58-60].

MassQL Query of Public Metabolomics Datasets for Acyl Putrescines. Two published,

publicly available *P. aeruginosa* secondary metabolite profiling datasets, MSV000086107 and

MSV000089869, were downloaded from MassIVE to a GNPS workspace [9, 13, 28, 55]. These

datasets, along with our own dataset as a positive control, were queried using MassQL v31.4

with the query:

QUERY scaninfo(MS2DATA) WHERE MS2PROD=72.0802:TOLERANCEMZ=0.005 AND

MS2NL=17.0264:TOLERANCEMZ=0.005 [31]. The results of the MassQL (v31.4) query

(https://gnps.ucsd.edu/ProteoSAFe/status.jsp?task=23c630b0fc484582a5e0187c6ce5ef99) were

subsequently networked using the Classical Molecular Networking workflow (v30) within GNPS

(https://gnps.ucsd.edu/ProteoSAFe/status.jsp?task=f4284d9fa3f14ef6bceb6cbad0580033). The

results were filtered using library matches to synthetic acyl putrescine standards in the GNPS

libraries and precursor m/z values of the manually annotated acyl putrescines. To identify which

isolates produced acyl putrescines, the chromatographic peak for each of the identified

putrescines was identified in individual files using GNPS Dashboard and the putative annotations

were verified by manual inspection of the associated MS/MS spectra [31, 57]. Peak areas of the

acyl putrescines were quantified across each dataset using the built-in quantitation algorithm of

GNPS Dashboard with the parameters of exact mass of the eight acyl putrescine with a 0.05 Da

window and a retention time window of 30 seconds spanning peak maxima. The quantified

values were visualized as bubble plots using R.

PCR of *16S rRNA* and *rhlC* Genes. Genomic DNA was extracted from *P. aeruginosa* strains

using the QIAamp DNA Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturers' instructions. PCR-based

detection of the *16S rRNA* (positive control) and *rhlC* genes was completed using the Phusion

High-Fidelity PCR kit (ThermoFisher) following the manufacturer's instructions with published

primer sequences [42, 61]. Gel electrophoresis was performed on all samples using a 1.0%

agarose gel in 1x TAE buffer and visualized using SYBR Safe DNA Gel Stain (ThermoFisher).

Genome Sequencing. *P. aeruginosa* CF isolates were inoculated from streak plates into 5 mL

LB broth and incubated overnight at 37°C, shaking at 220 RPM. Genomic DNA was extracted

using the QIAamp DNA Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturers' instructions and

concentration and quality were confirmed by NanoDrop spectroscopy. Genomic sequencing

using short-read Illumina and long-read Oxford Nanopore technologies (ONT), de novo

assembly, and annotation was performed by SeqCenter (Pittsburgh, PA). Briefly, Porechop

(v0.2.4) was used to trim residual adapter sequence from the ONT reads using default parameters

that may have been missed during base calling and demultiplexing [62]. De novo genome

assemblies were generated from the ONT read data with Flye (v2.9.2) under the nano-hq (ONT

high-quality reads) model (--asm-coverage 50 --genome-size 6000000) [63]. Additional Flye

options initiate the assembly by first using reads longer than an estimated N50 based on a

genome size of 6 Mbp. Subsequent polishing used the Illumina read data with Pilon (v1.24)

under default parameters [64]. To reduce erroneous assembly artifacts caused by low quality

nanopore reads, long read contigs with an average short read coverage of 15x or less were

removed from the assembly. Assembled contigs were evaluated for circularization via Circulator

(v1.5.5) using the ONT long reads [65]. Assembly annotation was then performed with Bakta

(v1.8.1) using the Bakta v5 database [66]. Assembly statistics were recorded with QUAST

(v5.2.0) [67].

Genomic Comparisons. Assembled and annotated genomes of the CF isolates included in this

study were visualized in Geneious v2023.2.1 [68]. To determine if the genome of SH3A

belonged to clade 3 or 5 of the *P. aeruginosa* phylogenetic tree, genomes of PAO1, PA14, PA7,

and PAO1 were downloaded from NCBI and used as reference genomes for clades 1, 2, 3, and 5,

respectively [51]. Full genomic alignments were conducted using the Mauve plug-in with default

parameters [69]. Annotations of aligned genomes were searched for *exoS*, *exo*Y, *phzH*, *rhlC*,

exlA, exlB, oprA, catA, fosA, PA1131, PA1132, and PA1133 and the gene cluster for the type 3

secretion system (T3SS). To determine if *rhlR* of SH1B contained a mutation that would disrupt

rhl QS signaling, the nucleotide and predicted protein sequences were extracted from the

genomes of PAO1, PA14, nmFLRO1, mFLRO1, SH1B, SH2D, and SH3A and aligned using

Clustal Omega v1.2.2 with default parameters [70]. The nucleotide and predicted protein

sequences of SH1B *rhlR* were subsequently used for a Blast search in NCBI and the

Pseudomonas Genome Database to identify other isolates with the same mutation [51, 52]. The

nucleotide sequences of *rhlR* from isolates BL22, PA103, PABL048, and PS1793 were

downloaded. The nucleotide and predicted protein sequences of *rhlR* from these four isolates

were aligned to *rhlR* from SH1B and PAO1 using Clustal Omega v1.2.2 with default parameters

[70].

Statistical Analysis. Statistical comparison of metabolite abundance was conducted in GraphPad

Prism (version 9.3.1). Unpaired two-tailed T-tests of differential secondary metabolite

abundance between PA14 and SH1B and PA14 and Δ*rhlR* are summarized in the supplemental

figure legends. For all analyses, P values of <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Data Availability. Mass spectrometry data files are available via MassIVE as MSV000087157.

Genome sequences for nmFLRO1, mFLRO1, SH1B, SH2D, and SH3A are available in NCBI

under BioProject XXXXXX (in process).

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Figure 1. Growth of seven *P. aeruginosa* strains in SCFM2. (A) Representative phenotypes of strains grown statically in 1 mL of SCFM2 ($n = 3$) in a 48-well plate for 48 hr at 37 °C. Photographs of replicate growth wells are in Fig. S1 in the supplemental material. (B) Quantified growth of each strain as CFU/mL. (C) pH after mechanical disruption of cultures.

Figure 2. Molecular ions detected from the cultures of seven *P. aeruginosa* strains. (A)

Classical molecular network of seven *P. aeruginosa* strains cultured in SCFM2. Nodes represent

molecular ions (precursor mass and MS/MS spectra). The node shape represents whether the

molecular ion was detected from cultures of laboratory strains (down arrow), clinical isolates

(triangle), or both (circle). The node color indicates whether the molecular ion was detected in

cultures from all strains (dark gray), individual strains (various colors), or combinations of

strains (light gray). The widths of the lines connecting nodes (edges) represent the similarity of

the MS/MS fragmentation of the connected nodes. Black node outlines indicate a spectral match

between the data and MS/MS spectra within the GNPS spectral libraries. Nodes corresponding to

the five molecular families discussed in the main text are highlighted by ovals. (B) UpSet plot

quantifying the number of molecular ions detected from cultures of laboratory strains (PAO1 and

PA14) compared to clinical isolates (nmFLRO1, mFLRO1, SH1B, SH2D, and SH3A). (B)

UpSet plot quantifying the number of molecular ions detected from different combinations of

cultures.

Figure 3. Acyl putrescine levels produced by *P. aeruginosa* isolates. (A) Acyl putrescine molecular family labeled with acyl chain length, unsaturation, and mass to charge ratio. Nodes represent molecular ions (precursor mass and MS/MS spectra). The node shape represents whether the molecular ion was detected from cultures of clinical isolates (triangle) or both laboratory strains and clinical isolates (circle). The node color indicates whether the molecular ion was detected in cultures from mFLRO1 (green) or combinations of strains (light gray). The widths of the lines connecting nodes (edges) represent the similarity of the MS/MS fragmentation of the connected nodes. Black node outlines indicate a spectral match between the

data and MS/MS spectra within the GNPS spectral libraries. (B) Bubble plot representing the

average quantitation (peak area) across biological replicates ($n = 3$) from each *P. aeruginosa*

strain for the eight acyl putrescines above the limit of quantitation. Corresponding box plots for

each metabolite are in Figure S3. (C) Bubble plot representing the quantitation (peak area) of

nine acyl putrescines from Dataset 1 (MSV000086107): publicly available LC-MS/MS data

capturing the secondary metabolome of eight *P. aeruginosa* strains isolated from CF sputum

cultured in LB under standard laboratory conditions ($n = 1$ biological replicate). (D) Bubble plot

representing the quantitation (peak area) of nine acyl putrescines from eight *P. aeruginosa*

strains from Dataset 2 (MSV000089869): publicly available LC-MS/MS data capturing the

secondary metabolome of 35 *P. aeruginosa* isolates selected from the Helmholtz Centre for

Infection Research biobank which were isolated from various sites of infection and cultured in

LB under standard laboratory conditions ($n = 1$ biological replicate). Acyl putrescine levels from

all 35 isolates are displayed in Figure S4.

Figure 4. Rhamnolipid production by _P. aeruginosa_ strains. (A) Rhamnolipid molecular

family labeled with one or two rhamnose units (R or RR, respectively), acyl chain length,

unsaturation, and mass to charge ratio. Nodes represent molecular ions (precursor mass and

MS/MS spectra). The node shape represents whether the molecular ion was detected from

cultures of clinical isolates (triangle) or both laboratory strains and clinical isolates (circle). The

node color indicates whether the molecular ion was detected uniquely in cultures from SH3A

(pink) or mFLRO1 (green), or combinations of strains (gray). The widths of the lines connecting

nodes (edges) represent the similarity of the MS/MS fragmentation of the connected nodes.

Black node outlines indicate a spectral match between the data and MS/MS spectra within the

GNPS spectral libraries. (B) Bubble plot representing the average quantitation (peak area) of

biological replicates ($n = 3$) from each *P. aeruginosa* strain for the nine rhamnolipids above the

limit of quantitation. Corresponding box plots for each metabolite are in Figure S6. (C)

Biosynthetic pathway of mono-RLs and di-RLs from precursors. (D) PCR analysis for the

presence of *rhlC* in the genomes of the seven *P. aeruginosa* strains.

Table 1. Genes distinguishing SH3A as a Clade 5 isolate

	PAO1 Clade 1	PA14 Clade 2	PA7 Clade 3	PA-W1 Clade 5	SH3A
exoS	+	-	-	-	-
exoY	+	+	-	-	-
phzH	+	+	-	-	-
T3SS	+	+	-	-	-
rhlC	+	+	-	-	-
exlAB	-	-	+	+	+
oprA	-	-	+	+	+
catA	-	-	+	-	-
fosA	+	+	-	+	+
PA1132	+	+	-	+	+
PA1133	+	+	-	+	+

Figure 5. SH1B has disrupted *rhl* QS. (A) Ratio of secondary metabolite levels produced by

SH1B compared to PA14 in SCFM2. Corresponding box plots for each metabolite are in Figure

S7. (B) Ratio of secondary metabolite levels produced by Δ*rhlR* compared to the PA14 parental

strain in LB (MSV000083500). 1-HP and PQS were below the limit of detection and/or

quantitation. Corresponding box plots for each metabolite are in Figure S8. (C) The *rhlR* gene of

SH1B is predicted to produce an elongated RhlR protein compared to PAO1, PA14, nmFLRO1,

mFLRO1, SH2D, and SH3A due to a single nucleotide insertion, which leads to a one-base

frame shift and improper termination of translation. Corresponding gene sequence alignment is

in Figure S9.