Dual-BONCAT Reveals Distinct Subpopulations of Anabolically Active Cells

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Running Head: Dual-BONCAT

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Abstract

Bio-Orthogonal Non-Canonical Amino Acid Tagging (BONCAT) has emerged as a

prominent molecular technique that enables microbial ecologists to visualize and identify

metabolically active cells in cultures and complex microbial communities. To date, researchers

have used just one non-canonical amino acid (ncAA) in a given experiment; here, we validate a

novel approach using two different ncAAs in a single experiment. This advancement facilitates

the detection of differentially active subpopulations within the same experimental context,

thereby reducing the uncertainty and variability associated with parallel treatments, and

providing precise spatial information about organisms that are active under distinct conditions or

at different times. We show that both ncAAs can be taken up by *E. coli* cultures and by

constituents of the Little Sippewissett Salt Marsh microbiome, resulting in fluorescence signals

that are significantly higher than background and ncAA-free control experiments, as well as

differential labeling patterns reflective of distinct subpopulations. As a proof of concept, we

implemented this "dual-BONCAT" approach in salt marsh sediments, adding one ncAA during

daytime hours and the other at night. Subpopulations of cells that were anabolically active during

the day and/or night were distinguishable by both fluorescence microscopy, and by fluorescence-

activated cell sorting. Subsequent high-throughput 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing of

active subpopulations revealed that *Methylobacterium*, potentially feeding on plant exudate

carbon, was preferentially active during the day, while sulfur-cycling taxa dominated the night-

active population. Dual-BONCAT offers an important advancement in multiplexing substrate-

analog probing techniques, providing a more realistic understanding of metabolic activity under

distinct environmental conditions.

Importance

Microbial communities are complex and dynamic, with different groups of microbes

active under distinct conditions. Bio-Orthogonal Non-Canonical Amino Acid Tagging

(BONCAT) uses synthetic amino acids to tag newly made proteins, allowing researchers to see

and identify the active subset of a community. While BONCAT studies to date have used a

single synthetic amino acid to evaluate cell activity in a single experimental context, here we

introduce a new approach, "dual-BONCAT," using two synthetic amino acids to track

differential responses to changing conditions. After validating the approach with *E. coli*, we

deployed it in a salt marsh sediment community, finding that organisms potentially feeding on

plant root sugars were more active during the day, and microbes likely metabolizing sulfur were

more active at night. We believe dual-BONCAT will prove useful in many studies, as it

illuminates microbial community responses to changing conditions, which has important

implications for ecosystem dynamics.

Introduction

Understanding the metabolic activity of microbes in both controlled cultures and

environmental communities is a major goal for microbiologists. Substrate analog probing

techniques, which use analog molecular constituents to track assimilatory processes (1–3), have

been adapted for use in environmental communities (4, 5). One such approach is Bio-Orthogonal

Non-Canoncial Amino Acid Tagging (BONCAT), which relies on the cellular uptake of the non-

canonical amino acids (ncAAs) *L*- azidohomoalanine (AHA) and *L*-homopropargylglycine

(HPG), which can be incorporated into newly synthesized proteins in place of *L*-methionine

without substantially affecting cell function (5, 6). AHA and HPG possess chemically modifiable

azide and alkyne groups, respectively, to which fluorescently tagged molecules can be bound

through "click chemistry" reactions (7, 8). Recent validation of β-ethynylserine as a threonine

analog amenable to click reactions in a range of organisms offers a third ncAA for studies of

anabolic activity (9).

BONCAT is therefore able to distinguish anabolically active (or more precisely, protein-

synthesizing) cells from dormant cells. Downstream analysis through microscopy or sequencing

(often following Fluorescence *In Situ* Hybridization, FISH, or isolation via Fluorescence-

Activated Cell Sorting, FACS), enables an array of ecophysiological interpretations. For

instance, BONCAT has been used to show carbon use preferences of distinct taxa in hot springs

(10) and salt marsh sediment (11), active microbes in the soil microbiome (12) and biocrusts

(13), and symbiotic relationships between anaerobic methane-oxidizing archaea (ANME) and

sulfate-reducing bacteria in the deep sea (5).

Despite the substantial advances made possible by BONCAT in the study of cultured

organisms and environmental microbial communities, all known applications of BONCAT to

date have used only one ncAA in a given experiment. While this technique has allowed

researchers to access the anabolically active subpopulation of a microbial community in a given

experimental context, it is not capable of identifying activity patterns among a single population

under different or changing conditions. Here, we present a novel approach making use of two

ncAAs - AHA and HPG - in a single experiment, a technique we refer to as "dual-BONCAT".

This method offers additional versatility for more complex and environmentally representative

experimental designs: by selectively labeling two distinct protein subsets, dual-BONCAT

provides multiplexing capabilities that enable the labeling and analysis of two protein

populations within the same cell or sample. Critically, such experiments would not require

parallel incubations that may be subject to small but significant differences in community

composition and physicochemical parameters, or may be unobtainable with *in situ* or sample-

limited studies. With dual-BONCAT, critical spatial relationships that may dictate differential

activity under distinct conditions can be retained and explored. In this study, we first validate the

dual-BONCAT approach with *E. coli* cell cultures and an environmental microbial community,

and then present a proof-of-concept study differentiating salt marsh sediment communities that

are active during the day or night.

Results & Discussion

<u>Reagent & Sample Selection</u>

For our two ncAA-dye combinations, we selected the AHA-DBCO dye strain-promoted

click reaction and the HPG-Azide dye Cu(I)-catalyzed cycloaddition reaction. These selections

minimized the potential for false positive signal that could result from using the HPG-Azide dye

and AHA-Alkyne dye pairings: the Cu-catalyzed "click" reaction links azide and alkyne groups,

meaning unbound azide and alkyne dyes could react with each other and may be more difficult to

wash away. The DBCO dye molecule does not contain a reactive alkyne group and would thus

not be susceptible to such dye-dye cross-reactions. (The potential for false negative signal is

considered below.)

We performed our optimization and experimental procedures on cell cultures

(*Escherichia coli*) as well as an environmental system hosting a complex microbial community

(surface sediment from the Little Sippewissett Salt Marsh on Cape Cod, MA). In this way, we

show the efficacy of the dual-BONCAT technique in a well-constrained pure culture context,

while also demonstrating the relevance of the technique (as well as the associated challenges)

when used with environmental microbiomes.

<u>Dual-BONCAT Validation with *E. coli* Cultures</u>

To evaluate the effectiveness of various ncAA and dye concentrations for subsequent use

in dual-BONCAT experiments, we first conducted a range of mono-BONCAT tests using a

single ncAA-dye pairing. Based on previously published research in both cultures and

environmental systems (5, 14, 15), we tested a range of ncAA (0-50 µM HPG; 0-500 µM AHA)

and dye (0.1-100 µM for both Azide-Cy3 and DBCO-Cy5) concentrations. In *E. coli* cultures,

we found that the fluorescence signals from ncAA concentrations ≥5 µM and dye concentrations

≥1 µM were distinguishable from both ncAA-free and cross-reaction (i.e., AHA-Azide-Cy3 and

HPG-DBCO-Cy5) control conditions under our chosen microscope settings (Figs. S1-S3). ncAA

concentrations of at least 5 µM and dye concentrations of 25 or 100 µM produced particularly

strong signals with median fluorescence intensities 12-64 times greater than the corresponding

ncAA-free controls (Fig. S3).

To validate the dual-BONCAT approach, we conducted a series of experiments with *E.*

coli cultures using 5 µM HPG, 5 µM AHA, 25 µM Azide-Cy3, and 25 µM DBCO-Cy5, based on

our mono-BONCAT results. (Some conditions of higher ncAA and dye concentrations produced

marginally higher fluorescence signals, but we prioritized the lower concentrations to minimize

costs and avoid potential toxic effects of higher ncAA concentrations (16, 17).) 100 µL of

stationary phase culture was added to 9.9 mL of sterile M9 medium; the first ncAA (ncAA#1)

was added at inoculation (0h) and the second (ncAA#2), when relevant, was added after 8h of

growth at 37 °C. Cultures were fixed after 24h of incubation. We tested several different

experimental configurations to determine whether the fluorescence signals from the two different

ncAAs were equivalent, and whether the order of ncAA addition and/or the order of post-fixation

dye reactions affected the fluorescence intensities.

Overall, fluorescence signal from both ncAAs was clearly distinguishable from

background and non-specific binding effects regardless of the timing and order of ncAA addition

and the order of the dye reactions (Figs. S4-S5, 1). However, we broadly observed higher

fluorescence when the HPG-Azide-Cy3 reaction was performed first, as the median Cy3

fluorescence was 32% brighter ($p < 0.001$) and the median Cy5 fluorescence was 151% brighter

($p < 0.001$) relative to when the AHA-DBCO-Cy5 was performed first (Fig. 1). This trend

included higher intensities associated with non-specific binding effects (e.g., cases where the

corresponding ncAA was absent, as in ncAA-free and mono-BONCAT cross-reaction controls),

but the overall ability to distinguish true positives from false positives was largely unaffected by

the order of the dye reactions: false positives could only explain 1.6% of the true positive (e.g.

mono-labelled) data, at most, regardless of dye order. Initially, we had hypothesized that false

negatives could result from performing the HPG-Azide reaction first, as the alkyne-azide click

reaction could in theory link AHA azide groups with HPG alkyne groups, thereby blocking dye

molecules from binding to their corresponding ncAAs and diminishing overall signals. The fact

that we did not observe a decrease in fluorescent signal when the HPG-Azide-Cy3 reaction was

done first suggests that the AHA-HPG reaction is not favorable - perhaps due to steric hindrance

associated with peptide chains - and is not a substantial concern when using the dual-BONCAT

approach. Therefore, we recommend performing the HPG-Azide reaction first, and report the

results with this dye order unless otherwise specified. Compared with the corresponding mono-

BONCAT (mono-stained) controls, the median fluorescence signal of HPG-labeled cells

increased (45% increase, $p < 0.001$) when both dye reactions were performed. In contrast, the

AHA-associated signal decreased by 48% ($p < 0.001$).

In comparing the order of the ncAA addition, Cy3 fluorescence was 13% dimmer ($p <$

0.001) but the Cy5 fluorescence was 47% brighter ($p < 0.001$) when HPG was added first

relative to when AHA was added first (when the HPG-Azide-Cy3 dye reaction was done first).

This trend was repeated when the dye order was switched. This observation that a given ncAA

generates brighter signal when added second rather than first is intriguing, and may be due to

protein turnover dynamics whereby proteins synthesized earlier break down over time.

Compared to the mono-BONCAT (dual-stained) controls, the median fluorescence signal of Cy3

and Cy5 decreased by 36% ($p < 0.001$) and 21% ($p < 0.001$), respectively, when both ncAA were

added simultaneously.

The median HPG-Azide-Cy3 signal in the mono-labeled, dual-dyed experiment was

significantly brighter (by 222%, $p < 0.001$) than the AHA-DBCO-Cy5 (mono-labeled, dual-

dyed) signal. This relationship was also observed when both ncAAs were added at different

times: HPG-Azide-Cy3 signal was 210% ($p < 0.001$) brighter when the Azide-Cy3 dye reaction

was performed first, and 462% ($p < 0.001$) brighter when it was performed second (when both

orders of ncAA addition were taken into account, in both cases) (Fig. 1). Since fluorescence

intensity profiles of mono-BONCAT experiments were broadly similar between HPG and AHA

(Fig. S3), these findings suggest that the dynamics change when both ncAAs are present: in such

cases, HPG may be more effective than AHA at integrating into newly synthesized proteins,

and/or the HPG-Azide click reaction may be favored over the AHA-DBCO reaction.

To determine if dual-BONCAT is capable of distinguishing distinct populations that were

anabolically active at different stages of an incubation, we looked at "differential labeling"

patterns, where some cells were only labeled with Azide-Cy3, some were only labeled with

DBCO-Cy5, and some were labeled with both dyes. Because the intensity of BONCAT labelling

cannot always be taken as a quantitative indication of anabolic activity (due to, among other

factors, distinct proteome compositions, varying rates of ncAA:Met substitutions, and variability

in the rate of dye entry into the cell across different species (17–19)), we maintained a binary,

"labeled" or "not labeled" approach to interrogate differential labeling. Threshold fluorescence

intensity values were set by the maximum intensity, in either channel, of the condition in which

no ncAAs were added but dye reactions were performed. Cells whose mean intensity exceeded

these values in a given fluorescence channel were considered "labeled" with the corresponding

ncAA.

We first considered the condition in which both ncAAs were present at the same

concentration and for the same duration, reasoning that, in this case, no differential labeling

should occur. Indeed, all analyzed cells were dual-labled (Fig. S6, S7). Next, we investigated

differential labeling patterns among *E. coli* cells when the ncAAs were added at different times.

Single cell-level observations showed clear visual evidence of differential labeling: some cells

were exclusively labeled with Azide-Cy3, some were exclusively labeled with DBCO-Cy5, and

some were labeled with both fluorescent molecules (Fig. 2). Some cells were labeled with neither

dye, suggesting they were anabolically inactive during the 24-hour culturing experiment,

potentially representing quiescent or dead biomass carried over from the inoculum. Using the

threshold-based assessment of labeling, we confirmed that differentially labeled subpopulations

were present (Fig. S7). These observations confirm the ability of dual-BONCAT to detect

distinct subpopulations that are anabolically active during different phases of an experiment. The

fact that the majority of cells in these 24-hour experiments were dual-labeled even when the

second ncAA was added eight hours after the first is not surprising given the dynamics of

exponential growth in pure culture. Different timelines of adding the ncAAs and terminating the

experiment could likely be calibrated to attain a larger proportion of differentially labeled cells.

Dual-BONCAT in an Environmental Microbial Community

Dual-BONCAT was next deployed with an environmental microbial community, using

surface sediment from Little Sippwissett Salt Marsh, which contains a dense and taxonomically

and metabolically diverse microbiome (11, 20–23). Our aim was to observe and ultimately

characterize the subpopulations of cells that were 1) anabolically active during the 12-hour sunlit

day, 2) anabolically active during the 12-hour dark night, 3) anabolically active during both the

day and night periods, and 4) not active during the 24-hour experiment. Sediment was recovered

from the marsh, returned to the lab, and distributed to mesocosm incubations within several

hours. In all experimental conditions, one ncAA was added at dawn (ncAA#1) and the

incubation was placed in sunlit conditions; 12 hours later, the incubation was moved to a dark

incubator and the second ncAA (ncAA#2) was added. The temperature was maintained at

approximately 25 ℃ throughout.

Three ncAA concentration profiles were tested: 5 µM HPG & 5 µM AHA & (referred to

as 5/5 below); 50 µM HPG & 50 µM AHA (50/50); and 50 µM HPG & 500 µM AHA (50/500).

These conditions expand beyond the ncAA concentrations optimized for *E. coli* (5 µM for each

ncAA) in order to match HPG concentrations previously optimized for LSSM sediment (11, 22),

and to account for the fact that AHA is sensitive to reduction under alkaline sulfidic conditions

such as those in Little Sippewissett salt marsh sediments (14), meaning that its "felt"

concentration was likely lower than what was added. All dye concentrations were maintained at

25 µM based on the *E. coli* optimization experiments described above.

While fluorescence signal derived from HPG incorporation was substantially brighter

than that from AHA incorporation across all conditions when their concentrations were equal,

both ncAAs were statistically distinguishable from background and non-specific binding effects

under elevated ncAA conditions (e.g., the 50/50 and 50/500 experiments; Figs. 3; S8-S9). (The

p-values were < 0.001 for all ncAA combinations except for the Cy5 signal when both ncAAs

were added at the start of the 50/50 experiment, $p = 0.052$, though cells brighter than the non-

specific binding signal were detected.) The 5/5 condition resulted in fluorescence signals that

were largely indistinguishable from background and non-specific binding signals (Fig. S10).

Prior to click-chemistry reactions, cells from the LSSM sediment incubations were extracted to

separate them from the mineral matrix. Compared with *E. coli* culture experiments run under

analogous ncAA concentrations, median fluorescence intensity of *E. coli* cells subjected to the

cell extraction process decreased by 18% ($p < 0.001$) and 54% ($p < 0.001$) for Cy3 and Cy5,

respectively, indicating that the extraction approach itself compromised signal intensity (but not

detectability compared with control treatments). Under the 50/50 condition, the median

fluorescence signal of labeled sediment cells decreased by 47% ($p < 0.001$) for Cy3 and 54% (p

< 0.001) for Cy5 when both ncAAs were added simultaneously, compared with their mono-

BONCAT (dual-stained) controls (Fig. 3A). In contrast, Cy3 increased by 27% (not statistically

significant, $p = 0.34$) and Cy5 increased by 106% ($p < 0.001$) in the 50/500 experiment (Fig.

3B).

In comparing the order of ncAA addition for the 50/50 experiment, Cy3 fluorescence was

248% brighter ($p < 0.001$) but the Cy5 fluorescence was 28% dimmer ($p < 0.05$) when HPG was

added first relative to when AHA was added first (and HPG-Azide-Cy3 dye reaction was

performed first in both cases). This trend was repeated when the dye order was switched, and, in

contrast to the *E. coli* experiments, indicates that a given ncAA generates brighter signal when

added first, potentially due to slower protein turnover or degradation in the environmental

community compared with a pure culture.

In all four dual-BONCAT permutations (testing the order of ncAA additions and dye

reactions) with the 50/50 experiment, the HPG-Azide-Cy3 signal was generally brighter than the

AHA-DBCO-Cy5 signal. This was also observed when both ncAAs were added: HPG-Azide-

Cy3 signal was 432% ($p < 0.001$) brighter when the Azide-Cy3 dye reaction was performed first,

and 166% ($p < 0.001$) brighter when it was performed second. These patterns are broadly

improved (i.e., the AHA-DBCO-Cy5 signal is generally brighter) under the 50/500 condition,

indicating that relative concentrations of the ncAAs, even under sulfidic conditions, can be used

to "tune" detectability and relative signal intensities.

Experiments in which AHA was added first (at sunrise) and HPG was added second (at

night) resulted in a greater overall separation of fluorescent signal compared with control

conditions, offering the best opportunity to detect cells growing at different times.

We next considered differential labeling patterns at the single-cell level. When both

ncAAs were added at the start of the experiment, nearly all cells were dual-labeled (Fig. S11).

When one ncAA was added at sunrise and the other at sunset, we observed distinct

subpopulations of cells exhibiting only HPG-Azide-Cy3, only AHA-DBCO-Cy5, both dyes, and

neither dye (Fig. 4).

Interpretation of Dual-BONCAT Subpopulations

Interpreting the physiological / ecological meaning of the three differentially labeled cell

populations is not entirely unambiguous. Dual-BONCAT experiments can be generalized as

follows: one ncAA (ncAA#1) is added at an initial time point (T_1), a second ncAA (ncAA#2) is

added at a subsequent time point (T_2), and the experiment is ended (i.e., all metabolic activity is

ceased) at a later, final time point (T_F); see Fig. S12. The three differentially BONCAT-labeled

populations can be identified as the cells exhibiting fluorescence associated with only the first

ncAA (ncAA#1), both ncAAs (ncAA#1&2), and only the second ncAA (ncAA#2). We propose

the following interpretations of these three populations:

-    The ncAA#1 population is only active between T_1 and T_2.

-    The ncAA#1&2 population includes cells that either are active from both T_1 to T_2 *and* T_2

to T_F, or are active between T_2 and T_F. Because ncAA#1 could be present throughout the

experiment, it could still be used by organisms exclusively active after T_2. Such dual-

labeled cells may exhibit a particularly high affinity for ncAA#1.

-    The ncAA#2 population is only active between T_2 and T_F. We suggest that the lack of

ncAA#1 incorporation in this population could be due to the relative ncAA

concentrations during the second phase of the experiment, after the ncAA#1 pool has

been depleted. If these cells were anabolically active when only ncAA#1 was present, it

would have been incorporated.

These interpretations are predicated on previous observations that all taxa queried to date are

capable of using each of the two ncAAs at roughly equivalent incorporation frequencies ((17)

and references therein). If these frequencies differ between the two ncAAs, further calibration of

concentrations would be needed to attain similar fluorescence signals. (For reference, HPG and

AHA replace an estimated 1 out of every 500 and 390 methionine residues in newly synthesized

proteins, respectively (24), while the newly reported THRONCAT approach has a substitution

efficiency of 1:40 (9).)

<u>Dual-BONCAT-FACS Reveals Day- and Night-Active Taxa in Salt Marsh Sediment</u>

To demonstrate the utility of the Dual-BONCAT technique for studying the dynamics of

environmental microbial communities, we sought to identify which microbes in salt marsh

sediment were active (synthesizing proteins) during sunlit daytime hours and which were active

during nighttime darkness. Critically, this approach did not require separate incubations, which

obviates concerns about distinct microbial communities or physicochemical conditions across

supposed "replicate" samples.

Two lab-based experimental incubations of shallow (0-3 cm) salt marsh sediment were

performed. In Condition 1, HPG was added at sunrise (T_1) and AHA was added 12 hours later

(T_2), when the incubation was moved to a dark environment. In Condition 2, the order of ncAA

addition was reversed. We also included a negative control treatment that did not receive any

ncAAs but did receive both dyes. The downstream use of Fluorescence-Activated Cell Sorting

(FACS) requires stained cells to be in suspension rather than affixed to slides, prompting some

modifications to the slide-based protocol (detailed in the Materials & Methods section). In

particular, we found that 25 μM Azide-Cy3 and 1 μM DBCO-Cy5, when applied to 50 μM

concentrations of both ncAAs, was sufficient to differentiate true positive from false positive

signal in cell sorting experiments. For both experimental conditions, we confirmed the detection

of all three populations of cells (ncAA#1, ncAA#1&2, and ncAA#2) under the microscope prior

to cell sorting.

The three BONCAT-active populations from each of the two incubations were isolated

using FACS, based on gates determined using negative and mono-BONCAT positive controls

(Fig. S13). With the exception of the ncAA#2 population (active only at night) from Condition 1,

which generated FACS cell counts below the detection limit, between $2.1x10^4$ and $7.2x10^5$ cells

were sorted for each population (Table S1). Subsequent high-throughput 16S rRNA gene

amplicon sequencing allowed us to compare these distinct populations and infer

ecophysiological differences among day- and night-active taxa.

Among the taxa that were most prominent within the day-active (ncAA#1) population

(Fig. 5; Tables S2, S3), the *Beijerinckiaceae* genus *Methylobacterium* is commonly associated

with plants, and can use one-carbon compounds, including methanol in plant exudate, as a

carbon source (25, 26). At LSSM, roots of the cordgrass *Spartina alterniflora* permeate the

sediment and release a chemically diverse array of organic molecules. Heterotrophs feeding on

exudate, such as *Methylobacterium*, were likely stimulated by the *Spartina*'s daytime

photosynthetic activity; a similar relationship was observed with nitrogen-fixing microorganisms

surrounding *Spartina* roots, whose activity was substantially enhanced within an hour of light

exposure (27).

Sulfur-cycling taxa were highly abundant members of the night-active community

(ncAA#2 population). *Chromatiaceae*, the purple sulfur bacteria that comprise a key constituent

of the syntrophic "pink berry" consortia (21), accounted for 14% of the night-active population;

while this taxon is photosynthetic, its dark-phase respiration metabolism (28, 29) may be more

tightly coupled with protein synthesis. (We are confident that this enrichment was not due to

Chromatiaceae autofluorescence because signals in ncAA-free control experiments did not rise

above the threshold of "positive" detection; Fig. 3). *Arenicellaceae*, whose close relative

UBA868 may play a foundational role in marine sulfur oxidation (30), and the sulfate-reducing

bacteria family *Desulfobacteraceae* were both preferentially active at night, perhaps responding

more favorably than other anaerobic taxa to expanding anoxic zones that accompany nighttime

decreases in oxygenic photosynthesis (31). Other abundant taxa, such as the heterotrophic

Anaerolineaceae and *Cyclobacteriaceae*, did not exhibit night-specific activity patterns; these

organisms likely operate independent of diurnal cycles and depend more on ever-present organic

matter rather than shifting redox stratification or specific molecules provisioned during light or

dark metabolic phases.

Conclusion

Dual-BONCAT offers a new capability for the visualization and identification of

differentially active subpopulations within cell cultures and environmental microbiomes. By

revealing organisms that are anabolically active under distinct conditions within the same

physical environment, novel syntrophic or antagonistic relationships can be queried, and a more

realistic understanding of the condition-specific activity of microbial constituents can be

attained. We found that, in *E. coli* cultures and a salt marsh sediment microbial community, both

AHA and HPG uptake was detectable, and that distinct subpopulations of cells active during

different phases of an experiment were distinguishable. The order of ncAA addition did not have

a consistent effect on fluorescent intensity, but the order of dye reaction did: overall, performing

the HPG-azide click reaction prior to the AHA-DBCO reaction yielded brighter signals.

Downstream FACS and high-throughput 16S rRNA gene sequencing of distinct labeled

subpopulations allowed for the ecophysiological interpretation of taxa active during the day and

during the night, all without disrupting the community or relying on pseudoreplicate

experiments.

Challenges associated with dual-BONCAT are similar to those associated with mono-

BONCAT, and largely relate to optimizing signal-to-noise ratios in environmental microbiomes.

Low signal challenges may be accentuated when both ncAAs are present, since competition for

Met substitution would be expected to lower incorporation of each ncAA by approximately half.

We recommend that users customize ncAA concentrations, dye concentrations, and imaging

parameters to optimize for their specific applications, as diffusivity and non-specific binding

effects can vary with biofilm density, mineralogical context, and other physicochemical factors.

However, given the broad flexibility of mono-BONCAT more generally, we anticipate that the

methods and parameters we describe here will be a successful starting point for most

applications, including isolate cultures and complex environmental samples.

We envision many promising use cases for the dual-BONCAT approach, which allows

researchers to interrogate how a specific microbial community responds to changing conditions.

For example, the technique could track spatial patterns of protein synthesis within cell aggregates

or biofilms, or identify anabolically active taxa, in response to a shift in temperature, pH, redox

potential, predation, oxygen concentration, or any other manipulatable variable. Protein pull-

down experiments, which capture newly-synthesized proteins for downstream sequencing (32),

could incorporate dual-BONCAT to identify sub-proteomes linked with responses to

environmental challenges. Because of microscale heterogeneity in microbial community

composition (33, 34), "replicate" experiments are often insufficient in these contexts. Using

dual-BONCAT to observe the response of a single community as conditions change offers a

more realistic, representative view of dynamic microbiomes.

Materials and Methods

<u>Sample Growth & Collection</u>

E. coli was used first to identify the optimal concentrations of AHA and HPG, along with

their conjugate dye concentrations, and second to test dual-BONCAT approaches. The selection

of *E. coli* as our experimental organism was based on its rapid replication time, high expression

capabilities, and previous utility in BONCAT method development. Given that both non-

canonical amino acids used in this study, AHA and HPG (both supplied by Click Chemistry

Tools, Scottsdale, AZ), serve as surrogates for methionine, M9 medium, a growth medium that

lacks methionine, was used to grow the cultures. *E. coli* was initially inoculated from a glycerol

stock into M9 medium and grown overnight. (This *E. coli* stock had been grown in LB nutrient-

rich medium prior to being stored in glycerol.) We then took 100 µL of early stationary phase *E.*

coli culture in M9 to inoculate 9.9 mL of sterile M9 media. The first ncAA was added at the time

of inoculation; the second, when relevant, was added at a designated intermediate time point (8

hours). All ncAA and dye concentrations are indicated in the main text for each specific

experiment.

To explore the use of Dual-BONCAT with environmental microbial communies, we

used sediment from Little Sippewissett Salt Marsh on Cape Cod, MA, USA. Sediment from 0-3

cm depth was collected from the "Berry Pool" (located at 41.5758° latitude, -70.6394°

longitude); these sediments contained small *Spartina alternaflora* grasses and are marked by

sharp redox gradients with diurnal geochemical shifts, as well as a strong heritage of microbial

diversity studies, some of which have successfully deployed BONCAT and BONCAT-FACS-

16S techniques (11, 20, 22, 31). Immediately following collection, sediment was returned to the

lab and placed next to a large window at room temperature. Incubation experiments began within

two days after collection, and ncAAs were added at designated time points from stock solutions

to reach the desired final concentrations. AHA is sensitive to reduction under alkaline sulfidic

conditions such as those in LSSM sediments (14); thus, the AHA added to the incubations should

be viewed as an upper bound on the "felt concentration" within the experiments. Incubations

were conducted in 15 mL Falcon tubes with 5 mL of sediment and 5 mL of co-localized marsh

water. For day/night dual-BONCAT experiments, ncAA#1 was added at sunrise, and incubations

were placed next to a large window with direct daytime light. Twelve hours later, ncAA#2 was

added and the incubations were placed in a sealed incubator at room temperature. Controls with

no ncAAs, only one ncAA, and both ncAAs added at the start of the experiment were also

included. For fluorescence activated cell sorting experiments, control incubations were set up for

1) a Cy3 Positive Control (mono-BONCAT with HPG-Azide-Cy3), 2) a Cy5 Positive Control

(mono-BONCAT with AHA-DBCO-Cy5), 3) a Cy3&Cy5 Positive Control (both ncAAs added

for the full duration of an incubation experiment), and 4) a Negative Control (neither ncAA was

added, but Azide-Cy3 and DBCO-Cy5 dyes were). All ncAA and dye concentrations are

specified in the text.

To stop the incubations at the designated time points, samples were chemically fixed to

cease metabolic activity and prepare the cells for click chemistry reactions and imaging. To do

this, 0.5 mL aliquots of culture or sediment slurry were placed in sterile 2 mL tubes, and 1.5 mL

of 0.22-µm filter sterilized 3% paraformaldehyde in 1x PBS was added to each tube. This

mixture was mixed briefly by vortex and kept at room temperature for one hour. The tube was

then centrifuged at 8,000 x g for 5 minutes and the supernatant was discarded. The pellet was

washed twice with 1x PBS (by resuspending in 1 mL of 1x PBS, centrifuging at 8,000 x g for 5

minutes, and removing the supernatant) and ultimately resuspended in 1 mL of 1:1 PBS:ethanol.

The sample was then kept at 4 °C until downstream processing.

Cell Extraction from Sediment Samples

To recover cells from LSSM sediment and minimize the effects of autofluorescent

mineral grains, a cell extraction was performed following a protocol established by Couradeau et

al. for the soil microbiome (12) and successfully used in LSSM sediment (11). Fixed sediment

was centrifuged at 5,000 x g for 3 minutes, the supernatant was removed, and ~250 µL of

sediment (or fixed culture, for controls) was transferred to a new 2 mL tube. 1450 µL of sterile

1x PBS and 34.7 µL of sterile 1% Tween20 were added to the tube, which was then inverted

several times and vortexed at maximum speed for 5 minutes to thoroughly mix the sample and

promote the removal of cells from sediment grains. Tubes were then centrifuged at 500 x g for

55 minutes to separate cells (into the supernatant) from sediment (which formed a pellet). The

supernatant was then transferred to a new 2 mL tube, being sure to avoid any sediment.

A second extraction of the initial sediment was then performed by adding 870 µL of

sterile 1x PBS and 20.8 µL of sterile 1% Tween20 to the tube containing the sediment. The tube

was inverted several times, vortexed at maximum speed for 5 minutes, and centrifuged at 500 x g

for 35 minutes. The supernatant was then recovered and pooled with the previously collected

supernatant from the first extraction. The pooled extraction product was then centrifuged at

16,000 x g for 6 minutes to pellet the cells. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet was

resuspended in 250 µL of 1:1 PBS:ethanol. These fixed, extracted cells were then used for

downstream cell staining analyses.

<u>Cell Staining with Click Chemistry for Microscopy</u>

10 µL of fixed cells were added to a single well of a slide (Tekdon slides 8-82 with

Teflon and poly-L-lysine coating) and dried at room temperature. To dehydrate and permeabilize

the cells, 10 µL of 50%, 80%, and 96% ethanol were sequentially added to each well for at least

3 minutes each, and dried at room temperature in between. (A gentle stream of filtered

pressurized air can be used to accelerate the drying process.) We found that performing the

dehydration and click chemistry reactions directly on the wells rather than submerging the entire

slide in coplin jars reduced cross-contamination between wells.

The click chemistry reactions described below can be done either in isolation (e.g., AHA-

DBCO or HPG-azide for a "mono-BONCAT" application) or in series for dual-BONCAT. While

we initially thought performing the AHA-DBCO reaction first would be best in order to avoid

potential false negatives from AHA azides reacting with HPG alkynes, assessment of the

resulting signal suggests this effect may be negligible. Instead, we recommend performing the

HPG-Azide reaction first as this order of operations retained a brighter Cy5 fluorescence from

the AHA-DBCO signal.

HPG-Azide Reaction

To perform the Cu(I)-catalyzed HPG-azide reaction, we first made two "premix"

solutions in separate 2 mL tubes according to Table S4. (All volumes mentioned here can be

adjusted proportionally based on the number of samples and volume of dye mix needed to fully

cover the analyte cells, as well as the desired dye concentration; the volumes listed here assume a

25 µM final dye concentration and 20 µL of dye mixture applied to each microscope slide well.)

Premix 1 contained the 100 mM solutions of Na-ascorbate and aminoguanidine-HCl (both in 1x

PBS; solutions made fresh on the day of use), as well as the 1x PBS. Premix 2 contained the 20

mM $CuSO_4$, 50 mM Tris-HydroxyPropylTriazolylmethylAmine (THPTA), and concentrated (1

mM) azide dye (Cy3 picolyl azide dye, Click Chemistry Tools, Scottsdale, AZ); these

components were left to incubate in the dark at room temperature for 3 minutes. The final dye

concentration can be adjusted based on the volume and concentration of the dye stock solution

used; overall volume can be maintained by adjusting the amount of 1x PBS. The two premixes

were then combined and inverted once to mix gently.

The incubation of cells with the dye mixture was performed in a humid chamber

consisting of a 50 mL Falcon tube placed on its side, with ultrapure water- or 1x PBS-saturated

kimwipes inside. 20 µL of dye mixture was applied to each slide well, and the slide was carefully

inserted into the humid chamber, making sure the lens of liquid remained intact on top of each

well. The humid chamber was then capped and placed in the dark at 46 °C for 30 minutes.

Following the incubation, the dye was removed by carefully pipetting the solution off from the

edge of the well (so as to not disturb the cells in the center) and rinsing each well three times

with 20 µL of 1x PBS (applied and removed by pipette). Finally, the slide was dehydrated with

10 uL of 50% ethanol in 1x PBS for 3 minutes and then dried under a gentle stream of

pressurized air.

AHA-DBCO Reaction

To perform the strain-promoted AHA-DBCO reaction, 20 µL of fresh 100 mM 2-

chloroacetamide (in 1x PBS) were added to each slide well and incubated in the humid chamber

for 1 hour at 46°C. A dye mix was made with concentrated DBCO-Cy5 dye (Click Chemistry

Tools, Scottsdale, AZ) and the chloroacetamide solution; the volume and concentration should

be adjusted to attain the desired final concentration (previously recommended to be between 100

nM – 1 µM (14)). We found a final dye concentration of 25 µM to work best for *E. coli*, so we

used this concentration for the salt marsh sediment samples as well. The chloroacetamide was

removed and 20 µL of the DBCO-Cy5 dye mix was added to each well. Slides were left to

incubate in the humid chamber for 30 minutes at 46 °C in the dark. Unbound dye was removed

by adding 20 µL of 1:1 dimethyl sulfoxide:PBS to each slide well and incubating in a humid

chamber at room temperature for 20 minutes. Wells were then rinsed three times with 20 uL of

1x PBS. Finally, the slide wells were dehydrated with 10 uL of 50% ethanol in 1x PBS for 3

minutes and then dried under a gentle stream of pressurized air.

DAPI Counterstaining

To visualize all cells - and thereby confirm that BONCAT signals corresponded with

biomass while also allowing for cell abundance calculations - the general DNA stain 4',6-

diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) was used. For each well, 6 µL of a 1:1 mixture of 5 ng/µL

DAPI:VectaShield Antifade Mounting Medium was added and spread across each well by

adding a glass coverslip.

<u>Fluorescence Microscopy</u>

Microscopic analysis was performed on a Leica Stellaris 5 confocal laser scanning

fluorescence microscope equipped with a white light laser and tunable excitation wavelengths

and emission windows. For all imaging, a 63x immersion objective lens was used and carried out

in the Leica Application Suite X (LAS-X). Imaging parameters for all dyes and both cell culture

and environmental samples are provided in Table S5. All imaging parameters were kept constant

for experimental and control treatments in order to provide directly comparable data sets (with

the exception of the DAPI detector gain, as the sediments were overexposed when the gain was

set to 8%). We also found that there was substantial reflection when the detector emission

window was <15 nm away from the laser excitation, which is why we deviated from the default

settings in LAS-X. For each field of view, three images - corresponding to all cells (DAPI), all

AHA-incorporating cells (Cy5), and all HPG-incorporating cells (Cy3) - were acquired and

analyzed in parallel.

<u>Image Analysis</u>

Images were analyzed using FIJI / ImageJ version 2.14.0/1.54f (35). Composite and

individual channel images were generated and brightness was adjusted uniformly using our FIJI-

Multi-Channel-RGB-Stacker plugin (https://github.com/mankeldy/FIJI-Multi-Channel-RGB-

Stacker) with the settings in Table S6. Cell-specific fluorescence intensity data was extracted

using our FIJI-Multi-Channel-Cell-Counter plugin (https://github.com/mankeldy/FIJI-Multi-

Channel-Cell-Counter) with the settings in Table S7. Initially, we noticed our DAPI images were

slightly offset (roughly 0.25 μm) from our Cy3 and Cy5 images, so we used the MultiStackReg

(v1.46.5) plugin to apply a rigid-body transformation that aligned the Cy3 and Cy5 images to the

corresponding DAPI image in a representative field of view. Transformations were applied

across all fields of view in each experiment, and both the *E. coli* and sediment experiments used

dual-labelled *E. coli* as the reference for extracting the transformation matrix. Next, for *E. coli*,

we used the DAPI channel as our reference to find ROIs after applying the Moments automatic

threshold, and we only selected those ROIs that had areas between 0.1-2 μm^2. These ROIs were

then redirected onto the corresponding raw DAPI, Cy3, and Cy5 images to extract the mean cell-

specific intensity across each channel. For the salt marsh sediments, we chose to use the Cy3 and

Cy5 channels (with a Moments threshold) as our reference to find ROIs, since the diffuse DAPI

background in many of these images would lead to false positives/negatives with automated

thresholding methods. We subsequently applied a Watershed (tolerance: 0.5) to separate

overlapping cells and kept ROIs with areas between 0.1-4 μm^2 and a circularity between 0.2-1.

Normalizing the cell-specific fluorescence in each channel by the corresponding DAPI signal is

often useful to account for slight variations in intensity for cells on the edge of the focal plane.

However, the cell-specific DAPI fluorescence varied dramatically in the salt marsh sediments

(likely due to species-specific variations in GC content (36, 37); genome size, substrate

limitation, growth stage, and number of genome copies (38); and permeability (39, 40)), leading

to unreliable "normalized" intensities. (These factors also precluded an analysis of Cy3:Cy5

ratios for confirmed DAPI-active cells comparable to that conducted for *E. coli* cells, e.g., Fig.

S7.) Therefore, we report the raw mean cell-specific intensities for all analyses, which remain

comparable across experiments since the same imaging parameters were used throughout the

study (Figs. 1, 3, S3, S10). To identify differentially labelled cells, we considered only those

cells whose mean intensities in either the Cy3 or Cy5 channels were greater than the ncAA-free

(but dyed) controls as being labelled with the corresponding ncAA. For a given cell, if both

intensities were greater than the ncAA-free condition, then it was considered "dual-labelled."

Otherwise, it was either "only HPG" or "only AHA" labelled (Fig. S7).

All plots in this study were made using ggplot2 (v3.4.4

https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.ggplot2). Statistical significance was determined using

the Whitney-Mann *U* test (R function *wilcox.test*). False positives rates in the dual-BONCAT

validation experiments were calculated based on the portion of cells in the mono-labelled

controls that were dimmer than the maximum mean cell fluorescence in either the ncAA-free or

opposite mono-labelled controls, depending on which was greater. Additional packages used for

data formatting and plotting include the following:

dplyr (v1.1.4 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.dplyr)

reshape2 (v1.4.4 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.reshape2)

stringr (v1.5.0 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.stringr)

extrafont (v0.19 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.extrafont)

scales (v1.2.1 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.scales)

tidyr (v1.3.1 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.tidyr)

rstudioapi (v0.17.1 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.rstudioapi)

gg4hx (v0.3.1.9000 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.ggh4x)

forcats (v1.0.1 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.forcats)

<u>Fluorescence-Activated Cell Sorting</u>

BONCAT Protocol Modifications for FACS

Because FACS requires stained cells to be in suspension, some modifications to the slide-

based protocol described above were implemented. Starting from fixed cells in a 1:1 solution of

PBS:ethanol, a 5-minute centrifugation at 16,000 x g was performed to pellet the cells, and the

supernatant was discarded. The cells were resuspended in 250 µL of 80% ethanol, vortexed, and

incubated at room temperature for 3 minutes. Next, 1.5 mL of 96% ethanol was added to the

tube, which was then vortexed and left at room temperature for 3 minutes. The sample was

centrifuged at 16,000 x g for 5 minutes, the supernatant was removed, and the pellet was

resuspended in 221 µL of 1x PBS. The cells were pelleted again (16,000 x g for 5 minutes,

supernatant removed) and resuspended in 500 µL of 100 mM 2-chloroacetamide in 1x PBS, and

incubated for 1 hour in the dark. To stain the azide AHA molecules, DBCO-Cy5 was added to

reach the desired final concentration (1 µM for cells extracted from salt marsh sediment to be

used for FACS), and the sample was incubated in the dark at 46 ºC for 30 minutes. Following the

incubation, the sample was washed three times with PBS and once with 50% ethanol in 1x PBS;

each wash involved centrifuging at 16,000 x g for 5 minutes, removing the supernatant, and

resuspending cells in wash fluid. After the final wash step, the sample was resuspended in 500

µL of 1x PBS solution containing the desired concentration of the azide-Cy3 dye (25 µM, in this

case). The tube was inverted once to gently mix, and the sample was left to incubate in the dark

at room temperature for 30 minutes. To remove any unbound dye, the sample was then washed

three times with 1x PBS and once with 50% ethanol in 1x PBS; each wash involved centrifuging

at 16,000 x g for 5 minutes, removing the supernatant, and resuspending cells in wash fluid.

Finally, the cells were resuspended in a 1:1 solution of PBS:ethanol and kept at -20 ℃ prior to

loading onto the FACS instrument. For microscopic confirmation of staining, a few microliters

can be placed on a slide and counterstained with DAPI, as described above.

Cell Sorting Procedures

Six samples of extracted salt marsh sediment microbial communities were sent to the

University of Arizona for fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS): Condition 1 (ncAA#1:

HPG-azide-Cy3; ncAA#2: AHA-DBCO-Cy5); Condition 2 (ncAA#1: AHA-DBCO-Cy5;

ncAA#2: HPG-azide-Cy3); Cy3 Positive Control (mono-BONCAT with HPG-azide-Cy3); Cy5

Positive Control (mono-BONCAT with AHA-DBCO-Cy5); Cy3&Cy5 Positive Control (both

ncAAs added for the full duration of an incubation experiment); and Negative Control (neither

ncAA was added, but azide-Cy3 and DBCO-Cy5 dyes were). A BD Influx flow cytometer (BD

Life Sciences, USA) was used to isolate cells from distinct gated subpopulations by FACS. The

instrument fluidic system was thoroughly cleaned before use with multiple rinses of 10% bleach,

70% ethanol, and ultrapure water (8). The sheath fluid consisted of 1x PBS filtered through a

0.2-µm filter and autoclaved at 121°C for 30 min (hereafter referred to as sterile). The sheath

fluid was also filtered through a 0.2-µm Sterivex filter (FisherScientific catalog #SVGPL10RC)

connected in line with the sheath tank. A 70-µm nozzle was used, with a sheath fluid pressure of

30 PSI (207 kPa) and a sample fluid pressure of 31 PSI (214 kPa). The instrument was aligned,

focused, and calibrated using reference microspheres (1-µm Fluoresbrite Multifluorescent,

Polysciences catalog #24062; and 3-µm Ultra Rainbow, Spherotech catalog #URFP-30-2).

Samples were vortexed and filtered onto a BD Falcon 40-μm nylon cell strainer (BD

Biosciences, catalog #352340) into polypropylene disposable tubes (BD Biosciences, catalog

#352063) to avoid clogging the nozzle with cell clumps. To identify populations of interest, cell

doublets were initially excluded using a trigger pulse width versus forward scatter plot. This

approach assumes that pulse width typically covaries with forward scatter for single particles;

doublets exhibit comparable forward scatter to single cells but have an increased pulse width.

Consequently, total events were gated to include only those with similar pulse width to forward

scatter ratios in the analyses (Fig. S13). A scatter plot displaying 585/29 nm emission at 561 nm

excitation versus forward scatter was used to detect Cy3 labeled cells (hereafter referred to as the

Cy3 plot), while a scatter plot featuring 692/40 nm emission at 640 nm excitation versus forward

scatter detected Cy5 labeled cells (hereafter called the Cy5 plot). Another scatter plot was

generated to detect Cy3&Cy5 dual-labeled cells (hereafter called the Cy3&Cy5 plot),

showcasing 692/40 nm emission at 640 nm excitation (Cy5) versus 585/29 nm emission at 561

nm excitation (Cy3). Negative controls consisting of ncAA-free samples with Cy3, Cy5, or Cy3

and Cy5 dyes were used to draw the background gates on the Cy3, Cy5, and Cy3&Cy5 plots.

Cy3 and Cy5 mono-labeled control samples were analyzed to determine the background signal

generated in the Cy5 and Cy3 plots, respectively (i.e., to determine fluorescence bleed-through),

and to draw the Cy3-positive and Cy5-positive subpopulation gates. Cy3&Cy5 dual-labeled

control samples were analyzed to draw the Cy3&Cy5-positive gate on the Cy3&Cy5 plot.

At the beginning of each sample processing day, the drop delay was calibrated using BD

FACS Accudrop Beads (catalog #345249). The sorting efficiency was manually verified by

sorting a designated number of 1-μm Fluoresbrite yellow-green microspheres (Polysciences

catalog #17154-10) onto a glass slide, followed by counting the beads under an epifluorescence

microscope. The breakoff position was monitored throughout the day and adjusted as necessary.

The instrument was set to high sorting purity (1.0 drop) mode. To maintain high sorting purity

and recovery, samples were diluted in sterile 1x PBS as needed to achieve an event rate of less

than 5,000 per second, thereby avoiding coincidence and swarm (41). Cells from each sorted

subpopulation were collected into separate sterile microtubes. After collection, samples were

stored frozen at -80°C. The number of sorted cells recovered using the approaches described

above is provided in Table S1.

16S rRNA Gene Sequencing & Analysis

DNA Extraction & Sequencing

DNA was extracted from the FACS-sorted samples by a modified hot phenol/chloroform

extraction (42, 43). All reagents were molecular grade and nuclease-free. Sorted samples were

added to Invitrogen Bead Tubes (Thermo Fisher #A29158) with 500 µL of extraction buffer

(10% (w/v) CTAB buffer at pH 8, 100 mM Tris-HCl, 100 mM Na-EDTA, 100 mM NaH_2PO_4,

1.5 M NaCl) heated to 75°C (for easier transfers). Bead tubes were vortexed for 5 minutes and

inverted periodically to ensure proper mixing. 50 µL of 50 mg/mL lysozyme and 10 µL of 20

mg/mL Proteinase K were added to each tube and incubated at 37 °C for 30 minutes. After

incubation, 210 µL of 20% (w/v) sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) were added to each bead tube

and incubated for 2 hours at 65 °C. Tubes were then centrifuged at 10,000 x *g* for 10 minutes and

the supernatant was transferred to a 2 mL Eppendorf tube and placed on ice. A second extraction

was performed by adding an additional 500 µL of extraction buffer to the original bead tubes.

Bead tubes were vortexed for another 10 minutes and inverted periodically. Another 70 µL 20%

(w/v) SDS was added and tubes were incubated at 65 °C for 1 hour. Bead tubes were centrifuged

at 10,000 x *g* for 10 minutes, and the remaining supernatants were combined with the first

extractions. An equal volume of 60 °C (pre-heated) phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1,

adjusted to pH 7.9 with Tris buffer) was added to each extract and inverted gently to mix. Tubes

were centrifuged at 13,800 x g for 30 minutes, and the upper aqueous layer was transferred into a

fresh 1.5 mL Eppendorf tube. To precipitate the DNA, approximately 0.6 extract volume's worth

of isopropyl alcohol and 0.6 volume's worth of 0.3 M Na-Acetate (pH 5.2) were added to each

Eppendorf tube and inverted gently to mix. Tubes were placed at 4 °C and allowed to precipitate

overnight. Tubes were centrifuged at 16,000 x g for 20 minutes, and the supernatant was

discarded. DNA pellets were washed with ~200-500 µL of chilled 75% ethanol and centrifuged

for another 16,000 x g for 10 minutes. The supernatant was discarded and the remaining DNA

pellets were allowed to air dry for 15-30 minutes. DNA was resuspended in 50 µL of nuclease-

free water and stored at -20 °C. DNA was quantified on a Qubit 4 Fluorometer (Invitrogen)

following the manufacturer's instructions.

Extracted DNA was sent to the University of Delaware DNA Sequencing and

Genotyping Center for library preparation and sequencing. Initially, some samples did not

generate a library, so all samples were cleaned using a Zymo Clean & Concentrator-5 kit. The

V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified based on the Earth Microbiome protocol (44)

with the revised 515 F (5'-GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3'; (45)) and 806 R (5'-

GGACTACNVGGGTWTCTAAT-3'; (46)) primers for 30 cycles and sequenced on an Illumina

MiSeq 251-cycle paired-end run (2x251) with an output of 2M paired reads (analyses only

performed on the forward reads, see below). Two controls were included in the sequencing run: a

"DNA Extraction Negative Control" that followed the extraction procedure detailed above but

included no template, and a "UDel Sequencing Negative Control" that resulted from running 31

µL H_2O through the clean and concentrate column and using it as the PCR negative control.

Sequence Analysis

Raw sequence reads were processed on the Boston University Shared Computing Cluster

using the BU16s pipeline (https://github.com/Boston-University-Microbiome-Initiative/BU16s)

built with QIIME 2020.2 (47) as described in (48) and (49). Sequencing adaptors were removed

with cutadapt (50) and amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) were generated with dada2 (51). For

taxonomic association, ASVs were clustered to 99% identity with the SILVA 132 database (52)

using the vsearch *cluster-features-closed-reference* (53). Initially, reads were analyzed as paired-

ends, but this led to few reads passing through the quality filter. Poor reverse read quality was

confirmed with FastQC, and the forward reads were processed as a single-end library for

subsequent analyses. Raw sequence reads have been archived at the National Centre for

Biotechnology Information GenBank under the Bioproject ID PRJNA1188625.

ASV analyses were performed with R (v4.3.1) in RStudio (v2023.09.1+494). Alpha

diversity metrics were calculated as described in (11) and are provided in Table S8. Data was

formatted using Phyloseq (v1.46.0; (54)); to compare samples with uneven sequencing depth,

ASVs were rarefied with GUniFrac (v1.8 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.GUniFrac).

Species richness (Chao and Abundance-based Coverage Estimator (ACE) metrics) and the

Shannon diversity index were calculated by Vegan using the *estimateR* and *diversity* functions,

respectively (v2.6-10 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.vegan). Evenness was determined

by dividing the Shannon diversity index by the natural-logarithm of the number of observed

ASVs.

Relative abundances were calculated by dividing the number of reads from each ASV by

the total number of reads in each sample (Table S3). Ambiguous taxonomic classifications (e.g.

uncultured, unidentified etc.) were removed from each ASV up to the lowest defined category.

For family-level analyses, ASVs were grouped at the family level (or their lowest defined

taxonomic label) and relative abundances within each family-level grouping were summed

together. If the family was not known, the remaining ASVs were grouped by their order, and so

on, moving further up the taxonomic ladder until the domainless ASVs were grouped (Table S2).

Of this data, we considered the grouped taxa which accounted for >1% relative abundance in at

least one of the conditions (Fig. 5; Table S2). The mean and standard deviation of the Day-active

(ncAA#1) and Day- and Night-active or Night-active (ncAA#1 & #2) families were calculated

from the two experimental conditions and plotted alongside the Night-active (ncAA#2) families

from Condition 2 using ggplot2 (v3.4.4 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.ggplot2) (Fig.

5). Additional packages used for data formatting and plotting include the following:

dplyr (v1.1.3 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.dplyr)

reshape2 (v1.4.4 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.reshape2)

stringr (v1.5.0 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.stringr)

extrafont (v0.19 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.extrafont)

scales (v1.2.1 https://doi.org/10.32614/CRAN.package.scales)

Data Availability

All datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from

the corresponding author upon reasonable request. Raw sequence reads have been archived at the

National Centre for Biotechnology Information GenBank under the Bioproject ID

PRJNA1188625.

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873   Fig. S1: Representative fields of view from mono-BONCAT experiments with *E. coli* cultures,

874   evaluating fluorescence signals derived from a range of HPG and Azide-Cy3 concentrations. All

875   scale bars are 10 μm.

885   Fig. S2: Representative fields of view from mono-BONCAT experiments with *E. coli* cultures,

886   evaluating fluorescence signals derived from a range of AHA and DBCO-Cy5 concentrations.

887   All scale bars are 10 μm.

897   Fig. S3: Boxplots of mean fluorescence intensity values of cells in mono-BONCAT experiments

898   with *E. coli* cultures. A range of ncAA and dye concentrations were tested to determine

899   parameters for subsequent dual-BONCAT experiments. Imaging parameters were consistent

900   across all different conditions.

Fig. S4: Representative fields of view from dual-BONCAT experiments with *E. coli* cultures,

evaluating the order of ncAA addition and performing the HPG-Azide reaction first followed by

the AHA-DBCO. All scale bars indicate 10 µm.

Fig. S5: Representative fields of view from dual-BONCAT experiments with *E. coli* cultures,

evaluating the order of ncAA addition and performing the AHA-DBCO reaction first followed

by the HPG-Azide reaction. All scale bars indicate 10 μm.

Fig. 1: Boxplots of mean fluorescence intensity values of cells in dual-BONCAT experiments

with *E. coli* cultures. Tests varying the sequence of ncAA addition (see column labels along x-

axis) were performed, with the Azide-Cy3 click reaction conducted first (left panel) and with the

DBCO-Cy5 click reaction conducted first (middle panel). The procedural control in which *E.*

coli cells were mono-labeled and mono-stained is shown in the right panel.

926   Fig. S6: Fluorescence microscopy field of view of a dual-BONCAT experiment with *E. coli*

927   cells. Both ncAAs were added at the start of the experiment, and, following fixation, the Azide-

928   Cy3 click reaction was performed first. Scale bar indicates 5 μm.

Fig. S7: Ratio of the Cy3 to Cy5 fluorescent intensities for the experiment in which HPG

and AHA were added at T_1 in the field of view chosen for Fig. S6 (left), and the

experiment in which HPG was added at T_1 and AHA at T_2 in the field of view chosen for

Fig. 2 (right). Cells whose mean intensities exceeded the maximum intensities in the "no

ncAA" condition were considered labelled. The red-colored bar indicates the cell labeled

with a red arrow in Fig. 2; the bar marked with a red asterisk indicates the two cells

labeled with red arrows and asterisks in Fig. 2.

Fig. 2: Fluorescence microscopy field of view of a dual-BONCAT experiment with *E. coli* cells.

HPG was added at the start of the experiment; AHA was added 8 hours later, and the experiment

was stopped after 24 hours. The Azide-Cy3 click reaction was performed first. Arrows indicate

select cells representative of the distinct subpopulations identifiable with dual-BONCAT. Blue

arrows: cells that were not labeled with either ncAA. White arrows: cells that incorporated both

ncAAs. Green arrows: cells that only incorporated HPG. Magenta arrows: cells that only

incorporated AHA. Magenta arrows with asterisks indicate cells with very low Cy3:Cy5 ratios

(see Fig. S7) that dominantly incorporated AHA, but whose Cy3 intensities were slightly above

the threshold value set for our binary "labelled" designation. Scale bar indicates 5 μm.

Fig. 3: Boxplots of mean fluorescence intensity values of cells in dual-BONCAT experiments

with extracted salt marsh sediment cells. Tests varying the sequence of ncAA addition (see

column labels along x-axis) were performed, with the Azide-Cy3 click reaction conducted first

(left panel) and with the DBCO-Cy5 click reaction conducted first (middle panel). A) Data from

the 50 µM HPG & 50 µM AHA condition; B) data from the 50 µM HPG & 500 µM AHA

condition.

A)

B)

Fig. S8: Representative fields of view from dual-BONCAT experiments with extracted cells

from salt marsh sediments, evaluating the order of ncAA addition and performing the HPG-azide

reaction first followed by the AHA-DBCO. All scale bars indicate 10 μm.

Fig. S9: Representative fields of view from dual-BONCAT experiments with extracted cells

from salt marsh sediments, evaluating the order of ncAA addition and performing the DBCO-

Cy5 reaction first followed by the HPG-azide. All scale bars indicate 10 μm.

Fig. S10: Boxplots of mean fluorescence intensity values of cells in dual-BONCAT experiments

with extracted salt marsh sediment cells. Tests varying the sequence of ncAA addition (see

column labels along x-axis) were performed, with the Azide-Cy3 click reaction conducted first

(left panel) and with the DBCO-Cy5 click reaction conducted first (middle panel). Data from the

5 µM HPG & 5 µM AHA condition.

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1009   Fig. S11: Fluorescence microscopy field of view of a dual-BONCAT experiment with extracted

1010   salt marsh sediment cells. Both ncAAs (50 µM HPG & 500 µM AHA) were added at the start of

1011   the experiment, which was stopped after a single, 24-hour day-night cycle. The Azide-Cy3 click

1012   reaction was performed first. Scale bar indicates 5 µm.

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Fig. 4: Fluorescence microscopy field of view of a dual-BONCAT experiment with extracted salt

marsh sediment cells. 50 µM HPG was added at the start of the experiment; 500 µM AHA was

added 12 hours later, and the experiment was stopped after a single 24-hour day-night cycle. The

Azide-Cy3 click reaction was performed first. Arrows indicate select cells representative of the

distinct subpopulations identifiable with dual-BONCAT. Blue arrows: cells that were not labeled

with either ncAA. White arrows: cells that incorporated both ncAAs. Green arrows: cells that

only incorporated HPG. Magenta arrows: cells that only incorporated AHA. Scale bar indicates 5

µm.

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Fig. S12: An interpretive scheme for dual-BONCAT experiments. For a generalized

experimental timeline during which one ncAA is added at an initial time point (T_1) and a second

ncAA is added at a subsequent time point (T_2), the three distinct subpopulations of labeled cells

(e.g., those labeled with only ncAA#1, both ncAA#1&2, and only ncAA#2) can be interpreted as

being anabolically active during distinct phases of the experiment. Further details are provided in

the text.

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Fig. S13: Schematic representation of the subpopulations gating protocol. (1) Gate single cells

subpopulation on a trigger pulse width versus forward scatter plot, (2) Gate Cy3 negative

subpopulation by analyzing a ncAA-free sample with Cy3 and a Cy5 mono-labeled sample on

the Cy3 plot [585/29 nm emission at 561 nm excitation versus forward scatter], (3) Gate Cy3

positive subpopulation by analyzing a ncAA-Cy3 sample on the Cy3 plot and the Cy3Cy5 plot

[692/40 nm emission at 640 nm excitation versus 585/29 nm emission at 561 nm excitation], (4)

Gate Cy5 negative subpopulation by analyzing a ncAA-free sample with Cy5 and a Cy3 mono-

labeled sample on the Cy5 plot [692/40 nm emission at 640 nm excitation versus forward

scatter], (5) Gate Cy5 positive subpopulation by analyzing a ncAA-Cy5 sample on the Cy5 plot

and the Cy3Cy5 plot, (6) Gate Cy3&Cy5 double-negative subpopulation by analyzing a ncAA-

free sample with Cy3 and Cy5 on the Cy3Cy5 plot, (7) Gate Cy3&Cy5 double-positive

subpopulation by analyzing a ncAA-Cy3&Cy5 sample on the Cy3Cy5 plot.

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1064   Table S1: Number of sorted cells recovered from each gate of interest in this study.

Condition 1	
Subpopulation	*Number of Sorted Cells*
ncAA#1 active	718,584
ncAA#1&2 active	295,495
ncAA#2 active	Below Detection

Condition 2	
Subpopulation	*Number of Sorted Cells*
ncAA#1 active	21,424
ncAA#1&2 active	552,138
ncAA#2 active	321,110

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Fig. 5: Relative abundances of family-level taxonomic groupings derived from dual-BONCAT-

FACS-16S analyses of LSSM sediments. Each row corresponds to a family that comprised at

least 1% of the overall relative abundance in at least one of the five sorted and sequenced

fractions. Each column and color corresponds to a given ncAA condition: yellow indicates cells

that incorporated only ncAA#1 (regardless of which ncAA was added first), red indicates cells

that incorporated both ncAAs (regardless of which was added first), and blue indicates cells that

incorporated only ncAA#2 (when HPG was added second; the other condition did not result in

sufficient cells for sequencing). The size of each circle indicates the mean relative abundance for

a given family and ncAA condition; the faint "halo" around each data point conveys the standard

deviation when two communities were sequenced for a given condition. See Table S2 for the

data used to generate this figure.

Table S2: Taxonomic identity and relative abundance of ASVs grouped at the family level for

the seven communities sequenced in this study. Only family-level groupings that accounted for

>1% of the relative abundance of at least one sequenced community are shown.

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1106   Table S3: Taxonomic identity and relative abundance of all ASVs for the seven communities

1107   sequenced in this study.

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1123   Table S4: Components of the two premixes needed for the Cu(I)-catalyzed HPG-azide reaction.

Premix 1			Premix 2		
Component	Volume		Component	Volume	
100 mM Na-ascorbate	20 μL		20 mM CuSO₄	2 μL	
100 mM Aminoguanidine-HCl	20 μL		50 mM THPTA	4 μL	
1x PBS	344 μL		1 mM azide dye	10 μL	

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1138   Table S5: Imaging parameters for the culture and environmental samples used in this study.

For *E. coli* cultures - 63x objective lens and 2.5x zoom				
Dye	Laser Excitation	Detector Emission Window	Laser Intensity	Detector Gain
DAPI	405 nm	420-559 nm	7.0%	8.0%
Cy3	554 nm	571-704 nm	2.0%	2.5%
Cy5	649 nm	666-750 nm	1.5%	2.5%
For LSSM Sediments - 63x objective lens and 2.5x zoom				
Dye	Laser Excitation	Detector Emission Window	Laser Intensity	Detector Gain
DAPI	405 nm	420-559 nm	7.0%	2.5%
Cy3	554 nm	571-704 nm	2.0%	2.5%
Cy5	649 nm	666-750 nm	1.5%	2.5%

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1150   Table S6: FIJI Multi-Channel Cell Counter plugin settings for the culture and environmental

1151   samples used in this study.

For *E. coli* cultures		
Dye	**Color**	**Min/Max**
DAPI	Blue	[0,100]
Cy3	Green	[0,200]
Cy5	Red	[0,100]
Manually Adjusted?	Yes	
Transformed?	Yes	

For LSSM Sediments		
Dye	**Color**	**Min/Max**
DAPI	Blue	[0,60]
Cy3	Green	[0,30]
Cy5	Red	[0,40]
Manually Adjusted?	Yes	
Transformed?	Yes	

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1160   Table S7: FIJI Multi-Channel RGB Stacker plugin settings for the culture and environmental

1161   samples used in this study.

For *E. coli* cultures		
Dye	**Threshold**	**Counter-stain**
DAPI	None	Yes
Cy3	None	No
Cy5	None	No
Measurements:	Area, Min & Max, Mean, Standard Deviation	
Counter-stain Threshold:	Moments	
Watershed/Tolerance?	No	
Particle Size:	0.1-2 μm^2	
Particle Circularity	0-1	
Transformed?	Yes	

For LSSM Sediments		
Dye	**Threshold**	**Counter-stain**
DAPI	None	No
Cy3	None	Yes
Cy5	None	Yes
Measurements:	Area, Min & Max, Mean, Standard Deviation	
Counter-stain Threshold:	Moments	
Watershed/Tolerance?	Yes/0.5	
Particle Size:	0.1-4 μm^2	
Particle Circularity	0.2-1	
Transformed?	Yes	

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1167　　Table S8: Alpha diversity metrics for the seven sequenced communities analyzed in this study.

Sample	# of ASVs	Chao	ACE	Shannon	Evenness
Condition 1 Day-Active (ncAA#1)	4212	4629.2	4588.3	6.74	0.81
Condition 2 Day-Active (ncAA#1)	687	707.8	704.1	4.23	0.65
Condition 1 Day- & Night-active (ncAA#1&2)	3256	3857.1	3811.6	5.98	0.74
Condition 2 Day- & Night-active (ncAA#1&2)	1891	2051.8	2060	4.70	0.62
Condition 2 Night-active (ncAA#2)	2352	2543.3	2479.5	5.56	0.72
Delaware Negative Control	22	22	22	1.32	0.43
DNA Extraction Negative Control	172	179	176.4	3.19	0.62

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