Tryptophan-Driven Metabolomic Shift in *Acidobacteriaceae* Reveals Phytohormones and Antifungal Metabolites

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Abstract

Acidobacteriota is one of the most abundant phyla in soils and has recently attracted attention for its potential role in promoting phytosanitary benefits. The metabolomic capabilities of this phylum remain poorly characterised, with few experimentally confirmed metabolites described. To address these gaps, we combined metabolomic profiling with comparative genomic analysis to explore the functional potential of novel strains within the *Acidobacteriaceae* family. Genome mining across the phylum for PGPTs revealed the presence and taxon-specific enrichment of genes related to phytohormone production, as well as other genes associated with plant-growth-promoting effects. When tryptophan (Trp) was added to the cultivation medium, it triggered a strong metabolic response in the strains, resulting in measurable changes in the production levels of phytohormones such as indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) and indole-3-pyruvate (iP). Building on these findings, we examined the metabolic reprogramming caused by Trp supplementation, which suppressed the growth of phytopathogenic fungi, leading to the identification of malassezindoles and pityriacitrins as active agents. This was confirmed by isolating and elucidating the structure of pityriacitrin B and a methyl ester through NMR studies. Overall, these findings shed light on the previously unexplored metabolic potential of the Acidobacteriota phylum, emphasising its ecological importance for phytosanitary applications.

Introduction

Ubiquitous across various ecosystems, including soil (1–3), marine sediments (4), wetlands (5–7), as well as extreme environments such as permafrost (8) and acidic mine drainages (9), Acidobacteriota

(10) represent one of the most widespread bacterial groups. The phylum is phylogenetically diverse (11), classified into 26 subdivisions (12) based on 16S rDNA sequencing. Despite their ubiquity, the Acidobacteriota have historically been underexplored due to the limited availability of cultured representatives, which has restricted experimental characterisation and genomic insights (13). Today, the availability of high-quality metagenome-assembled genomes, combined with the growing number of cultured representatives and isolate genomes, has significantly broadened our understanding of the metabolic capabilities and ecological roles of this phylum (13–15).

Initially described as slow-growing oligotrophs (16) with limited metabolic dynamics, adapted to nutrient-depleted environments, modern insights now reveal their versatility and critical involvement in biogeochemical processes, including sulphur (17) and nitrogen (18) cycling as well as H2 consumption (19). Furthermore, they can degrade plant-derived polysaccharides using their rich repertoire of carbohydrate-active enzymes, such as cellulases, chitinases, and xylanases (20). Finally, early studies dating back to 2006 proposed a substantial potential for secondary metabolite production by biosynthetic gene clusters, identifying novel Polyketide synthase gene clusters of acidobacterial origin from soil (21, 22). Subsequent genomic (23) and metagenomic research confirmed this finding, identifying biosynthetic-gene-cluster (BGC)-enriched lineages such as the *Acanthopleuribacteraceae* (24) and the genus *Candidatus Angelobacter* (22). Yet, translating bioinformatic findings into experimental validation remains difficult and still requires the availability of culturable representatives. Notably, Leopold-Messer *et al.* (2023) successfully retrieved marine sponge symbiont strains from the *Acanthopleuribacteraceae* family, marking the first description of non-ribosomal peptide (NRP)-polyketide (PK)-derived secondary metabolites from this phylum (24).

To overcome these gaps, different cultivation approaches have been developed to selectively favour acidobacterial growth and to retrieve single-isolate strains from complex environmental samples (3, 25–27). These approaches have significantly increased the number of isolated strains, however, still only representing a fragment of the predicted phylum diversity. Most of the strain isolates are retrieved from soil (23), where Acidobacteriota have consistently shown high abundances, ranging from 20-40% of detected 16S rRNA(28, 29) sequences. Cultivation strategies often utilise plant polymers for Acidobacteriota enrichment (25, 26, 30), providing insight into their predicted function in enhancing soil health by degrading undigestible plant polymers/improving nutrient content in the soil. Consequently, several studies investigate the potential plant growth promoting (PGP) effects of the phylum. In 2016, the first evidence of a direct plant-interaction was described by Kielak *et al*. (31). They found that some acidobacterial strains produced IAA and also demonstrated a plant-growth-promoting effect on the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* (31). Moreover, Acidobacteriota are recognised for synthesising hopanoids (32), bacterial analogues of sterols, known to enhance stress tolerance in soil bacteria as an integral component of the bacterial membrane. Their unique exopolysaccharide production (33, 34) further suggests potential ability to endure dry conditions and possible roles in sustaining plant health by e.g., protecting against desiccation. Complementary metagenomic and meta-transcriptomic studies have revealed a significant enrichment of genes related to PGP (plant growth promotion). Gonçalves *et al.* (2024) profiled 758 soil-associated metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) and identified plant-growth-promoting-traits (PGPTs) involved in phytohormone production, nitrogen fixation, phosphorus solubilisation, siderophore production, and exopolysaccharide biosynthesis (20). These traits were explicitly enriched in certain families of the Acidobacteriota, namely *Acidobacteriaceae*, *Pyrinomonadaceae*, and *Koribacteriaceae*. Meta-transcriptomic evidence shows that these traits are actively transcribed in their respective environmental context (20). Furthermore, transcriptomic research has demonstrated the metabolic dynamics and responsiveness to external stimuli of cultured Acidobacteriota strains. For instance, *Acidobacterium capsulatum* responds to oxygen deprivation by switching to a respiro-fermentative

state, resulting in the production of acetate and ethanol, a strategy that allows survival in habitats
with fluctuating O2 levels, such as soil (35). The oligotrophic lifestyle typical of the Acidobacteriota has
been investigated in a *Granulicella* species, which responds to high-carbon availability by upregulating
stress-related genes, indicating sensitivity to nutritional changes (36). While many ecological functions
are inferred from meta(transcriptomics) data, experimentally generated metabolomic data remain
limited, primarily focusing on the characterisation of membrane lipids and their production in
response to different cultivation parameters such as temperature, pH, and O2 (37, 38).

To address these gaps, we integrated metabolomic profiling with comparative genomic analysis to
investigate the functional potential of novel strains of the *Acidobacteriaceae* family. Phylum-wide
genome mining for PGPTs revealed the presence and taxon-specific enrichment of genes associated
with phytohormone production, as well as additional genes related to plant-growth-promoting
effects. The addition of tryptophan (Trp) to the cultivation medium elicited a strong metabolic
response in the strains, resulting in quantitatively determined shifts in the production levels of the
phytohormones indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) and indole-3-pyruvate (iP). Prompted by these findings, we
evaluated the metabolic reprogramming induced by trp supplementation, revealing suppressive
effects on the growth of phytopathogenic fungi, and subsequently identified pityriacitrins and
malassezindoles as the causative agents. Collectively, these findings highlight the previously
unexplored metabolic space of the Acidobacteriota phylum, underscoring its ecological significance
for phytosanitary purposes.

Results

Result 1 - Diverse Cultivation Strategies Reveal the Production of Phytohormones

Extensive metagenomic data from globally distributed bioresources indicate an underexplored
biosynthetic and ecological potential of the Acidobacteriota phylum. During our ongoing efforts in
isolating and bioprospecting the bacterial diversity for their potential in the production of natural
products and/or related environmental services, we retrieved three Acidobacteriota strains from
termite nest material (25) and one strain from a German soil sample (39). To evaluate their
biosynthetic potential, we isolated their total DNA together with that of the type strain *A. borealis*
DSM 23886 and performed whole-genome sequencing. The generated genomic data underwent
quality check using CheckM2 (40). By applying recognised quality criteria (completion >90% and
contamination <5%, (41)) one assembly (FHG110206) was disqualified for further analysis, while the
other assemblies were used for genome-based taxonomic affiliation by the genome taxonomy
database (GTDB) (42) (Supplementary Table 1). This positioned the termite nest-associated strains as
members of the genera *Acidobacterium* (FHG110202) and *Terracidiphilus* (FHG110214), while the soil-
associated strain FHG110511 was identified to be an *Edaphobacter*. All three strains belong to the
family of *Acidobacteriaceae* (collectively referred to as FHG *Acidobacteriaceae* in this manuscript).
Thus, we selected further available strains of this family (*Edaphobacter aggregans* DSM 19364*,
Acidobacterium sp.* S8*, Silvibacterium bohemicum* S15*, Acidicapsa borealis* DSM 23886*, Granulicella
rosea* DSM 18704, and *Bryocella elongata* DSM 22489)(Table S1) and performed an extensive OSMAC
(one-strain-many-compounds) approach (43), conceptualised to increase the likelihood of covering a
favourable condition for the strains to proliferate and promote gene expression. To this end, we
modified the carbon sources, vessel size, and shaking speed, and applied solidification and surface
texture methods using quartz or ceramic beads, potentially enabling the surface attachment of the
cells. Cultivations were performed on 100 ml scale using Erlenmeyer flasks or at 4 ml scale using Duetz
system plates (Table S2). Samples were taken on days 5, 7, 10, 12, and 14 of the respective cultivations.
The generated samples were dried by lyophilisation and extracted with methanol, resulting in a total
of 892 organic extracts. An aliquot of each extract was reconstituted in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and

used to determine the antimicrobial bioactivity by screening against the bacterial indicator strains *Escherichia coli* ATCC 35218, *Bacillus subtilis* DSM 10, and *Mycobacterium smegmatis* ATCC 607, as well as the fungus *Candida albicans* FH2173. This, however, did not reveal any reproducible antimicrobial effect enabling traceability of a causative agent (data not shown). Furthermore, we conducted a bioactivity-independent and metabolomics-driven bioprospecting campaign. Initially, we focused on the metabolic profiling of strains FHG110202 and FHG110206 and assessed the metabolic composition of their generated extracts (n = 244, including media controls) analytically by performing ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography coupled to high-resolution mass spectrometry (UHPLC-QTOF-HR-MS). Molecular features (*m/z*, retention time) were detected and aligned into buckets. Combining timepoints for each strain-media combination and presence-absence analysis led to 72 conditions (including media controls) with 20285 features present and distributed into 2747 buckets (Figure S1).

To assess the effect of the medium on the metabolome of the strains, we filtered medium-derived features from the table (n=1795). Pairwise Jaccard distances between samples were ordinated by principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) for strains FHG110206 and FHG110202 (Figure 1A). Metabolomic profiles clustered mainly by medium (colour code) and vessel size (top, left cluster) rather than by strain. We also observe a distinct cluster for medium containing quartz beads (bottom, right cluster). A PERMANOVA analysis confirmed this observation, suggesting a strong OSMAC response. The medium identity accounts for 87% of the variance among strain extracts (F=7.09, p=0.001), while the strain identity within the same medium explains a much smaller share (1.7%, F=0.77, p=0.001). Within the small-scale set, the bead condition explained 29.2% of the differences (F = 7.64, p = 0.001), consistent with the observed quartz-bead cluster. Thus, metabolomes are primarily influenced by the medium and vessel size, with only a small strain-level difference. We also plotted unique features of strain-produced metabolites for individual media conditions (Figure 1B), and found that in both strains (FHG110202:FHG110206), media F (87:125), U (65:64), W (86:86), and X (197:116) are enriched in unique features compared to the average unique feature number across all media (22.2:20.7). This indicates that the large-scale cultivation size in 300 ml Erlenmeyer flasks yields a more distinct metabolome compare to the small-scale cultivation in 24-well plates.

Figure 1 OSMAC metabolome variation by medium, strain, and cultivation scale. The legend details the media compositions (A-X), based on base-media colour, concentration, additives, and bead status. Samples labelled A-T were cultivated in 24-well plates (small-scale), while U-X were grown in 300 ml Erlenmeyer flasks. If not stated otherwise, additives were supplied in concentrations of GlcNAc, N-acetyl-glucosamine (0.05%); Cel, cellobiose (0.5%); Xyl, xylan (0.5%); Phy, phytagel (0.8%); Suc, sucrose (0.5%). **(A) PCoA of control-filtered LC/MS presence/absence fingerprints using Jaccard distance**. Samples are labelled by the medium letter (A-X) and coloured by base-medium (see legend). Samples from FHG110202 are marked with circles, and FHG110206 with crosses. Light grey ellipses highlight visually distinct clusters, and icons indicate their common features: large-scale flask cultivation (flask), small-scale 24-well cultivation (24-well plate), and quartz beads containing samples (circles). **(B) Number of unique features per medium (A-X) and strain as clustered bars**. Strains are indicated by colour: FHG110202 (light purple), FHG110206 (yellow). Unique features are defined as not being present in any medium control and only present in the respective medium, but not in any other medium.

The detected metabolite features were matched against our in-house reference compound MS database, which contained approximately 1300 structurally characterised microbial metabolites at the time of data processing. By comparison of mass to charge ratios and retention time, we were able to annotate the phytohormone IAA in the extracts of our FHG *Acidobacteriaceae* strains with a confidence level 1 (Identified metabolite: as proposed by the Chemical Analysis Working Group of the Metabolomics Standards Initiative (44). The production of the phytohormone IAA has been reported for members of the *Acidobacteriaceae* (31). To systematically describe the cultivation conditions that favour IAA production, we visualised the peak area of IAA in FHG110202 as an example across all tested media and setups (Figure S2). While IAA was not produced under conditions leading to the isolation of the strains (VL-55 base media), it became detectable in more complex media. Among these, R2A-based cultivation, with agitation, consistently showed the best IAA production. To further analyse the phytohormone production of FHG110202, we included additional standards: Kinetin (CAS 525-79-1), Trans-zeatin (CAS 1637-39-4), Indole-3 Butyric Acid (CAS 133-32-4), Brassinolide (CAS 72962-43-7), jasmonic acid methyl ester (CAS 39924-52-2), jasmonic acid (CAS 77026-92-7), abscisic acid (CAS 21293-29-8), indole-3-propionic acid (CAS 830-96-6), 1,2-Diphenylurea (CAS 102-07-8) and *N6-(Δ2*-Isopentenyl)adenine (iP)(CAS 2365-40-4) in our *in-house* reference database and explicitly

189 checked for their presence in the generated crude extracts. This revealed the presence of the cytokinin
190 iP at confidence level 1. The detection of cytokinin iP as a biosynthetic product of members of the
191 Acidobacteriota phylum is a new finding.

Result 2 – Biosynthetic Potential of the Acidobacteriota phylum

To complement the metabolomic workflow, we comparatively evaluated the genomic potential of our
FHG *Acidobacteriaceae* by their positioning with that of the broader Acidobacteriota landscape.
Therefore, we initially searched for publicly available genomes matching the criteria Query:
"Acidobacteriota" NOT "anomalous" in the NCBI database. This yielded 1428 genomes that underwent
quality control using CheckM2 (40) (Figure S3), applying the above-defined quality criteria. This led to
a final dataset consisting of 618 genome assemblies. Overall, most of the analysed genomes were
retrieved from metagenomes (n = 533; 86%) (Supplemental Table 1). A detailed bioinformatic analysis
of this dataset is reported in the supplementary section. The taxonomic affiliation was established by
GTDB (42) and the generated multiple-sequence alignment generated was used to build a
phylogenetic tree. The bioinformatically predicted features of each single strains were assigned and
visualized within the tree using iTOL (45). The genomes in the dataset span 12 classes (Figure 2),
dominated by the *Acidobacteriae* (n = 242), *Blastocatellia* (n = 130) and *Vicinamibacteria* (n = 98), also
representing the majority of today's strains brought to culture (76/86-88%). To evaluate the
biosynthetic potential of the Acidobacteriota phylum, we predicted BGCs using the standalone version
of antiSMASH (46). In total, 3865 BGCs were detected in the genome dataset. The most abundant BGC
class in the dataset is the ribosomally produced and post-translationally modified peptides (RiPPs)
(n=1152, 30%), followed by non-ribosomal peptide synthetases (NRPSs) (n=978, 26%) and terpenes
(n=777, 13%). The total average cluster number per class in our acidobacterial dataset is 6.2 ± 4.4
BGCs. The *Acidobacteriae* class shows the highest overall BGC number, with an average of 7.4 ± 3.7
BGCs per genome, followed by UBA6911 and Mor1 with 6.3 ± 2.5 and 5.8 ± 2.1 BGCs, respectively.
Dedicated analysis of the FHG *Acidobacteriaceae* revealed an average of 9 ± 3.46 BGCs, slightly higher
than for the overall phylum and the *Acidobacteriae* class value, but comparable to the overall family
value (7.9 ± 3.0). Again, the most represented group of BGCs is the RIPPs (Sum: 10), followed by the
terpenes (sum: 7) and the NRPS (sum: 4) BGCs. Notably, the *Holophagae* class, despite having an
average BGC number of 5.1, exhibits a high standard deviation of 10.5, indicating a high potential for
some of its representatives. This value can be accounted for by the *Acanthopleuribacteraceae*
(Z-score: 3.5), showing high BGC counts of >40, seven times higher than the average Acidobacteriota
genome. Intriguingly, the first acidobacterial NPs recently isolated also come from this family (24).

To complement the evaluation of the Acidobacteriota phylum, we performed sequence similarity
calculations on the total of 3865 BGCs in our dataset using BiG-SCAPE, including the MIBiG reference
BGCs and by applying a cutoff of 0.5. 1651 BGCs remained as singletons, contrasted by the largest GCF
that consists of 25 members, all from the *Acidobacteriae* class. Twenty-five GCFs are specific to one
respective taxonomic class (Figure 1B, Figure S8); most of these GCFs contain more than 10
representatives (16/25), indicating clear taxonomic conservation. This taxonomic conservation is
further illustrated by comparing the GCF composition of the different strains using cosine distance and
visualising this similarity as uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) (Figure S9). Here,
strains belonging to the same taxonomic classes cluster within the visualisation, indicating overall
conservation between phylogenetic groups. Though, sequence similarity calculations revealed that
the FHG *Acidobacteriaceae* do not share any of their clusters between them (Figure S8).

Further, alignments to with MiBiG Reference BGCs revealed a co-clustering of 11 acidobacterial BGCs in six GCFs (Figure 2), showing compositional BGC similarity to e.g. the myxochromide, the anabaenopeptin and the occidiofungin A-reference BGCs (see details in supplementary file). Intriguingly, the latter is a match to our strain FHG110511, harbouring a PKS/NRPS hybrid BGC that clusters in GCF1959 with the occidiofungin A reference BGC (MiBiG BGC0001711) at a pairwise identity of 70.4% (Figure S11). Occidiofungin A is a *Burkholderia contaminans* produced NP that exhibits broad antifungal activity and is in early clinical development (gel OCF001, phase1) for use against multidrug-resistant vaginal yeast (*Candida* spp.) infections (47, 48). The comparative evaluation of the NRPS and NRPS/PKS hybrid core gene architecture revealed a highly conserved module arrangement with certain discrepancies in predicted A-domain specificity. Testing of the strain's organic extracts against *C. albicans,* however revealed no antifungal activity.

Figure 1: BGC composition of the Acidobacteriota Phylum and BiG-SCAPE Network of acidobacterial BGCs clustering with MIBiG reference clusters. Multiple Sequence Alignments generated by GTDB were used to create a phylogenetic tree of 618 representatives of the Acidobacteriota. Twelve acidobacterial classes were identified by GTDB and are indicated by different colours (ring 1). FHG strains are colour-coded as follows: FHG110214 (green), A. borealis (purple), FhG110202 (yellow), and FhG110511 (orange). Ring two indicates the genome size of the individual representatives, ranging from black (larger genomes) to grey (smaller genomes). Bar charts indicate the total number of antiSMASH-detected BGCs, differentiated into different BGC types.

245 The occidiofungin-like BGC represents a singleton hit in respect to multimodular NRPS, PKS or hybrid
246 systems within the genomes of the FHG *Acidobacteriaceae*, indicating a generally underdeveloped
247 talent of our strains to produce structurally complex NPs and a possible reason for the lack of
248 antimicrobial activity observations during our initial bioprospecting campaign.

Result 3 – Tryptophan Supplementation Increases IAA but Decreases iP Production in Acidobacteriaceae without Enhancing Barley Seedling Biomass

During the metabolomic-based inspection of the OSMAC experiment, we identified the biosynthetic
potential of our FHG *Acidobacteriaceae* to produce the phytohormones IAA and iP. To further profile
the IAA and iP production of our FHG *Acidobacteriaceae* and the reference strain
A. borealis DSM 23886, we cultivated the strains in media with and without supplementation of
tryptophan (Trp), commonly known to increase IAA production in microorganisms (49). We performed
a kinetics study to analyse the influence of 0.2% Trp on the relative IAA and iP production over 14 days
following the methanolic extraction of the cultures. Overall, the amounts of IAA and iP increased over
time, reaching their highest levels on days 10 and 12 of growth (Figure 3 and S12). Indeed, the
supplementation of Trp significantly enhanced IAA production in all strains. In contrast,
supplementation of Trp consistently suppressed iP production in the analysed strains except for
FhG110202 and *A. borealis* DSM 23886, where this effect is less pronounced (Figure 3A). This initial
profiling revealed that strain FHG110214 was the most productive iP producer, while exhibiting
comparable productivity in IAA to *A. borealis* DSM 23886, FHG110202, and FHG110206. Based on this
production profile, we selected FHG110214 and *A. borealis* DSM 23886 to perform an absolute
phytohormone quantification. When supplemented with Trp, *A. borealis* DSM 23886 produced IAA to
a final concentration of 0.326 ± 0.063 µg/ml, whereas FHG110214 produced IAA at a concentration of
0.104 ± 0.021 µg/ml. Instead, without supplementation of Trp, the IAA titres dropped to
0.124 ± 0.029 µg/ml (3-fold) and 0.015 ± 0.003 µg/ml (7-fold) in *A. borealis* DSM 23886 and
FHG110214, respectively. This production profile is reversed for iP, where Trp supplementation
resulted in decreased production for both strains FHG110214 (With Trp: 0.0058 ±0.0012 µg/ml;
without Trp: 0.0143 ± 0.0024 µg/ml) and *A. borealis* DSM 23886 (With Trp: 0.005 ±0.0004 µg/ml;
Without Trp: 0.0108 ± 0.0008 µg/ml). These production titres are in a comparable range to quantities
previously reported for plant-growth-promoting bacteria (PGPB) (50, 51) and, e.g. 10-fold lower
compared to those reported for e.g., *Pseudomonas*, *Streptomyces*, and *Enterobacter* species, which
have been shown to produce 10–150 µg/ml under optimised conditions. The production of the
cytokinin iP has not been described so far for the Acidobacteriota phylum. We quantified its
production to 0.003 µg/ml in the most productive strain of our study. This is in alignment with the
literature which reports, for example, 17.5 pmol/mL (translating to 0.00356 µg/ml) in
Achromobacter xylosoxidans (52) and lower concentrations such as 0.0003 µg/ml (1.5 nM) in
Paenibacillus polymyxa (53).

Figure 2: Relative quantification of IAA and iP in FHG *Acidobacteriaceae* and *A. borealis* DSM 23886 as normalised peak area (A) and absolute quantification of these phytohormones in the top producers FHG110214 (iP) and *A. borealis* DSM 23886 (IAA)(B). A Raw peak areas were normalised against the largest peak area within one biological kinetic study for IAA and iP separately. Mean values were calculated and plotted as a heatmap to indicate temporal and dynamic induction patterns between strains and supplementation status. Trp supplementation results in higher IAA production but generally has a negative impact on iP production. This effect is less pronounced in FHG110202 and *A. borealis* DSM 23886. **B** Absolute concentrations were derived from a calibration curve of IAA and iP, correlating peak area with given concentrations. Cultivations were repeated in triplicate, and the average of the calculated concentrations is shown for *A. borealis* DSM 23886 (green) and FHG110214 (purple).

Previously, it has been shown that culture broths of IAA-producing *Acidobacteriaceae* promoted root
and shoot growth in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (20, 31) and growth and chlorophyll content in duckweed
(54). Furthermore, cytokines have also been shown to have a beneficial impact on plant growth and
defence response against pathogens and pests (55). To evaluate the plant growth-promoting potential
of our extracts, we applied them in concentrations matching the culture concentration on barley
seedlings. Additionally, we included a media extract control, as well as IAA and iP at defined
concentrations, for testing. Briefly, extracts were spotted into glass vials containing 5 ml SH-medium,
and the solvent was evaporated before one barley seed was added per vial. After an initial phase of
darkness for germination, a day/night cycle incubation was performed for 6 days (Figure S13).
Afterwards, the plants were extracted from the medium, cleaned, and separated into root and shoot
before being lyophilised for dry biomass determination (Figure 4A and B). All samples showed a
consistently higher biomass if the sample contained Trp. The pure compound controls showed growth
comparable to that of the medium with IAA at a concentration of 0.442 µM, resulting in a biomass of
11 mg (similar to the medium control containing 0.2% Trp). Compared to the controls, extracts from
FHG110214 and *A. borealis* DSM 23886 decreased plant biomass in the shoots (Figure 4A) and roots
(Figure 4B) with and without added Trp. However, the addition of Trp to the cultivations decreased
the adverse growth effect of the extract itself. Overall, the crude extracts of *A. borealis* and
FHG110214 did not significantly promote plant growth of barley seeds in the experimental setup
tested. It has been demonstrated that IAA can promote plant growth when bacterial colonies are in
direct contact with roots (31). Our experimental setup in contrast, was executed with cell-free organic
extracts in order to have a controlled sample. This, however, may not replicate localised, high-

concentration phytohormone effects occurring in natural rhizosphere environments. Furthermore,
applying cells or cell-free supernatants may provide further traits, such as enzymes with a beneficial
effect on plant growth, not covered by organic extracts. In future studies, live bacterial cultures or co-
cultivation systems with plants would provide more ecologically relevant data, albeit with increased
challenges associated with cultivation.

Interestingly, our findings, along with studies by Kielak *et al.* (31) and Gonçalves *et al.* (20), suggest
that phytohormone production is common among Acidobacteriota, particularly among strains
isolated from decaying wood or lignocellulosic substrates. This raises intriguing questions about the
ecological roles of Acidobacteriota strains producing compounds like IAA and iP in natural systems
(56).

Figure 3: Dry Biomass of barley shoots (A) and roots (B) treated with extracts of strains *A. borealis* DSM 23886 (purple), FHG110214 (green). Striped bars indicate extracts from Trp-supplemented cultivations, while solid bars indicate that extracts were not supplemented with Trp. Media controls (brown), as well as IAA and iP as pure compounds(grey), were also tested. The table indicates the final concentrations of phytohormone applied to the barley seedlings. In general, supplementation with Trp results in increased biomass, especially in the shoots. While pure compound controls show comparable growth to the media control, the strain extracts inhibit plant growth. This negative effect is diminished upon supplementation with Trp, especially in the shoots.

Result 4 – In-Depth Bioinformatic Analysis of PGP Traits in Acidobacteriota and FHG *Acidobacteriaceae*

Taken together, these results confirm that *Acidobacteriaceae* produce phytohormones in relevant amounts, but their role in PGP remains unresolved. Because iP can arise from the degradation of prenylated tRNAs in many bacteria (57), we asked whether *Acidobacteriaceae* also encode dedicated cytokinin pathways (involving lonely guy (LOG) enzymes) and whether these co-occur with additional PGPTs. Furthermore, we were interested in the biosynthetic mechanisms responsible for the production of phytohormones. For batch analysis of the 618 genomes previously analysed, we employed a DIAMOND workflow against the PLABASE database (see materials and methods) and summarised hits as coverage (% of PGPT families detected). For the analysis of taxonomic patterns, we aggregated the results by GTDB-Tk family status, only considering acidobacterial families that have been scientifically described or have more than 20 representative genomes available (n = 391, 64.2% of the total dataset). Figure 5 represents the percentage coverage of PGPTs at level two, values were hierarchically clustered to visualise similarity between different families and PGPTs. The analysis separated the families into two distinct clusters.

Figure 4: PGPT coverage across Acidobacteriota families. The heatmap displays the mean % coverage of PLABASE PGPT categories (level 2) for families with formal names or >20 genomes (n= 16). Coverage values were calculated as the proportion of detected PGPT families per functional category, relative to the total number of families defined in the PLABASE ontology. Rows and columns are hierarchically clustered. Two distinct groups emerge, indicating lower (L, bottom) and higher (H, top) PGPT coverage. The latter exhibits higher potential, particularly in the production of phytohormones and plant signals.

The nine families in the lower-coverage cluster (L) (UBA2999, UBA7541, *Aminicenantaceae*,
Saccharicenantaceae, *Thermotomaculaceae*, *Holophagaceae*, *Thermoanaerobaculaceae*,
Pyrinomonadaceae) show a comparatively low average PGPT potential (12.7±1.2%) with uniformly
modest values across categories such as biofertilisation: 14.3 ± 1.4%; colonising plant system: 13.7 ±
1.4%; stress-control-biocontrol: 11.6 ± 1.0% and especially low bioremediation: 7.2 ± 0.9%. In contrast
families in the higher-coverage cluster H (*Koribacteraceae*, SbA1, *Acidobacteriaceae*,
Bryobacteraceae, *Vicinamibacteraceae*, *Chloracidobacteriaceae*, *Acanthopleuribacteraceae*) showed
consistently higher coverage with representative means of 26.1 ± 2.6% for plant signal production,
18.8 ± 2.4% for colonising plant system and 13.7 ± 1.7% competitive exclusion (overall range ~17–26%
across categories. Across both clusters, the bioremediation category is underrepresented, while the
phytohormone and plant signalling group ranks top among both clusters. Overall, the families of
Bryobacteriaceae, *Acidobacteriaceae*, and *Vicinamibacteriaceae* exhibit the highest levels of PGPTs.
notably, the *Acidobacteriaceae* perform best in the colonising plant system group (e.g., covering EPS
production) and the phytohormone/plant signal production category.

We analysed DIAMOND outputs for enzymatic equipment supporting IAA production in our FHG
Acidobacteriaceae strains. In bacteria, three pathways are described: indole-3-pyruvic acid (IPyA),
indole-3-acetamide (IAM) and tryptamine (TAM). In the IPyA route, Trp is transaminated to indole-3-
pyruvate, decarboxylated to indole-3-acetaldehyde, and oxidised to IAA; the IAM pathway converts
Trp to indole-3-acetamide, then hydrolyses it to IAA; the TAM pathway decarboxylates Trp to
tryptamine, which is subsequently oxidised via intermediates such as indole-3-acetaldehyde to IAA.
All FHG *Acidobacteriaceae* include the key enzymes to synthesise Trp (trpA-E) and terminal enzymes
for IAA production, such as an *amiE* homolog for the hydrolysis of indole-3-acetamide, and two
aldehyde-dehydrogenases that may catalyse the final step of IAA production in both the TAM and the
IPyA pathways. However, the automatic setup did not detect intermediate enzymes. Metabolomics
using reference standards identified indole-pyruvic acid (CAS: 392-12-1) upon Trp supplementation,
whereas tryptamine (CAS: 61-54-1) was not detected in FHG110202, FHG110214 and *A. borealis*
DSM23886. FHG110511 showed neither intermediate. These observations support IPyA as the
predominant route over TAM, while IAM remains a possible but unconfirmed option.

The production of iP is mediated by two distinct pathways; the t-RNA isopentenyltransferase (IPT)
pathway involves the isoprenylation of tRNAs by t-RNA IPTs (*miaA*) and the context-dependent
generation of iP through the degradation of these tRNAs (58, 59). The pathway is found ubiquitously
in bacteria. Instead, the second pathway is less common and is directly associated with regulated
cytokinin output in bacteria, which usually interact with plants. Here, the adenylate IPT modifies
adenosine nucleotides using dimethylallyldiphosphate (60), thereby producing iP-like nucleotides
further activated by lonely guy (LOG) enzymes (61, 62). Our genomic survey revealed that FHG110511,
as well as FHG110214 and *A. borealis* DSM 23886, contain the tRNA-IPT (*miaA*) and accessory genes,
while FHG110202 additionally contains a LOG (lonely guy) enzyme. Instead, the adenylate IPT, could
not be detected in any of the FHG *Acidobacteriaceae*. As indicated by the literature, the *miaA* gene is
omnipresent in our acidobacterial dataset, while the LOG enzymes are less present (477/618) but still
highly abundant in various acidobacterial classes. Notably, the trp-responsive iP production aligned
with our pathway content. In the strains harbouring the tRNA IDT pathway alone, we determined a
reduced iP production upon Trp supplementation. This might be explained by an overall decrease in
tRNA turnover due to the high availability of Trp, resulting in a subsequent reduction in global
translation and, consequently, lower cytokine release through tRNA degradation mechanisms.
Instead, FHG110202, the only inspected strain that harbours a LOG enzyme, does not show a Trp-
dependent decrease in iP production, thus possibly less prone to global protein biosynthesis and tRNA
turnover rates.

We also specifically looked for the presence of vital PGPT factors that could be tested in wet lab experiments. This included plate assays indicating phosphate solubilisation, nitrogen fixation and ACC-deaminase activity. The enzyme ACC deaminase (AcdS) breaks down 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid into ethylene, thereby playing a vital role in the plant defence mechanism. We did not detect *acdS* homologs in our FHG *Acidobacteriaceae* strains. Consistently, we could not detect any growth on 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid-containing plates (data not shown). The enzyme AcdS, correlated to PGPT family number 7345, was also searched for in the entire dataset, but was not detected in any strain. The ability to solubilise phosphate from phytate was evaluated on medium containing phytate (data not shown). However, even though we did not detect any growth on agar plates, we identified genes related to phosphate solubilisation through genome mining. *A. borealis* DSM 23886(1.02e-119), FHG110214 (4.91e-107), and FHG110511 (1.57e-148) contained homologs of *appA* (PGPT2560), a phytase known to release Pi from organic phosphorus via a phytase or nucleotidase reaction. We also searched for phytase homologs belonging to PGPT families 2560, 2580, and 2585 in the acidobacterial dataset. Phytases were present in 117 genomes, but only in the classes of *Acidobacteriae* and *Blastocatellia*. The ability to fix nitrogen has been described for the Acidobacteriota before. In the year 2024, Gonçalves *et al.* (20)described the presence of nif clusters in members of the *Holophagaceae* and *Acidobacteriaceae* families. In our genome analysis, we confirmed that members of the *Holophagaceae (Holophagaceae bacterium isolate CTSoil_007)* and *Acidobacteriaceae* (Acidobacteria bacterium isolate SZAS TMP-7) contained nitrogenase clusters encompassing all required nif genes A-F (PGPT families PGPT1-30). Besides the *Holophagaceae*, *nif* genes were also detected in *Bryobacteraceae* TMP-7, but not in any of the FHG *Acidobacteriaceae*.

Compared to the large-scale metagenomic analysis of Gonçalves *et al.*, our PGPT analysis shows both shared and divergent trends across the acidobacterial families. Some families, such as *Acidobacteriaceae*, *Thermoanaerobaculum*, *Aminicenantesaceae*, *Holophagaceae*, and *Koribacteraceae,* are grouped similarly in terms of their overall equipment, either uniformly high or low; other families show significant discrepancies. Specifically, our results diverge for the families *Bryobacteriaceae, Vicinamibacteraceae, Pyrinomonadaceae, and Chloracidobacteriaceae,* where the PGP potential differs substantially. These differences likely arise from the limited overlap in representative genomes between the two datasets. Overall, 9.2% of our dataset is also covered by the Goncalves dataset. Additionally, our analysis includes seven additional Acidobacteriota families. Notably, the dataset coverage is particularly low for most families with detected discrepancies, including *Bryobacteriaceae* (1/74), *Vicinamibacteraceae* (2/6), and *Pyrinomonadaceae* (2/87). The overlap of the *Chloracidobacteriaceae* (10/14) is relatively high; however, in addition to the dataset composition, methodological differences likely also contribute to the differences. Gonçalves *et al*. focused on 91 curated PGPTs, whereas our genome mining approach utilised the complete PLABASE database, encompassing over 1,300 plant growth-promoting gene families. This broader functional scope may capture additional trait diversity and help explain the differential PGPT evaluation and distribution observed across families.

The PGPT profiles of the FHG *Acidobacteriaceae* are consistent with both our broader family-level analysis (Figure 5) and the patterns reported in the large-scale metagenomic study by Goncalves *et al*. (2024). In all cases, *Acidobacteriaceae* show a high frequency of PGPTs, indicating a conserved functional repertoire within this lineage. Notably, Gonçalves *et al*. also identified a similar PGPT pattern in this family, including genes associated with phytohormone biosynthesis and phytase activity. These congruent findings suggest that *Acidobacteriaceae* may play a robust and stable role in plant–microbe interactions across diverse environments.

Result 5 – Effects of Tryptophan on Metabolite Production and Phytopathogen Inhibition

Trp is abundant in the root exudates of many plants, and it is described to be used by bacteria to synthesise auxins (63). Indeed, the synthesis of phytohormones by rhizosphere bacteria often depends on the presence of Trp precursors in the root exudates (64). Thus, this metabolic shift might reflect an environmental response of the strains towards the Trp-enriched plant environment (Citation). To investigate whether supplementation with Trp induces a global metabolic shift or stimulates the production of phytohormones, and to potentially describe the regulated metabolites, we performed time-resolved untargeted metabolomics analysis. Extracts cultivated with and without Trp were analysed with ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography–quadrupole time-of-flight high-resolution mass spectrometry (UHPLC-QTOF-HRMS), and the calculated feature table was filtered to remove features identified as noise. Subsequent principal component analysis (PCA) of log2-transformed feature intensities (Figure S14), revealed that the samples did not show a strict separation by strain or cultivation day, but were separated by supplementation status, indicating a broad metabolomic shift associated with Trp supplementation. Furthermore, we observed temporal metabolic shifts that were more distinct for *A. borealis* DSM 23886, especially if supplemented with Trp.

To further investigate Trp-dependent metabolomic responses, we filtered and categorised features based on their presence-absence and fold-change behaviour in response to Trp supplementation (see materials and methods). Briefly, features were retained if they were present in both bucketing calculations. Following filtering, feature intensities were compared between the uninduced and induced conditions to derive fold changes. Based on those, we assigned biological categories from "extinguished" to "switched-on". Individual features were then plotted and coloured to indicate their biological response (Figure S15). The Barcoding plot confirmed the metabolic shift in response to Trp supplementation. We observed differences in media consumption (left side) and changes in features that were clearly strain-dependent. Overall, there is a clear change in the metabolism indicated by the number of features that change upon Trp supplementation. For *A. borealis* DSM 23886, 165 features are detected on day 14 without Trp, while 684 features (4.1x) are present if Trp is supplemented. The same trend is observed in FHG110214. Here, the feature number increases from 109 (without Trp supplementation) to 337 (3.1x) (with Trp supplementation). We independently verified this result in a second cultivation (Figure S14, bottom half). Here, a similar fold change is observed. While the feature number increases 3.2-fold in *A. borealis* DSM 23886, it behaves similar in FHG110214 (2.8x). Those numbers already indicate a strong metabolic activation. This is supported by the fact that, considering all features present under both conditions, 80% of the features are at least lightly upregulated, while 19% are downregulated, and only 1% remain stable.

To further investigate Trp-dependent metabolomic responses considering media and strain-specific features, we classified Trp-activated uptake as referring to features initially present in the medium that were consumed only in Trp-induced cultures. In contrast, Trp-inhibited uptake describes the opposite: features consumed only in uninduced cultures. The rest of the classifications remained the same. Features that were stable in the medium and did not change in intensity were removed from the analysis. Figure 6 (top bar chart) displays the percentage distribution of features across these categories. The "switched on" class accounts for the largest fraction in both strains (*A. borealis* DSM 23886: 56.8%; FHG110214: 45.1%). Approximately 10.4 and 16.9% of features exhibit an "increased production" profile, while around 7.5 and 6.3%, respectively, are "switched off." Small proportions (below 10%) represent different metabolisation patterns of media components under induced and uninduced conditions.

Given the pronounced metabolic changes observed in Trp-induced extracts, we were encouraged to
re-enter our initial bioactivity discovery approach, now particularly testing the generated extracts
from FHG110214 and *A. borealis* DSM 23886 for activity against the phytopathogenic fungus
Septoria tritici MUCL45407, a residue-borne wheat pathogen causing *Septoria tritici* blotch (STB), one
of the most significant diseases of wheat (65). By testing our extracts in a microbroth dilution assay,
we indeed determined a strong growth-inhibitory effect, and exclusively in the samples that
underwent Trp supplementation. For the identification of activity-causing compounds, one
representative active extract of FHG110214 and *A. borealis* DSM23886 was microfractionated and re-
screened against *S. tritici* MUCL45407. Based on the molecular formula and the observed MS/MS
fragmentation pattern, several Trp-related compounds were dereplicated within the active fractions
of both strains with a confidence level 2 (putatively annotated metabolites (44). This enabled the
annotation of hydroxyglycantrypine (Zitat) as well as malassezindoles A, B (66) and putative yet
undescribed derivatives thereof (m/z: 148.1349, 376.1293, 360.1348, 362.1498). Notably,
malassezindoles production is known to be strongly dependent on Trp as their sole nitrogen source in
their fungal production strains (67). This observation aligns well with our cultivation conditions and
experimental setup. However, since the malassezindoles have not been described for bacteria yet, we
have expanded our quality control to include regular agar plating, both concurrently with sampling
and at the beginning and end of cultivation. Additionally, we continued to perform 16S/18S
sequencing from liquid culture samples. Agar plates were incubated for at least 14 days, documented,
and routinely inspected using a binocular microscope. Besides malassezindoles, we annotated the β-
carbolines acetyl-beta-carboline, pityriacitrin B (66, 68, 69) and a methylated derivative thereof.
Pityriacitrins are produced by fungi and bacteria (70) and recognised for their UV-protective properties
(71). Furthermore, the β-carbolines scaffold has been recently reviewed in the context of antifungal
activity (72). Indeed, pityriacitrin A, B and its methyl-ester have been described to inhibit fungal
growth (70, 73). Furthermore, pityriacitrin B was shown to have protective activity against fungal
colonisation of plant hosts (70). In bacterial systems, beta-carboline cores, such as those found in
pityriacitrin, are formed via Pictet-Spenglerase enzymes (74–76). Instead, biosynthesis of the Trp-
dependent metabolites, closely related to the malassezindoles, has been described for *Ustilago*
maydis, where a single enzymatic reaction, catalysed by the enzyme Tam1, is essential for their
formation, converting Trp to indolepyruvate (77). Although the biosynthetic pathways for these
compounds have not been elucidated in bacteria, a similar mechanism can be inferred. However, a
BLAST search for analogous proteins within our acidobacterial genome dataset did not yield any
significant hits. An additional signal observed in the active fraction, co-eluting with malassezindoles
under the applied chromatographic conditions, suggested the presence of a peptide, with an m/z
value of 519.1655 [M+H]+ corresponding to the molecular formula $C_{30}H_{22}N_4O_5$.

We focused our isolation efforts on compounds previously reported to exhibit antifungal properties.
Preparative and semi-preparative isolation methods were employed on the fractions containing
malassezindoles and their derivatives. Two compounds were purified, and their structures were
elucidated by NMR analysis in DMSO-d_6, employing ^{1}H, ^{13}C, COSY, HSQC, HMBC, TOCSY, ROESY and
NOESY measurements (Table S3-4). Compound **1** ($C_{21}H_{13}N_3O_3$) was identified as pityriacitrin B, while
compound **2** ($C_{22}H_{15}N_3O_3$) was determined to be its methyl ester. The spectroscopic data for both
compounds were consistent with literature reports (69, 78). Detailed ^{1}H and ^{13}C NMR data as well as
key COSY, ROESY and HMBC correlations are summarized in the Supporting Information (Tables S2–
S3).

To examine the features previously identified to be bioactive, we mapped them onto our categorised
feature dataset. This allowed us to assess which metabolic response classes these metabolites belong

to. Additionally, we explored other Trp-dependent masses by molecular networking, aiming to identify
novel or derivative compounds using database annotations.

Figure 5: Overall metabolic response of cultivation with Trp in strains FHG110214 and *A. borealis* DSM 23886
(A). Molecular network of masses active against *S. tritici* MUCL 45407 as detected by µFrac-coupled screening
of *A. borealis* DSM 23886 extracts (B). (A) After feature detection, the relative presence of masses with and
without Trp was compared for categorisation. Categories were defined as follows: "switched-off" (dark-blue,
no feature detected upon Trp supplementation) and "switched-on" (dark-red, Feature only present upon Trp
supplementation). Media components that were metabolised differently upon Trp supplementation are shown
in yellow. (B)Molecular Networking of MS/MS data generated from a Trp-induced *A. borealis* DSM 23886 culture,
limited to clusters containing masses that showed antifungal activity against *S. tritici* MUCL 45407. Active
masses were all specifically "switched on" when supplemented with Trp. While some of them remained unknown
(e.g. 519.167m/z peptide), others were dereplicated by comparison with database standards (malassezindole
A,B) or isolated and structure elucidated(pityriacitrin B and pityriacitrin B methyl ester).

The observed changes in activity profiles and the Trp-dependent modulation of extracts underscore
the impact of Trp supplementation on the production of specific, bioactivity-causing compounds.
Having already linked several of these induced features to bioactivity through microfractionation, we
next turned to molecular networking to explore their structural context within the overall
metabolome. This approach enabled us to visualise whether the bioactive compounds belong to larger
molecular families, identify structurally related analogues, and determine whether induction leads to
the coordinated activation of specific metabolic clusters. By integrating activity data with MS/MS-
based network topology, we aimed to prioritise entire subnetworks of interest and assess how broadly
Trp supplementation influences distinct chemical families across strains.

Acidobacteriota often dominate soil bacterial communities, particularly in acidic and oligotrophic
environments, yet their functional roles remain underexplored. Our findings contribute to growing

evidence that members of this phylum possess underestimated biosynthetic and ecological potential,
including the ability to produce phytohormones and possibly bioactive metabolites with the potential
to antagonise fungal growth.

Beyond our cultivated FHG *Acidobacteriaceae*, genome-mining of 618 high-quality Acidobacteriota
genomes offers a complementary perspective to the large-scale MAG-based analysis by
Gonçalves *et al.* (2024), which analysed 758 MAGs. Both studies identify *Acidobacteriaceae*,
Bryobacteriaceae, and *Koribacteraceae* as families with enriched PGPT potential, while families such
as *Holophagaceae* and *Vicinamibacteraceae* appear comparatively under-equipped. However,
notable discrepancies emerged, likely reflecting differences in the underlying datasets and the
methodological approach.

Despite the current technical limitations, exploring Acidobacteriota as sources of novel bioactive
compounds or as contributors to plant–soil health remains a promising avenue. A considerable
limitation, however, is their challenging growth in laboratory settings. If obtained as isolates, their
total cell biomass remained low, even when using optimised media conditions, and some strains even
show aggregated growth forms. Given the intriguing biosynthetic potential predicted from the
genome, more efforts are needed to characterise and exploit this phylum, including, for example, the
development of genetic tools for in situ activation, overexpression, and deletion of specific genes, as
well as the establishment of a genetically tractable heterologous expression system in
Acidobacteriota-hosts.Together, this could lead to a better understanding and utilisation of
Acidobacteriota, aiming to discover new methods for their role in sustainable agriculture,
bioremediation, and natural product discovery.

Methods

Microbial cultivation of acidobacterial strains

Acidobacterial strains were routinely cultivated in R2A Medium (R2A Broth, HIMEDIA, Maharashtra,
India) buffered with MES-hydrate(2-(N-Morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid hydrate,(CAS: 1266615-59-1))
(1.95g/l) at pH 6.0. Cultures were incubated at 28°C with 75 rpm. To sustain healthy and continuous
growth, 10% of the 7-day-old preculture (100ml Erlenmeyer flask) was used to inoculate the main
cultures (300ml Erlenmeyer flasks). For quality control, we transferred 100µl after each inoculation or
sampling step to an R2A-MES-buffered agar plate to observe colony morphologies and identify the
growth of contaminant microorganisms. Additionally, we performed 16S rRNA gene amplification
testing with primer pair E8F (50-GAG TTT GAT CCT GGC TCA G-30) and 1492R (50-ACG GYT ACC TTG
TTA CGA CTT-30) (Lane, 1991). For the One-Strain-many-compounds cultivation approach we
performed 24-well-scale and Erlenmeyer flask-scale cultivation. We prepared forty 24-well Duetz
system plates with 20 different media (each medium 4 ml) and autoclaved the plates before
inoculation (10%) with a preculture grown for 14 days. Applied media were diluted medium 5254
(79)(2 g soluble starch, 2 g glycerol, 0.5 g corn steep liquid, 1 g peptone, 0.4 g yeast extract, 0.2 g NaCl;
pH 5.5, buffered with 1.95 g/L MES), HD (0.5 g casein peptone, 0.1 g glucose, 0.25 g yeast extract; pH
5.0, unbuffered; DSMZ ID 1135), and PSYA 5 (26)(1.8 g KH$_2$PO$_4$, 0.2 g MgSO$_4$ x 7H$_2$O, 1 g yeast extract;
optionally with addition of sucrose at 0.5% or 3%; pH 5.0, unbuffered) as well as a diversity of VL55-
based and R2A-based (1-fold, 2-fold, 4-fold) media generated by optional addition of different carbon
sources (Pektin, GlcNAc – 0.05%; Xylan, Cellobiose – 0.5%; and Sucrose 3%; applied to 2-fold
R2A)(Table S2) (25, 39). Furthermore, as a surface attachment enabling strategy, we added ceramic
beads (hollow cylinders; 3 pcs/well plus 4 ml of media), quartz beads (round; 10 pcs/well plus 4 ml of
media; Eheim Mech), or solidified the respective medium using 0.8% phytagel. The plates were
incubated at 28°C, shaking at 120 rpm or with manual shaking once per day. Cultivation in a 300 ml

Erlenmeyer flask was executed in 100 mL media by inoculation (10%) with a preculture grown for 7
days. The cultures were incubated at 28°C for 14 days with or without shaking at 75 rpm. We added
20 g of ceramic beads (Eheim mech) to non-shaking cultures. After cultivation, cultures were frozen,
freeze-dried and extracted (see below).

For Trp-induced kinetic studies, we used a 1.2-fold concentrated R2A medium buffered with 2-(*N*-
morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid (MES) at a pH of 6.0, which was supplemented in a 4:1 ratio with 1%
sterile-filtered Trp (CAS 73-22-3) to a final concentration of 0.2% Trp and a 1-fold concentrated
medium. Kinetic studies were performed in 300 ml flasks at least in duplicates. For sample collection,
we transferred 4 ml of culture to 24-deep-well plates for further processing. In parallel, the remaining
culture sample was used for quality control by agar plating (R2A-MES, pH 6.0) and 16S rDNA PCR. After
the final harvest day, 24-well plates were freeze-dried and extracted by methanol (see details in
supplementary file).

Bioassays

Antimicrobial Screenings of crude extract was performed using microplate broth dilution assays at the
final assay concentration of 0.25-fold, 0.5-fold, one-fold and two-fold (in relation to the culture
volume) against bacteria and fungi (*Escherichia coli* ATCC 35218, *Bacillus subtilis* DSM 10,
Mycobacterium smegmatis ATCC 607, *Candida albicans* FH 2173 and *Septoria tritici* MUCL 45407 as
described previously (39). Crude extracts showing at least 70% growth inhibition were considered
bioactive and were subjected to microfractionation for dereplication of bioactivity-causing
metabolites (39). Testing of crude extracts on barley seedlings was performed in glass vials filled with
5 ml of SH medium, inoculated with one surface-disinfected barley seed per vial (see details in
supplementary file).

Creation and Curation of the Acidobacteriota Genome Dataset

As of March 2023, Acidobacteriota assemblies matching our selection criteria (NCBI:txid, filter: RefSeq
annotation) were retrieved from NCBI in .gbff file format. In addition, four Acidobacteriota assemblies,
from strains isolated from termite nest material (FHG110202, FHG110214), soil (FHG110511) and a
genome generated for *A. borealis* DSM23886 complemented the dataset (n=1425). Genome
assemblies were selected based on their completeness and contamination using CheckM2(40). Only
high-quality genome assemblies defined by MIMAG evaluation(41) criteria demonstrating 90-100%
completeness and 0-5% contamination were kept for further evaluation (n=648). For this,
redundancies and taxonomic affiliation were checked by GTDB-Tk (42). In total, 618 curated genome
assemblies were processed for metadata evaluation, BGC potential and PGPT mining (method details
in supplementary file). To correlate the genomic data to the taxonomic affiliation, a whole-genome
sequence-based phylogenetic tree of the GTDB generated multiple-sequence alignment file and was
visualised using iTOL v4(45).

Genomic Analysis of PGPT Traits

The coding sequences from the previously described genomic dataset were extracted using a custom
Python pipeline built with BioPython (SeqIO). To generate FASTA documents for further processing,
we retrieved the gene name, product description and translated protein sequence for each CDS. For
pre-existing FASTA files, the extraction of CDSs can be skipped. To document the number of CDSs
extracted per genome, a log file was generated. The PLABASE PGPT database (80)
(PGPT_BASE_nr_Aug2021n_ul_1.dmnd) was used as reference for a similarity search against the
extracted protein sequences using DIAMOND v2. The script supports various sensitivity modes,
allowing users to select the appropriate mode based on their input; the here utilized parameters and
applied evaluation thresholds are described in the supplementary file.

Mass spectrometry

Ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) coupled with quadrupole time-of-flight (QTOF) high-resolution mass spectrometry (HR-MS) and tandem MS (MS/MS) was performed using an Agilent 1290 Infinity LC system connected to a maXis II QTOF mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics) equipped with an electrospray ionisation (ESI) source. Separation of samples was achieved on an Acquity UPLC BEH C18 column (130 Å pore size, 1.7 µm particle size, 2.1 × 100 mm) fitted with a matching pre-column (2.1 × 5 mm, 1.7 µm, 130 Å) at a temperature of 45°C. Chromatographic separation was achieved using a linear gradient elution of solvent A (water with 0.1% formic acid) and solvent B (acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid) at a constant flow rate of 0.6 ml/min. The gradient program was as follows: 95% A at 0.00–0.30 min, gradually decreasing to 4.75% A by 18.00 min, then to 0% A at 18.10 min, held until 22.50 min, returned to 95% A at 22.60 min, and equilibrated until 25.00 min. Mass spectra were recorded in positive mode over a mass range of m/z 50–2000 with a spectra rate of 1 Hz. MS/MS acquisition was performed at a 6 Hz scan rate, targeting the top five most intense ions per full mass spectrum for collision-induced dissociation (CID) using nitrogen, as per the table published by Eichberg *et al.* (81). Precursors were excluded after two spectra, with a release duration of 0.5 min, and re-evaluated if their signal intensity increased by ≥1.5-fold. All data analysis was performed with DataAnalysis 4.4 (Bruker, Billerica, MA, USA).

Chemotype-barcoding matrix, Multivariate analysis and statistics

Raw data processing was performed using DataAnalysis 5.2 (Bruker) as previously published, and the complete data set was copied and processed with both line spectra thresholds (here: 5,000 and 10,000) (82). Bucketing was performed on both sets at the same time, resulting in one table containing all buckets deemed identical for every sample (under both thresholds) and by applying the data curation measures described in the supplementary file. This analysis revealed a final table of 219 samples with 3,092 buckets (OSMAC) and 48 samples with 2,759 buckets (Trp-Induction) which were used the respective barcode generation and categorizing. The generated bucket tables were used as (i) a binary absence/presence matrix or (ii) a quantitative intensity matrix. For PCoA on the binary matrix, (i) Jaccard dissimilarities were computed (skbio.diversity.beta_diversity, metric="jaccard"), and PCoA (skbio.stats.ordination.pcoa) was done using scikit-bio (v0.7.0). PERMANOVA (skbio.stats.distance.permanova) assessed group differences with 999 permutations. We tested the effects of medium, cultivation size (small-scale vs. large-scale), and bead condition (Quartz/Ceramic/None) in a small-scale subset. For PCA on quantitative data (ii), we log2-transformed peak area intensities using scikit-learn (v1.3) in Python. Before PCA, undetected features were defined to be zero and samples were normalised to the injection volume wherever indicated. All visualisations were generated using Matplotlib, with attributes changed based on metadata information through shape, colour, and border style to reflect replicates and experimental conditions.

Compound Isolation

The crude extract was dissolved in 10% MeOH to perform SPE utilizing a 2 L column packed with Amberlite XAD-16 N and step gradient elution of 10%, 20%, 40%, 60%, 80%, and 100% MeOH. Based on LC-MS analysis, several fractions containing the compounds of interest were combined and evaporated to dryness. During isolation, semi-preparative and preparative HPLC was performed on Agilent 1100 HPLC systems equipped with external Gilson fraction collectors using H2O + 0.1% FA and ACN + 0.1% FA as mobile phases. Final purification was achieved by UPLC fractionation employing the chromatographic method described in the UPLC-MS section with fraction collection of 16 seconds per fraction starting directly after the injection.

Structure elucidation by NMR

NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AVANCE III HD 700MHz spectrometer operating at ^{1}H frequency of 700 MHz and a ^{13}C-carbon frequency of 140 MHz. The instrument was equipped with a 5 mm TCI cryo probe head. COSY, TOCSY, ROESY, NOESY, HSQC, and HMBC experiments were recorded using standard pulse programs. All isolated samples were measured in DMSO-d6. Chemical shifts were referenced to the solvent signals (^{1}H: 2.50 ppm, ^{13}C: 39.5 ppm)

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Abbreviations

Abbreviations: OSMAC, one-strain–many-compounds; IAA, indole-3-acetic acid; iP, N6-(Δ2-
isopentenyl)adenine; PGPT, plant growth–promoting trait; BGC, biosynthetic gene cluster; NRP,
nonribosomal peptide; PKS, polyketide synthase; RiPP, ribosomally synthesized and post-
translationally modified peptide; MAG, metagenome-assembled genome; UMAP, Uniform Manifold
Approximation and Projection; GTDB, Genome Taxonomy Database; antiSMASH, antibiotics &
Secondary Metabolite Analysis Shell; iTOL, Interactive Tree Of Life; UHPLC-QTOF-HRMS, ultra-high-
performance liquid chromatography–quadrupole time-of-flight high-resolution mass spectrometry;
DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; MES, 2-(N-morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid; Trp, tryptophan.