Title:

A global survey of arsenic related genes in soil microbiomes

Authors

Taylor K Dunivin[1,2], Susanna Y Yeh[3], and Ashley Shade[1,4*]

Affiliations

[1]Department of Microbiology and Molecular Genetics, Michigan State University, East

Lansing MI 48824

[2]Environmental and Integrative Toxicological Sciences Doctoral Program, Michigan

State University, East Lansing, MI 48824, USA

[3] Institute for Cyber-Enabled Research, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI

48824, USA

[4]Program in Ecology, Evolutionary Biology and Behavior, Michigan State University,

East Lansing, MI 48824, USA; Department of Plant, Soil, and Microbial Sciences,

Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824, USA; and the Plant Resilience

Institute, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, 48834, USA

*correspondence: shadeash@msu.edu

Abstract

Environmental resistomes include transferable microbial genes. One important resistome component is resistance to arsenic, a ubiquitous and toxic metalloid that can have negative and chronic consequences for human and animal health. The distribution of arsenic resistance and metabolism genes in the environment is not well understood. However, microbial communities and their resistomes mediate key transformations of arsenic that are expected to impact both biogeochemistry and local toxicity. We examined the phylogenetic diversity, genomic location (chromosome or plasmid), and biogeography of arsenic resistance and metabolism genes in 922 soil genomes and 38 metagenomes. To do so, we developed a bioinformatic toolkit that includes BLAST databases, hidden Markov models and resources for gene-targeted assembly of nine arsenic resistance and metabolism genes: *acr3*, *aioA*, *arsB*, *arsC* (grx), *arsC* (trx), *arsD*, *arsM*, *arrA*, and *arxA*. Though arsenic related genes were common, they were not universally detected, contradicting the common conjecture that all organisms have them. From major clades of arsenic related genes, we inferred their potential for horizontal and vertical transfer. Different types and proportions of genes were detected across soils, suggesting microbial community composition will, in part, determine local arsenic toxicity and biogeochemistry. While arsenic related genes were globally distributed, particular sequence variants were highly endemic (e.g., *acr3*), suggesting dispersal limitation. The gene encoding arsenic methylase *arsM* was unexpectedly abundant in soil metagenomes (median 48%), suggesting that it plays a prominent role in global arsenic biogeochemistry. Our analysis advances understanding of arsenic resistance, metabolism, and biogeochemistry, and our approach provides a roadmap for the ecological investigation of environmental resistomes.

Keywords:

Arsenic, functional gene, bioinformatics, targeted gene assembly, horizontal gene transfer, biogeography, phylogeny, phylogenetic diversity, resistome, plasmid

Running title:

Arsenic genomics in soil microbiomes

Background

Microbial communities drive global biogeochemical cycles through diverse functions.

The biogeography of functional genes can help to predict and manage the influence of

microbial communities on biogeochemical cycling [1]. These trait-based analyses

require that the functional genes are well-characterized from both evolutionary and

genetic perspectives [2]. The arsenic resistance and metabolism genes exemplify a

suite of well-characterized functional genes that have consequences for

biogeochemistry. Arsenic is a toxic metalloid that, upon exposure, can have negative

effects for all life, including humans, livestock, and microorganisms. The toxicity and

mobility of arsenic depends, in part, on its oxidation state: the trivalent arsenite is more

mobile and more toxic than the pentavalent arsenate [3]. The toxicity of methylated

arsenic species varies with oxidation state and number of methyl groups (monomethyl,

dimethyl, trimethyl). Pentavalent methylarsenicals are progressively less toxic than

inorganic arsenate, while trivalent methylarsenicals are progressively more toxic than

inorganic arsenite with the exception of trimethylarsine which is the least toxic arsenic

species [4, 5]. Additionally, volatilization of arsenic can occur through methylation [6],

which has varied impacts. Methylated forms of arsenic can be released to new areas

through air [7], captured during bioremediation [8], or accumulate in crops such as rice

[9]. Microbial transformations of arsenic can have consequences for arsenic speciation

and methylation; therefore, they impact arsenic ecotoxicity and the fate of arsenic in the

environment.

Arsenic biogeochemical cycling by microbial communities is both an ancient [10, 11]

and a contemporary [3, 12] phenomenon. Changes to the methylation or oxidation state

of arsenic alter biogeochemical cycling of arsenic, and microbes have evolved a variety

of mechanisms to carry out these functions. Arsenic related genes are generally

separated into two categories: resistance and metabolism [13]. Arsenic resistance, or

detoxification, is encoded by the *ars* operon [14]. The *ars* operon protects the cell from

arsenic but does not detoxify arsenic itself in the environment. This operon includes

arsenite efflux (ArsB, Acr3) which is potentially precluded by cytoplasmic arsenate

reduction with either glutaredoxin (ArsC (grx)) or thioredoxin (ArsC (trx)) [14]. Arsenic

metabolisms include methylation (ArsM), oxidation (AioAB, ArxAB), and dissimilatory

reduction (ArrAB) [13]. While these genetic determinants of arsenic detoxification and

metabolism are well-characterized, the full scope of arsenic detoxification and

metabolism gene distribution, diversity, and interspecies transfer is unknown [15–17].

Microbial arsenic resistance is reportedly widespread in the environment. Arsenic

resistant organisms have been found in sites with low arsenic concentrations (< 7 ppm)

[18, 19], and it has been speculated that nearly all organisms have arsenic resistance

genes [20]. While the number of identified microorganisms with arsenic resistance

genes continues to grow [13], the number of microorganisms without arsenic resistance

genes is unclear. Furthermore, though the complete arsenic biogeochemical cycle has

been detected in the environment [10], the relative contributions of genes encoding

detoxification and metabolism remain unknown [11]. A global, biogeographic

perspective of environmental arsenic related genes would improve understanding of

their ecology. This information would expand foundational knowledge of arsenic

detoxification and metabolism, including local and global abundances, gene diversity,

dispersal across different environments, and representations over the microbial tree of

life.

Knowledge gaps concerning the diversity of microbial arsenic related genes are

driven, in part, by numerous inconsistencies in nomenclature and detection methods.

Though public microbial metagenome and genome data continue to surge, there are

several practical hurdles to achieving a robust, global assessment of microbial arsenic

related genes from this wealth of data. First, tools to detect these genes rely on

imperfect annotation [15] and widely vary in nomenclature [21]. Next, the use of different

reference databases [12, 22–25] and normalization techniques [25, 26] complicates

comparisons between studies. To overcome these hurdles, we developed an open-

access toolkit to examine arsenic resistance and metabolism genes in microbial

sequence datasets. This toolkit allowed us probe genomic and metagenomic datasets

simultaneously to investigate arsenic related genes in soil microbiomes. We first asked

whether arsenic related genes are universal in soil-associated microorganisms. Next we

tested the hypothesis that genes encoding arsenic detoxification are more abundant

than those encoding arsenic metabolism. We also tested the hypothesis that arsenic

resistance genes with redundant function (i.e. *acr3* and *arsB*; *arsC* (grx) and *arsC* (trx))

would have complementary environmental abundances. Third, we asked whether

estimations of arsenic related gene abundance are biased by cultivation efforts, as

cultivation is often a research emphasis because cultivable, arsenic resistant

microorganisms can be used in bioremediation [17]. Finally, we tested the hypothesis

that sequence variants of arsenic related genes are endemic, not cosmopolitan.

Results

A bioinformatic toolkit for detecting and quantifying arsenic related genes

We developed a toolkit to improve investigations of microbial arsenic related

genes (**Figure 1AB**)[14, 27–31]. We selected these nine genes because they are

markers of arsenic detoxification and metabolism [21, 25] and because their genetic

underpinnings are well established. Seed sequences (high quality and full length

sequences) for each gene of interest were collected and used to construct BLAST

databases [32], functional gene (FunGene) databases [33], hidden Markov models

(HMMs [34]), and gene resources for gene-targeted assembly (Xander [35]) (**Figure**

1A). Altogether, this toolkit relies on consistent references and nomenclature and can

search both amino acid and nucleotide sequence data.

To demonstrate the utility of our toolkit, we performed an analysis of arsenic

related genes in soil-associated genomes and metagenomes. We used HMMs for

marker genes for arsenic detoxification and metabolism to search RefSoil+ genomes, a

set of complete chromosomes and plasmids from cultivable soil microorganisms [36].

Additionally, we used a gene-targeted assembler [35] to test 38 public soil

metagenomes from Brazil, Canada, Malaysia, Russia, and the United States for arsenic

resistance and metabolism genes (**Additional File 1**). Ultimately, these data serve as a

broad baseline of arsenic detoxification and metabolism genes in soil.

Phylogenetic distributions and genomic locations of arsenic related genes

We asked whether arsenic resistance and metabolism genes were universal in

RefSoil+ organisms [36]. Of the 922 RefSoil+ genomes spanning 25 phyla (**Figure 2B**;

Additional File 2), 14.3% (132 genomes) did not contain any tested arsenic related

genes. Of the 25 phyla in RefSoil+, two phyla (Chlamydiae and Crenarchaeota) did not

have any of these genes. These phyla, however, had few RefSoil+ representatives

(three and nine, respectively), so other members of these phyla may have arsenic

detoxification and metabolism genes. Supporting this hypothesis, a Crenarchaeota

isolate was previously reported to oxidize arsenic [37]. Nonetheless, these data suggest

that arsenic related genes are widespread, but not universal, even among cultivable soil

organisms (**Figure 2**).

We next asked whether 16S rRNA gene phylogeny was predictive of arsenic

genotypes using a test for phylogenetic signal (Bloomberg's K [38]). No phylogenetic

signal was observed for plasmid-borne sequences or genes encoding arsenic

metabolisms (*aioA*, *arrA*, *arxA*); however, relatively few RefSoil+ microorganisms tested

positive for these genes. Despite their phylogenetic breadth (**Additional Files 3 – 7**),

chromosomally-encoded *acr3*, *arsB*, *arsC* (grx), *arsC* (trx), and *arsM* were similar

between phylogenetically related organisms (false discovery rate adjusted p < 0.01;

Figure 2A).

Phylogenetic diversity of arsenic related genes: insights into vertical and horizontal

transfer

<u>Arsenite efflux pumps</u>. We examined the phylogenetic diversity of distinct genes

encoding arsenite efflux pumps, *acr3* and *arsB*, for soil-associated microorganisms

(**Figure 3, Additional Files 3 – 4**). Gene *acr3* is separated into two clades: *acr3*(1) and

acr3(2) [39]. Clade *acr3*(1) is typically composed of Proteobacterial sequences while

acr3(2) is typically composed of Firmicutes and Actinobacterial sequences [21, 39, 40].

Though RefSoil+ genomes were mostly composed of *acr3*(2) sequences from

Proteobacteria (**Figure 3A; Additional File 3**), we observed greater taxonomic diversity

observed than previously reported for this clade [21, 39, 40]. Surprisingly, there were

deep branches in *acr3*(2) that belonged to Bacteroidetes, Euryarchaeota, Firmicutes,

Fusobacteria, and Verrucomicrobia. Similarly, *acr3*(1) contained closely related *acr3*

sequences present in a diverse array of phyla (10 out of 25). Both clades had

sequences present on plasmids (6.1%). Plasmid-borne *arsB* sequences were only

present in Proteobacteria and Deinococcus-Thermus strains (**Figure 3B**; **Additional**

File 4). Sequences from Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, and Firmicutes were each

present in two distinct phylogenetic groups, and previous studies also observed

separation of *arsB* sequences based on phylum [39, 40]. Interestingly, our genome-

centric analysis revealed that microorganisms with multiple copies of *arsB* did not

harbor identical copies. For example, seven *Bacillus subtilis* subsp. *subtilis* strains had

two copies of *arsB*, with one from each of the two clades (**Additional File 4**).

Cytoplasmic arsenate reductases. Cytoplasmic arsenate reductase (ArsC (trx)) was

phylogenetically widespread in RefSoil+ microorganisms (**Figure 4A**; **Additional File**

5). While some *arsC* (trx) sequences were plasmid-borne, the majority were

chromosomally encoded. Similarly, plasmid encoded *arsC* (grx) made up 4.6% of

RefSoil+ hits (**Figure 4B**; **Additional File 6**). Notably, several Proteobacteria strains

have multiple copies of *arsC* (grx) with distinct sequences. It is possible that this is the

result of an early gene duplication event or HGT of a second *arsC* (grx).

Arsenic metabolisms. *arsM* was relatively uncommon in RefSoil+ microorganisms

(5.2%) (**Figure 2**). In the RefSoil+ database, *arsM* was observed in Euryarchaeota as

well as several bacterial phyla Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, Armatimonadetes,

Bacteroidetes, Chloroflexi, Cyanobacteria, Firmicutes, Gemmatimonadetes, Nitrospirae,

Proteobacteria, Verrucomicrobia (**Figure 5**; **Additional File 7**). Notably, only one

RefSoil+ microorganism, *Rubrobacter radiotolerans* (NZ_CP007516.1), had a plasmid-

borne *arsM*.

202   Arsenic metabolism genes *aioA*, *arrA*, and *arxA* were phylogenetically conserved

(**Figure 6**). Genes encoding arsenite oxidases *aioA* and *arxA* were restricted to

Proteobacteria. *aioA* sequences clustered into two clades based on class-level

taxonomy: all Alphaproteobacteria sequences cluster separately from Gamma- and

Betaproteobacteria sequences. The gene encoding dissimilatory arsenate reduction

arrA was also phylogenetically conserved in RefSoil+ strains, with strains from

Proteobacteria clustering separate from Firmicutes (**Figure 6**).

Cultivation bias and environmental distributions of arsenic related genes

To gain a cultivation-dependent perspective of the abundances of arsenic related genes in soils, we used inferred environmental abundances of RefSoil microorganisms [41, 42]. The environmental abundance of RefSoil microorganisms, which are cultivable, soil-associated microorganisms, was previously estimated by comparing 16S rRNA gene sequences in RefSoil with those in soil metagenomes [41]. We used this estimated abundance of cultivable microorganisms along with arsenic related gene information from this study (**Figure 2**) to estimate the environmental abundances of arsenic related genes from the cultivated bacteria. Arsenic metabolism genes (*aioA*, *arrA*, *arsM*, *arxA*) were predicted to be less common in the environment compared with arsenic detoxification genes (*acr3*, *arsB*, *arsC* (grx), *arsC* (trx), and *arsD*) (**Figure 7A**; Mann Whitney U test p < 0.01). Despite similar distributions of *acr3* and *arsB* in RefSoil+ (**Figure 2B**), *acr3* was more abundant in most soil orders (**Figure 7A;** Mann Whitney U test p < 0.05). For genes encoding cytoplasmic arsenate reductases, *arsC* (grx) was more abundant than *arsC* (trx) (Mann Whitney U test p < 0.01).

To gain a cultivation-independent perspective of the abundances of arsenic related genes, we examined their normalized abundance from soil metagenomes (**Figure 7B**). An undetected gene does not confirm absence, so we present a conservative estimate that only includes metagenomes testing positive for a gene. Arsenic detoxification genes (*acr3*, *arsB*, *arsC* (grx), *arsC* (trx), and *arsD*) were more abundant than arsenic metabolism genes (*aioA*, *arrA*, *arsM*, and *arxA*) (Mann Whitney-U test p < 0.01; **Figure 7B**). Genes encoding arsenite efflux pumps differed in their abundance with *acr3* being more abundant than *arsB* (Mann Whitney U test p < 0.01). We also observed differences in cytoplasmic arsenate reductases: *arsC* (grx) was more abundant than *arsC* (trx) (Mann Whitney U test p < 0.01).

We explored cultivation bias of arsenic related genes with a case study comparing cultivation-dependent (lawn growth on the standard medium TSA50) and -independent communities from the same soil. Genes in the *ars* operon (*acr3*, *arsB*, *arsD*, and *arsC* (trx)) were elevated in the cultivation-dependent metagenome (**Figure 7C**). Additionally, arsenic metabolism genes were not detected (*aioA*, *arrA*, *arxA*) or in

low abundance (*arsM*) in the cultivation-dependent sample; however, all four of these arsenic metabolism genes were detected in the cultivation-independent sample. Though this is a single case study of cultivation-dependent and independent methods, these results recapitulate the general discrepancies between RefSoil+ genomes and soil metagenomes (**Figure 7B**). This bias has important implications for studies focusing on arsenic bioremediation because cultivation-dependent studies could misestimate the potential of microbiomes for arsenic detoxification and metabolism *in situ*.

Arsenic related gene endemism

Arsenic related genes are globally distributed, but their biogeography is poorly understood. Broadly, arsenic related genes had comparable abundance among different soils (**Figure 7AB**). The relative distributions of distinct arsenic detoxification and metabolism mechanisms in one site, however, are relevant for predicting the impact of microbial communities on the fate of arsenic. To understand site-specific distributions, we explored soil metagenomes from Brazil, Canada, Malaysia, Russia, and the United States (**Additional File 1**). These 16 sites had differences in community membership (**Additional File 9**) and arsenic related gene content (**Figure 8A**). Geographic location was not predictive of arsenic related gene content (Mantel's r = 0.03493; p > 0.05). Soils had different distributions of arsenic related genes and therefore differed in their potential impact on the biogeochemical cycling of arsenic. While *arsC* (grx) and *arsM* dominated most samples, their relative proportions varied greatly (**Figure 8A**). RefSoil+ data suggests that *arsM* can be found in Verrucomicrobia (100%, n = 2), which is of particular importance for soil metagenomes since Verrucomicrobia are often underestimated with cultivation-dependent methods [43]. The mangrove sample had the most even proportions of arsenic related genes (**Figure 8A**). This distribution was driven by a high abundance of *arsC* (trx) and *arrA*.

We further examined the arsenic resistance gene abundance at individual sites. We did not include *arr* and *arx* in this analysis due to limited available data. For each gene, the abundance varied greatly, but replicates within one site had similar abundances (**Figure 8B**). The majority of arsenic related gene sequences (99.3%) were endemic and only found in one to two sites, but 24 sequences were detected in three or

more sites (**Figure 8C; Additional File 10**). The majority (70.8%) of cosmopolitan

sequences belonged to *arsC* (grx). This analysis suggests that arsenic related genes

acr3, *arsB*, *arsC* (trx), *arsD*, *arsM,* and *aioA* are generally endemic.

Discussion

A bioinformatic toolkit for detecting and quantifying arsenic related genes

We developed a toolkit for detecting arsenic related genes from sequence data

that supports a variety of applications (**Figure 1A**): arsenic related genes can be

detected in amino acid sequences from completed genomes (HMMs [44], BLAST [32]),

nucleotide sequences in draft genomes (BLAST), as well as metagenomes and

metatranscriptomes (Xander [35]). Because each tool relies on the same seed

sequences, there is consistency and opportunity for comparison between sequence

datasets that were generated from different sources. While primers already exist for

arsenic related genes: *aioA* [45, 46], *acr3* [47], *arsB* [47], *arsC* (grx) [48], *arsC* (trx) [49],

arsM [9], and *arrA* [50–52], these FunGene [33] databases can be used for testing

primer breadth, designing new primers, and browsing sequences.

The toolkit is scalable for additional mechanisms for arsenic resistance and other

functional genes of interest (e.g., methylarsenite oxidase (ArsH), C-As lyase (ArsI),

trivalent organoarsenical efflux permease (ArsP), organoarsenical efflux permease

(ArsJ) [20]), or redox transformations of elements involved in arsenic biogeochemical

cycling (e.g., nitrate reductase (NarG) and sulfate reductase (DsrAB) [3, 20]). This

toolkit serves as both a resource and an example workflow for developing similar

toolkits to examine functional genes, beyond arsenic related genes, in microbial

sequence datasets.

Phylogenetic diversity and distribution of arsenic related genes

It has been conjectured that nearly all organisms have arsenic resistance genes

[20], and though this assumption has propagated in the literature, it had never been

explicitly quantified. Our data suggest that arsenic detoxification and metabolism genes

are ubiquitous, but not universal in RefSoil+ microorganisms (**Figure 2**). It is possible for

these 132 organisms to have untested or novel arsenic related genes; nonetheless,

these nine well-characterized genes were not universally detected. Additionally,

phylogeny was predictive of the presence of *acr3*, *arsB*, *arsC* (grc), *arsC* (trx), and

arsM. This correlation suggests that taxonomy is predictive of arsenic genotype despite

documented potential for HGT [19, 39, 53–55]. This result could be explained by ancient

rather than contemporary HGT, as seen with *arsM* [55] and *arsC* (grx) [53]. Therefore,

we next assessed evidence for HGT by examining the phylogenetic congruence and

genomic location (e.g. chromosome or plasmid) of arsenic related gene sequences.

Horizontal transfer of arsenic related genes has been well documented [19, 39,

53–57] and is an important consideration for understanding the propagation and

taxonomic identity of arsenic related genes. We examined the phylogenetic diversity of

arsenic related genes in RefSoil+ microorganisms, including plasmids and

chromosomes, and compared them with the 16S rRNA gene taxonomy.

Efflux pumps. While known *acr3* sequences separates into two clades [21, 39, 40],

plasmid-borne *acr3* sequences were present across clades, suggesting a potential for

transfer across unrelated taxa. Therefore, studies assigning taxonomy to *acr3* in the

absence of host information should consider the clade precisely and proceed with

caution. Despite their functional redundancy as arsenite efflux pumps, *acr3* and *arsB*

have very distinctive diversity. As compared with *acr3*, *arsB* was less diverse and more

phylogenetically conserved (**Figure 3B**; **Additional File 4**). This observation is in

agreement with previous reports comparing the diversity of *arsB* to *acr3* [39, 40].

Multiple, phylogenetically distinct copies of *arsB* were present in some RefSoil+

organisms, which could be due to an early gene duplication and subsequent

diversification or to an early transfer event. Therefore, despite relatively lower sequence

variation, this *arsB* phylogeny suggests an interesting evolutionary history that could be

investigated further.

Cytoplasmic arsenate reductases. *arsC* (trx) was predominantly found on RefSoil+

chromosomes, not plasmids, suggesting vertical transfer of *arsC* (trx) is common. *arsC*

(trx) was present in both Bacteria and Archaea, and sequences from the two domains

formed two distinct clades. *arsC* (trx) sequences that cluster separately from Bacterial-

arsC (trx) sequences have been documented in Thermococci, Archaeoglobi,

Thermoplasmata, and Halobacteria [58] Together, this distribution supports an early

evolutionary origin for *arsC* (trx). Thus, *arsC* (trx) appears to be an evolutionarily old

enzyme that is phylogenetically conserved despite its presence on plasmids and

potential for HGT. Plasmid-encoded *arsC* (grx) were also observed in RefSoil+

microorganisms, highlighting a contemporary potential for HGT that has been

documented in soil [53]. Thus, both genes encoding cytoplasmic arsenate reductases

were more common on chromosomes.

Arsenic metabolisms. The evolutionary history of the gene encoding arsenite S-

adenosylmethionine methyltransferase, *arsM*, was recently investigated [54, 55]. Both

studies independently determined that *arsM* evolved billions of years ago and was

subject to HGT [54, 55]. In this work, *arsM* sequences from Euryarchaeota were

dispersed throughout the *arsM* phylogeny, supporting the potential for inter-kingdom

transfer events that were recently suggested [54, 55]. Very few RefSoil+ organisms had

arsenic metabolism genes *aioA*, *arrA*, or *arxA*, which limits phylogenetic analysis.

Nonetheless, they were mostly found in Proteobacteria, which is in agreement with

previous work [13].

Cultivation bias and environmental distributions of arsenic related genes

Cultivation-based assessments of arsenic related gene content are important

since cultivable strains are often favored for bioremediation [59]. We estimated

distributions of arsenic related genes in cultivable microorganisms from soils and found

a greater abundance of arsenic detoxification genes *acr3*, *arsB*, and *arsC* (trx) (**Figure**

7A). A previous study also reported an abundance of *acr3* over *arsB* in cultivable

microooganisms from forest soils and attributed this to the greater phylogenetic

distribution of *acr3* compared with *arsB* [40]. Additionally, they found that *arsC* (grx) was

more abundant than *arsC* (trx) in cultivated microorganisms from these soils. It has

been posited in cultivation-independent studies that *arsC* (trx) is more efficient than

arsC (grx) and that high local arsenic concentrations result in a relatively greater

abundance of *arsC* (trx) [21, 60]. Our cultivation-dependent abundances suggest that

acr3 and *arsC* (grx), rather than *arsB* and *arsC* (trx), predominantly comprise the

arsenic detoxification pathway in soils.

To assess arsenic related gene content without cultivation bias, we examined

arsenic related genes in soil metagenomes. As predicted by cultivable organisms,

arsenic metabolism genes (*aioA*, *arrA*, *arxA*) were generally in low abundance while

acr3 and *arsC* (grx) were in high abundance. Estimates of genes encoding arsenic

detoxification (*acr3*, *arsB*, *arsD*, *arsC* (grx), *arsC* (trx)) were considerably lower in these

cultivation-independent samples. This result could be due, in part, to the large number

of RefSoil+ microorganisms with multiple copies of these genes (**Additional File 8**).

Cultivation-independent genomes (e.g., single-cell amplified genomes and

metagenome-assembled genomes) could provide greater context about the

environmental distributions of copy numbers of arsenic related genes.

Notably, *arsM* was abundant in soil (median 48%), which greatly exceeds

cultivation-dependent estimations, and in a case-study of cultivation dependent and

independent techniques, *arsM* was more abundant in the cultivation independent

sample (**Figure 7C**). Due to the early phylogenetic origins of *arsM* and its independent

functionality [55], this abundance of *arsM* in soil metagenomes is not unexpected. *arsM*

is typically studied in paddy soils [6, 61, 62], but metagenomes in this study suggest it is

an important component of the arsenic biogeochemical cycle in a variety of soils.

Arsenic related gene endemism

We examined the relative abundance of arsenic related genes in soil

metagenomes and observed differences in genetic potential for arsenic transformation

that could impact biogeochemical cycling (**Figure 8A**). Notably, the mangrove sample

had the most even proportions of arsenic related genes. While the arsenic

concentrations in this sample are unknown, mangroves are considered sources and

sinks for arsenic [63–65]. This could explain the greater abundance of *arsC* (trx), which

is hypothesized to be more abundant in high arsenic sites [21, 60]. Additionally, *arrA*

encodes a dissimilatory arsenate reductase that functions in an anaerobic environment

[30], so its greater abundance in sediment is expected. Soil geochemical data was not

available for all metagenomes examined in this work, so direct comparisons of arsenic

related gene content and soil geochemistry were not possible. This highlights the

importance and utility of depositing geochemical data with DNA sequences. Future

work, however, could further examine relationships between arsenic resistance genes

and soil geochemical data, including arsenic concentration and redox potential.

We also measured whether arsenic related gene sequence variants were

endemic or cosmopolitan in soil metagenomes (**Figure 8C**). We found that genes *acr3*,

arsB, *arsC* (trx), *arsD*, *arsM*, and *aioA* were generally endemic, suggesting regional

dispersal limitation. Only one *aioA* and three *acr3* sequences were detected in multiple

sites. This supports a previous finding that *acr3* and *aioA* from the acid mine drainage in

Carnoulès were endemic [66]. Conversely, *arsC* (grx) was cosmopolitan which could

suggest genetic migration via HGT or vertical transfer and a limited gene diversification.

Both are plausible since *arsC* (grx) was common in RefSoil+ plasmids and had low

phylogenetic diversity (**Figure 4B**; **Additional File 6**).

Conclusions

We developed a bioinformatic toolkit for detecting arsenic detoxification and

metabolism genes in microbial sequence data and applied it to analyze the genomes

and metagenomes from soil microorganisms. This toolkit informs hypotheses about the

evolutionary histories of these genes (including potential for vertical and horizontal

transfers) and how community ecology *in situ* may influence their prevalence and

distribution. This study reports the phylogenetic diversity, genomic locations, and

biogeography of arsenic related genes in soils, integrating information from different

'omics datasets and resources to provide a broad synthesis. The toolkit and the

synthesis presented here can catalyze future work to understand the ecology and

evolution of microbial arsenic biogeochemistry. Furthermore, the toolkit acts as a

framework for similar studies of other functional genes of interest.

Materials and Methods

Gene Selection and Functional Gene (FunGene) Database Construction

Marker genes can be used to estimate their potential to influence the arsenic

biogeochemical cycle [21, 25], so we selected nine well-characterized genes: *acr3*,

aioA, *arsB*, *arsC* (grx), *arsC* (trx), *arsD*, *arsM*, *arrA*, and *arxA*. FunGene databases [33]

were constructed for the following arsenic related genes: *arsB*, *arsC* (grx), *arsC* (trx),

acr3, *aioA*, *arrA*, and *arxA*. The *arxA* database was constructed with seed sequences

from [12]. For all other genes, UniProt [67] was used to obtain full length, reviewed

sequences when possible. NCBI clusters of orthologous groups (COG) [68] for each

gene were examined for evidence of function in the literature. All COG and UniProt

sequences were aligned using MUSCLE [69]. Aligned sequences were included in a

maximum likelihood tree with 50 bootstrap replications made with MEGA (v7.0,[70]).

Sequences that did not cluster with known sequences and had no evidence of function

were removed. A final FASTA file for each gene was submitted to the Ribosomal

Database Project (RDP) to construct a FunGene database [33]. All arsenic related gene

databases are freely available on FunGene (http://fungene.cme.msu.edu/).

Arsenic related genes in cultivable soil microorganisms

The RefSoil+ database [36] was used to obtain high-quality genomes

(chromosomes and plasmids) from soil microorganisms in the Genomes OnLine

(GOLD) database [71]. RefSoil+ chromosomes and plasmids were searched with

hmmsearch [44] using HMMs from FunGene with an e-value cutoff of 10^{-10}. The top hits

were analyzed in R [72]. For each gene, scores and percent alignments were plotted to

determine quality cutoffs. Stringent percent alignment scores were included since this

search was against completed genome sequences: only hits with scores > 100 and

percent alignment > 90% were included. Hits with the lowest scores were manually

examined to test for false positives. Due to false positives, hits against *aioA*, *arrA*, and

arxA were further quality filtered to have scores > 1,000. When one open reading frame

(ORF) contained multiple hits, the hit with a lower score was removed. Taxonomy was

assigned using the RefSoil database [41], and the relative abundance of arsenic related

genes within phyla were examined. A 16S rRNA gene maximum likelihood tree of

RefSoil+ bacterial strains was constructed with RAxML (v.8.0.6 [73]) based on the

Whelan and Goldman (WAG) model with 100 bootstrap replicates ("-m

PROTGAMMAWAG -p 12345 -f a -k -x 12345 -# 100"). Based on accession numbers,

gene hits were extracted from RefSoil+ sequences and used to construct maximum

likelihood trees for each gene.

Reference Database Construction

Reference gene databases of diverse, near full length sequences were

constructed using limited sequences from FunGene databases [33] for the following

genes: *acr3*, *aioA*, *arrA*, *arsB*, *arsC* (grx), *arsC* (trx), *arsD*, *arsM*, and *arxA*. Seed

sequences and hidden Markov models (HMMs) for each gene were downloaded from

FunGene, and diverse protein and corresponding nucleotide sequences were selected

with gene-specific search parameters (**Additional File 11**). Briefly, minimum amino acid

length was set to 70% of the HMM length; minimum HMM coverage was set to 80% as

is recommended by Xander software for targeted gene assembly; and a score cutoff

was manually selected based on a drop off point. Sequences were de-replicated before

being used in subsequent analysis, and final sequence counts are included in

Additional File 11. Reference databases were converted to publicly available BLAST

databases using BLAST+ [74]. Reference and BLAST databases are publicly available

on GitHub (https://github.com/ShadeLab/PAPER_Dunivin_meta_arsenic).

Sample collection and preparation

A soil surface core (20 cm depth and 5.1 cm diameter) was collected in October

2014 from Centralia, PA (GPS coordinates: 40 48.070, 076 20.574). For cultivation-

dependent work, a soil slurry was made by vortexing 5 g soil with 25 mL phosphate-

buffered saline (PBS) for 1 min. Remaining soil was stored at -80°C until DNA

extractions. The soil slurry was allowed to settle for 2 min. 100 µL of the slurry was then

removed and serial diluted using PBS to a 10^{-2} dilution. 100 µL of the solution was

added to 50% trypticase soy agar (TSA50) with 200 µg/ml cycloheximide to prevent

fungal growth. Plates were incubated at 60°C for 72 h. Lawns of growth were extracted

by adding 600 µL trypticase soy broth with 25% glycerol to plates. The plate scrapings

were stored at -80°C until DNA extraction.

DNA extraction and metagenome sequencing

DNA for cultivation-independent analysis was manually extracted from soil using

a phenol chloroform extraction [75] and the MoBio DNEasy PowerSoil Kit (MoBio,

Solana Beach, CA, USA) according the manufacturer's instructions. DNA extraction for

cultivation-dependent analysis was performed in triplicate from 200 µL of plate

scrapings using the E.Z.N.A. Bacterial DNA Kit according to the manufacturer's

instructions. All DNA was quantified using a Qubit dsDNA BR Assay Kit (Life

Technologies, NY, USA) and was submitted for NGS library prep and sequencing at the

Michigan State University Genomics Core sequencing facility (East Lansing, MI, USA).

Libraries were prepared using the Illumina TruSeq Nano DNA Library Preparation Kit.

After QC and quantitation, the libraries were pooled and loaded on one lane of an

Illumina HiSeq 2500 Rapid Run flow cell (v1). Sequencing was performed in a 2 x 150

bp paired end format using Rapid SBS reagents. Base calling was performed by

Illumina Real Time Analysis (RTA) v1.18.61 and output of RTA was demultiplexed and

converted to FastQ format with Illumina Bcl2Fastq v1.8.4.

Public soil metagenome acquisition

In total, 38 soil metagenomes were obtained for this work (**Additional File 1**).

Datasets from Centralia, PA, were generated in our research group. All other

metagenome data sets were obtained from MG-RAST ((http://metagenomics.anl.gov/).

The MG-RAST database was searched on May 15, 2017, with the following criteria:

material = soil, sequence type = shotgun, public = true. The resulting list of

metagenome data sets was ordered by number of base pairs (bp). Metagenomic data

sets with the most bp were only included if they were sequenced using Illumina to

standardize sequencing errors, had an available FASTQ file for internal quality control,

and contained < 30% low quality as determined by MG-RAST. Within high quality

Illumina samples, priority for inclusion was given to projects with multiple samples so

that comparisons could be made both within and between soil sites. When a project had

multiple samples, data sets with the greatest bp were selected. While we prioritized

samples with multiple datasets, several replicate samples were omitted early on due to

> 30% of data removed during quality filtering, and samples Illinois soil, Russian

permafrost, and Wyoming soil have just one sample. This search ultimately yielded 26

data sets from 12 locations and five countries (**Additional File 2**).

Soil metagenome processing and gene targeted assembly

Sequences from MG-RAST data sets as well as Centralia sample Cen13 were

quality controlled using the FASTX toolkit (fastq_quality_filter, "-Q33 -q 30 -p 50").

Twelve datasets from Centralia, PA, were obtained from the Joint Genome Institute and

quality filtered as described previously [76]. Quality filtered sequences were used in all

downstream analyses. For each data set, a gene targeted metagenome assembler [35]

was used to assemble each gene of interest. For each gene of interest, seed

sequences, HMMs, and reference gene databases described above were included. For

rplB, reference gene database, seed sequences, and HMMs from the Xander package

were used. In most instances, default assembly parameters were used except to

incorporate differences in protein length (i.e. protein is shorter than default 150 amino

acids) or to improve quality (i.e. maximum length is increased to improve specificity)

(**Additional File 11**). While the assembler includes chimera removal, additional quality

control steps were added. Final assembled sequences (operational taxonomic units,

OTUs) were searched against the reference gene database as well as the non-

redundant database (nr) from NCBI (August 28, 2017) using BLAST [74]. Genes were

re-examined if the top hit had an e-value $> 10^{-5}$ or if top hit descriptors were not the

target gene. Genes with low quality results were re-assembled with adjusted

parameters.

Soil metagenome comparison

To compare assembled sequences between samples, gene-based OTU tables

were constructed. Aligned sequences from each sample were dereplicated and

clustered at 90 amino acid identity using the RDP Classifier [77]. Dereplicated, clustered

sequences were converted into OTU tables with coverage-adjusted abundance. These

tables were subsequently analyzed in R [72]. RplB OTUs were used to compare

community structure. The six most abundant phyla were extracted to include at least

75% of each community; the full community structure is available. To compare the

abundance of arsenic related genes among data sets, total counts of *rplB* were used to

normalize the abundance of each OTU. Relative abundance of arsenic related genes

was also calculated for each sample.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent to publish

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials

The full arsenic related gene toolkit (BLAST databases, hidden Markov models,

and gene resources for Xander) is publicly available on GitHub

(https://github.com/ShadeLab/PAPER_Dunivin_meta_arsenic) [78]. Cultivation

dependent and cultivation independent Centralia metagenomes from this study are

available on NCBI under BioProject PRJNA492298 [79]. All other metagenomes are

publicly available, including those from Brazilian forest [80], California grassland [81],

Centralia [82], Disney preserve [83], Illinois soybean [84], Illinois switchgrass [85], Iowa

agricultural [86], Iowa corn [87], Iowa prairie [88], Mangrove [89], Minnesota grassland

[90], Permafrost Canada [91], Permafrost Russia [92], and Wyoming soil [93]. All

RefSoil+ and metagenome analyses from this work are also available on GitHub in the

HMM_search and gene_targeted_assembly directories respectively.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Funding

Metagenome sequencing was supported by the Joint Genome Institute Community

Science Project #1834 and by Michigan State University. The work conducted by the

U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) Joint Genome Institute, a DOE Office of Science

User Facility, is supported under Contract No. DE-AC02-05CH11231. TKD was

supported by the Ronald and Sharon Rogowski Fellowship for Food Safety and

Toxicology and the Russel B. DuVall Graduate Fellowship from the Department of

Microbiology and Molecular Genetics. SYY was supported through the Advanced

Computational Research Experience program funded by the National Science

Foundation under Grant No. 1560168. AS acknowledges support from the National

Science Foundation DEB# 1655425 and #1749544, from the USDA National Institute of

Food and Agriculture and Michigan State University AgBioResearch. AS and TKD

acknowledge support from the National Institutes of Health R25GM115335. The

funders had no role in the design of the study and collection, analysis, and interpretation

of data.

Authors' contributions

TKD and AS designed the study, TKD and SY contributed code and performed the
analysis, TKD and AS wrote the manuscript, all authors read and approved the
manuscript.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by Michigan State University with computing resources

provided by the Michigan State Institute for Cyber-Enabled Research. We thank the

Ribosomal Database Project for their advice on reference gene database construction.

References

1. Nelson MB, Martiny AC, Martiny JBH. Global biogeography of microbial nitrogen-

cycling traits in soil. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2016;113:8033–40.

2. Boon E, Meehan CJ, Whidden C, Wong DHJ, Langille MGI, Beiko RG. Interactions in

the microbiome: Communities of organisms and communities of genes. FEMS Microbiol

Rev. 2014;38:90–118.

3. Huang JH. Impact of microorganisms on arsenic biogeochemistry: A review. Water

Air Soil Pollut. 2014;225.

4. Páez-Espino D, Tamames J, De Lorenzo V, Cánovas D. Microbial responses to
environmental arsenic. BioMetals. 2009;22:117–30.

5. Watanabe T, Hirano S. Metabolism of arsenic and its toxicological relevance. Arch
Toxicol. 2013;87:969–79.

6. Huang H, Jia Y, Sun G-X, Zhu Y-G. Arsenic Speciation and Volatilization from
Flooded Paddy Soils Amended with Different Organic Matters. Environ Sci Technol.
2012;46:2163–8.

7. Mukai H, Ambe Y, Muku T, Takeshita K, Fukuma T. Seasonal variation of
methylarsenic compounds in airborne particulate matter. Nature. 1986;324:239–41.

8. Wang P, Sun G, Jia Y, Meharg AA, Zhu Y. A review on completing arsenic
biogeochemical cycle: Microbial volatilization of arsines in environment. J Environ Sci
(China). 2014;26:371–81. doi:10.1016/S1001-0742(13)60432-5.

9. Jia Y, Huang H, Zhong M, Wang F, Zhang L, Zhu Y-G. Microbial arsenic methylation
in soil and rice rhizosphere. Environ Sci Technol. 2013;47:3141–8.
doi:10.1021/es303649v.

10. Sforna MC, Philippot P, Somogyi A, Van Zuilen MA, Medjoubi K, Schoepp-Cothenet
B, et al. Evidence for arsenic metabolism and cycling by microorganisms 2.7 billion
years ago. Nat Geosci. 2014;7:811–5.

11. Zhu Y-G, Yoshinaga M, Zhao F-J, Rosen BP. Earth Abides Arsenic
Biotransformations. Annu Rev Earth Planet Sci. 2014;42.

12. Edwardson CF, Hollibaugh JT. Metatranscriptomic analysis of prokaryotic
communities active in sulfur and arsenic cycling in Mono Lake, California, USA. ISME J.
2017;11:2195–208. doi:10.1038/ismej.2017.80.

13. Andres J, Bertin PN. The microbial genomics of arsenic. FEMS Microbiol Rev.
2016;40:299–322. doi:10.1093/femsre/fuv050.

14. Rosen BP. Biochemistry of arsenic detoxification. FEBS Lett. 2002;529:86–92.
doi:10.1016/s0014-5793(02)03186-1.

15. Li X, Zhang L, Wang G. Genomic evidence reveals the extreme diversity and wide
distribution of the arsenic-related genes in Burkholderiales. PLoS One. 2014;9:1–11.

16. Crognale S, Amalfitano S, Casentini B, Fazi S, Petruccioli M, Rossetti S. Arsenic-
related microorganisms in groundwater: a review on distribution, metabolic activities and

potential use in arsenic removal processes. Rev Environ Sci Biotechnol. 2017;16:647–

65.

17. Plewniak F, Crognale S, Rossetti S, Bertin PN, Marco DE, Pelaez AI. A Genomic

Outlook on Bioremediation : The Case of Arsenic Removal. Front Microbiol. 2018;9.

18. Jackson CR, Dugas SL, Harrison KG. Enumeration and characterization of

arsenate-resistant bacteria in arsenic free soils. Soil Biol Biochem. 2005;37:2319–22.

19. Dunivin TK, Miller J, Shade A. Taxonomically-linked growth phenotypes during

arsenic stress among arsenic resistant bacteria isolated from soils overlying the

Centralia coal seam fire. PLoS One. 2018;13.

20. Zhu YG, Xue XM, Kappler A, Rosen BP, Meharg AA. Linking Genes to Microbial

Biogeochemical Cycling: Lessons from Arsenic. Environ Sci Technol. 2017;51:7326–39.

21. Kurth D, Amadio A, Ordoñez OF, Albarracín VH, Gärtner W, Farías ME. Arsenic

metabolism in high altitude modern stromatolites revealed by metagenomic analysis.

Sci Rep. 2017;7:1024. doi:10.1038/s41598-017-00896-0.

22. Chi L, Bian X, Gao B, Tu P, Ru H, Lu K. The effects of an environmentally relevant

level of arsenic on the gut microbiome and its functional metagenome. Toxicol Sci.

2017;160.

23. Rascovan N, Javier M, Martín P V, María EF. Metagenomic study of red biofilms

from Diamante Lake reveals ancient arsenic bioenergetics in haloarchaea Metagenomic

study of red biofilms from Diamante Lake reveals ancient arsenic bioenergetics in

haloarchaea. Int Soc Microb Ecol. 2016;109 July:1–11.

24. Costa PS, Reis MP, Avila MP, Leite LR, De Araujo FMG, Salim ACM, et al.

Metagenome of a microbial community inhabiting a metal-rich tropical stream sediment.

PLoS One. 2015;10.

25. Cai L, Yu K, Yang Y, Chen BW, Li XD, Zhang T. Metagenomic exploration reveals

high levels of microbial arsenic metabolism genes in activated sludge and coastal

sediments. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol. 2013;97:9579–88.

26. Babilonia J, Conesa A, Casaburi G, Pereira C, Louyakis AS, Reid RP, et al.

Comparative metagenomics provides insight into the ecosystem functioning of the

Shark Bay Stromatolites, Western Australia. Front Microbiol. 2018;9.

27. Ajees AA, Yang J, Rosen BP. The ArsD as(III) metallochaperone. BioMetals.

2011;24:391–9.

28. Qin J, Rosen BP, Zhang Y, Wang G, Franke S, Rensing C. Arsenic detoxification

and evolution of trimethylarsine gas by a microbial arsenite S-adenosylmethionine

methyltransferase. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2006;103:2075–80.

29. Muller D, Lièvremont D, Simeonova DD, Jean-Claude H, Lett M-C. Arsenite oxidase

aox genes from a metal-resistant beta-proteobacterium. J Bacteriol. 2003;185:135–41.

30. Saltikov CW, Newman DK. Genetic identification of a respiratory arsenate

reductase. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2003;100:10983–8. doi:10.1073/pnas.1834303100.

31. Zargar K, Conrad A, Bernick DL, Lowe TM, Stolc V, Hoeft S, et al. ArxA, a new

clade of arsenite oxidase within the DMSO reductase family of molybdenum

oxidoreductases. Environ Microbiol. 2012;14:1635–45.

32. Camacho C, Coulouris G, Avagyan V, Ma N, Papadopoulos J, Bealer K, et al.

BLAST+: Architecture and applications. BMC Bioinformatics. 2009;10:1–9.

33. Fish JA, Chai B, Wang Q, Sun Y, Brown CT, Tiedje JM, et al. FunGene: The

functional gene pipeline and repository. Front Microbiol. 2013;4.

34. Eddy SR. Hidden Markov models. Curr Opin Struct Biol. 1996;6:361–5.

35. Wang Q, Fish JA, Gilman M, Sun Y, Brown CT, Tiedje JM, et al. Xander: employing

a novel method for efficient gene-targeted metagenomic assembly. Microbiome. 2015;3.

36. Dunivin TK, Choi J, Howe A, Shade A. RefSoil+: a Reference Database for Genes

and Traits of Soil Plasmids. mSystems. 2019;4. doi:10.1128/mSystems.00349-18.

37. Mikael Sehlin H, Börje Lindström E. Oxidation and reduction of arsenic by

Sulfolobus acidocaldarius strain BC. FEMS Microbiol Lett. 1992;93:87–92.

38. Blomberg SP, Jr TG, Ives AR. Testing for phylogenetic signal in comparative data:

behavioral traits are more labile. Evolution. 2003;57:717–45. doi:10.1111/j.0014-

3820.2003.tb00285.x.

39. Cai L, Liu G, Rensing C, Wang G. Genes involved in arsenic transformation and

resistance associated with different levels of arsenic-contaminated soils. BMC Microbiol.

2009;9:4.

40. Achour AR, Bauda P, Billard P. Diversity of arsenite transporter genes from arsenic-

resistant soil bacteria. Res Microbiol. 2007;158:128–37.

41. Choi J, Yang F, Stepanauskas R, Cardenas E, Garoutte A, Williams R, et al.

Strategies to improve reference databases for soil microbiomes. ISME J. 2017;11:829–34.

42. Thompson LR, Sanders JG, McDonald D, Amir A, Ladau J, Locey KJ, et al. A communal catalogue reveals Earth's multiscale microbial diversity. Nature. 2017;551:457–63. doi:10.1038/nature24621.

43. Bergmann GT, Bates ST, Eilers KG, Lauber CL, Caporaso JG, Walters WA, et al. The under-recognized dominance of Verrucomicrobia in soil bacterial communities. Soil Biol Biochem. 2011;43:1450–5. doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2011.03.012.

44. Johnson L, Eddy S, Portugaly E. Hidden Markov Model Speed Heuristic and Iterative HMM Search Procedure. BMC Bioinformatics. 2011;39.

45. Quemeneur M, Heinrich-Salmeron A, Muller D, Lièvremont D, Jauzein M, Bertin PN, et al. Diversity Surveys and Evolutionary Relationships of aoxB Genes in Aerobic Arsenite-Oxidizing Bacteria. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2008;74:4567–73. doi:10.1128/AEM.02851-07.

46. Inskeep WP, Macur RE, Hamamura N, Warelow TP, Ward SA, Santini JM. Detection, diversity and expression of aerobic bacterial arsenite oxidase genes. Environ Microbiol. 2007;9:934–43.

47. Achour AR, Bauda P, Billard P. Diversity of arsenite transporter genes from arsenic-resistant soil bacteria. Res Microbiol. 2007;158:128–37.

48. Sun Y, Polishchuk EA, Radoja U, Cullen WR. Identification and quantification of arsC genes in environmental samples by using real-time PCR. J Microbiol Methods. 2004;58:335–49.

49. Villegas-Torres MF, Bedoya-Reina OC, Salazar C, Vives-Florez MJ, Dussan J. Horizontal arsC gene transfer among microorganisms isolated from arsenic polluted soil. Int Biodeterior Biodegrad. 2011;65:147–52. doi:10.1016/j.ibiod.2010.10.007.

50. Song B, Chyun E, Jaffé PR, Ward BB. Molecular methods to detect and monitor dissimilatory arsenate-respiring bacteria (DARB) in sediments. FEMS Microbiol Ecol. 2009;68:108–17.

51. Mirza BS, Sorensen DL, Dupont RR, McLean JE. New arsenate reductase gene (arrA) PCR primers for diversity assessment and quantification in environmental samples. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2017;83.

52. Malasarn D, Saltikov CW, Campbell KM, Santini JM, Hering JG, Newman DK. arrA

Is a Reliable Marker for As(V) Respiration. Science (80-). 2004;306:455.

53. Villegas-Torres MF, Bedoya-Reina OC, Salazar C, Vives-Florez MJ, Dussan J.

Horizontal arsC gene transfer among microorganisms isolated from arsenic polluted

soil. Int Biodeterior Biodegrad. 2011;65:147–52.

54. Palmgren M, Engström K, Hallström BM, Wahlberg K, Søndergaard DA, Sall T, et

al. AS3MT-mediated tolerance to arsenic evolved by multiple independent horizontal

gene transfers from bacteria to eukaryotes. PLoS One. 2017;12:1–22.

55. Chen S-C, Sun G-X, Rosen BP, Zhang S-Y, Deng Y, Zhu B-K, et al. Recurrent

horizontal transfer of arsenite methyltransferase genes facilitated adaptation of life to

arsenic. Sci Rep. 2017;7:7741. doi:10.1038/s41598-017-08313-2.

56. Wang L, Wang J, Jing C. Comparative genomic analysis reveals organization,

function and evolution of ars genes in Pantoea spp. Front Microbiol. 2017;8.

57. Lee S, Rakic-Martinez M, Graves LM, Ward TJ, Siletzky RM, Kathariou S. Genetic

determinants for cadmium and arsenic resistance among Listeria monocytogenes

serotype 4B isolates from sporadic human listeriosis patients. Appl Environ Microbiol.

2013;79:2471–6.

58. Jackson CR, Dugas SL. Phylogenetic analysis of bacterial and archaeal arsC gene

sequences suggests an ancient, common origin for arsenate reductase. BMC Evol Biol.

2003;3:18.

59. Bahar MM, Megharaj M, Naidu R. Bioremediation of arsenic-contaminated water:

Recent advances and future prospects. Water Air Soil Pollut. 2013;224:1–20.

60. Escudero L V, Casamayor EO, Chong G, Pedrós-Alió C, Demergasso C.

Distribution of microbial arsenic reduction, oxidation and extrusion genes along a wide

range of environmental arsenic concentrations. PLoS One. 2013;8:e78890.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0078890.

61. Zhao FJ, Harris E, Yan J, Ma J, Wu L, Liu W, et al. Arsenic methylation in soils and

its relationship with microbial arsM abundance and diversity, and As speciation in rice.

Environ Sci Technol. 2013;47:7147–54.

62. Qiao JT, Li XM, Hu M, Li FB, Young LY, Sun WM, et al. Transcriptional Activity of

Arsenic-Reducing Bacteria and Genes Regulated by Lactate and Biochar during

Arsenic Transformation in Flooded Paddy Soil. Environ Sci Technol. 2018;52:61–70.

63. Li R, Chai M, Qiu GY. Distribution, fraction, and ecological assessment of heavy

metals in sediment-plant system in mangrove forest, South China Sea. PLoS One.

2016;11:1–15.

64. Chatterjee M, Massolo S, Sarkar SK, Bhattacharya AK, Bhattacharya BD, Satpathy

KK, et al. An assessment of trace element contamination in intertidal sediment cores of

Sunderban mangrove wetland, India for evaluating sediment quality guidelines. Environ

Monit Assess. 2009;150:307–22.

65. Chaudhuri P, Nath B, Birch G. Accumulation of trace metals in grey mangrove

Avicennia marina fine nutritive roots: The role of rhizosphere processes. Mar Pollut Bull.

2014;79:284–92. doi:10.1016/j.marpolbul.2013.11.024.

66. Fahy A, Giloteaux L, Bertin PN, Le Paslier D, Médigue C, Weissenbach J, et al. 16S

rRNA and As-Related Functional Diversity: Contrasting Fingerprints in Arsenic-Rich

Sediments from an Acid Mine Drainage. Microb Ecol. 2015;70:154–67.

67. The Uniprot Consortium T. UniProt: the universal protein knowledgebase. Nucleic

Acids Res. 2017;45.

68. Tatusov RL, Galperin MY, Natale DA, Koonin E V. The COG database: a tool for

genome-scale analysis of protein functions and evolution. Nucleic Acids Res.

2000;28:33–6.

69. Edgar RC. MUSCLE: a multiple sequence alignment method with reduced time and

space complexity. BMC Bioinformatics. 2004;5:113.

70. Kumar S, Stecher G, Tamura K. MEGA7: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis

version 7.0 for bigger datasets. Mol Biol Evol. 2016;33:1870–4.

doi:10.1093/molbev/msw054.

71. Mukherjee S, Stamatis D, Bertsch J, Ovchinnikova G, Verezemska O, Isbandi M, et

al. Genomes OnLine Database (GOLD) v.6: Data updates and feature enhancements.

Nucleic Acids Res. 2017;45:D446–56.

72. R Core Team. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. 2017.

73. Stamatakis A. RAxML Version 8: A tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-analysis

of large phylogenies. Bioinformatics. 2014;30.

74. Camacho C, Coulouris G, Avagyan V, Ma N, Papadopoulos J, Bealer K, et al.

BLAST+: architecture and applications. BMC Bioinformatics. 2008;10.

75. Cho J-C, Lee D-H, Cho Y-C, Cho J-C, Kim S-J. Direct Extraction of DNA from Soil for Amplification of 16S rRNA Gene Sequences by Polymerase Chain Reaction. J Microbiol. 2006;34:229–35.

76. Dunivin TK, Shade A. Community structure explains antibiotic resistance gene dynamics over a temperature gradient in soil. FEMS Microbiol Ecol. 2018;94.

77. Wang Q, Garrity GM, Tiedje JM, Cole JR. Naive Bayesian classifier for rapid assignment of rRNA sequences into the new bacterial taxonomy. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2007;73.

78. Dunivin TK, Yeh SS, Shade A. Toolkit for detecting arsenic resistance genes. GitHub. 2019. https://github.com/ShadeLab/PAPER_Dunivin_meta_arsenic.

79. Shade A. Surface soil microbial communities from active vent of coal mine fire in Centralia Pennsylvania. NCBI. 2018. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA492298.

80. Bohannan B. ARMO (mgp3731). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=3731.

81. Allison SD. Loma_Ridge_grassland (mgp1992). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=1992.

82. Shade A. Surface soil microbial communities from Centralia Pennsylvania, which are recovering from an underground coalmine fire. Joint Genome Institute Integrated Microbial Genomes & Microbiomes.

83. Stanish LF. NEON Soil Metagenomes (mgp13948). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=13948.

84. Hartman G. ISA-SMC-2011 (mgp2076). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=2076.

85. Meyer F. Fermi-syntheticlongreads (mgp14596). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=14596.

86. Hofmockel KS. Hofmockel Soil Aggregate COB KBASE (mgp2592). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=2592.

87. Brown TC. GP corn unassembled (mgp6368). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=6368.

88. Brown TC. GED prairie unassembled (mgp6377). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-

rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=6377.

89. Shu-Chien A. Mining of new genes and pathways from soil of mangrove forest

(mgp11628). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=11628.

90. Zak D. CedarCreek_minsoil_June2013 (mgp5588). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-

rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=5588.

91. Onstott T. Axel Heiberg Permafrost: Part 4A, Unassembled Metagenomes

(mgp252). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=252.

92. Rivkina E. Permafrost sediments, North-East Siberia, Kolyma lowland (mgp7176).

MG-RAST. http://www.mg-rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=mgp7176.

93. Zak D. Ungulate Exclosure 2015 (mgp15600). MG-RAST. http://www.mg-

rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=15600.

 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Arsenic resistance and metabolism gene toolkit schematic. A) Seed

sequences for nine arsenic resistance genes were used to construct an arsenic

resistance gene database with existing tools [33, 35, 44, 74]. Lines indicate

interdependence between modules. **B)** Table of arsenic resistance and metabolism

genes included in the toolkit. The toolkit is freely available on GitHub:

github.com/ShadeLab/meta_arsenic

Figure 2. Arsenic resistance and metabolism genes in RefSoil+ organisms. A)

Maximum likelihood tree of 16S rRNA genes in RefSoil+ organisms. Bootstrap

support > 50 is shown with black circles. Tree branches and the first ring are

colored by organism taxonomy. Each node is annotated with arsenic resistance

genotype where color indicates the gene. Filled boxes indicate gene presence on

chromosome, and open boxes indicate gene presence on plasmid. **B)** Proportion

of RefSoil+ organisms and organisms containing arsenic resistance genes are

colored by the taxonomy of the organism containing the gene. "None" refers to the

number of genomes that do not test positive for any of the nine arsenic resistance

genes analyzed. Note the difference between y-axes.

Figure 3. Phylogeny of arsenite efflux pumps in RefSoil+ organisms. Maximum

likelihood tree with 100 bootstrap replications of **A)** Acr3 and **B)** ArsB sequences

predicted from RefSoil+ genomes. Tree scale = 1. Leaf tip color indicates phylum-

level taxonomy. Bootstrap values > 50 are represented by black circles within the

tree. Grey circles on the exterior of the tree indicate that a hit was detected on a

plasmid and not a chromosome.

Figure 4. Phylogeny of cytoplasmic arsenate reductases in RefSoil+ organisms.

Maximum likelihood tree with 100 bootstrap replications of **A)** ArsC (trx) and **B)**

ArsC (grx) sequences predicted from RefSoil+ genomes. Tree scale = 1. Leaf tip

color indicates phylum-level taxonomy. Bootstrap values > 50 are represented by

black circles within the tree. Grey circles on the exterior of the tree indicate that a

hit was detected on a plasmid and not a chromosome.

Figure 5. Phylogeny of ArsM in RefSoil+ organisms. Maximum likelihood tree with

100 bootstrap replications of ArsM sequences predicted from RefSoil+ genomes.

Tree scale = 1. Leaf tip color indicates phylum-level taxonomy. Bootstrap values >

50 are represented by black circles within the tree. Grey circles on the exterior of

the tree indicate that a hit was detected on a plasmid and not a chromosome.

Figure 6. Phylogeny of AioA, ArrA, and ArxA in RefSoil+ organisms. Maximum

likelihood tree with 100 bootstrap replications of dissimilatory arsenic resistance

proteins predicted from RefSoil+ genomes. Tree scale = 0.1. Leaf tips show the

name of the RefSoil+ organisms and background color indicates phylum-level

taxonomy. Bootstrap values > 50 are represented by black circles within the tree.

Figure 7. Comparison of arsenic resistance and metabolism gene abundance

between cultivation dependent and cultivation independent methods. A)

Mean normalized abundance of arsenic related genes based on RefSoil

microorganisms abundance estimated from corresponding 16S rRNA gene

abundance in Earth Microbiome Project datasets. Points are colored by soil order.

B) Normalized abundance of arsenic resistance genes in RefSoil+ and 38

metagenomes. Metagenome abundance was normalized to *rplB*, and RefSoil+

normalized abundance was calculated using the number of RefSoil+ genomes.

Only metagenomes with an arsenic resistance gene detected are shown, and the

total number of datasets (including RefSoil+) is shown in parentheses. **C)** *rplB*-

normalized abundance of arsenic resistance genes in cultivation dependent and

independent metagenomes from the same soil sample.

Figure 8. Arsenic resistance and metabolism gene biogeography. A) Relative

abundance of arsenic resistance genes in soil metagenomes. **B)** Rank *rplB*-

normalized abundance of arsenic related genes in soil metagenomes. Sites are

ordered by rank mean abundance. Note the differences in y axes. **C)**

Abundance-occurrence plots of arsenic related gene sequences clustered at

90% amino acid identity. Number of samples included are as follows Brazilian

forest n = 3, California grassland n = 2, Centralia active n = 7, Centralia

recovered n = 5, Centralia reference n = 1, Disney preserve n = 2, Illinois

soybean n = 2, Illinois switchgrass n = 1, Iowa agricultural n = 2, Iowa corn n = 2,

Iowa prairie n = 3, Mangrove n = 2, Minnesota grassland n = 2, Permafrost

Canada n = 2, Permafrost Russia n = 1, and Wyoming soil n = 1.

Additional files legends

Additional File 1. Available metadata and accession numbers for soil metagenomes used in this study.

    Document Name: Additional_File_1.docx
    Document Format: Word
    Document Size: 23 KB

Additional File 2. Phylum-level summary of arsenic related genes in RefSoil+ chromosomes and plasmids.

    Document Name: Additional_File_2.docx
    Document Format: Excel
    Document Size: 15 KB

Additional File 3. Phylogeny of Acr3 in RefSoil+ organisms. Maximum likelihood tree with 100 bootstrap replications of Acr3 sequences predicted from RefSoil+ genomes. Leaf tips show the name of the RefSoil+ organisms and background color indicates phylum-level taxonomy. Bootstrap values > 50 are represented by black circles within the tree.

    Document Name: Additional_File_3.png
    Document Format: PNG
    Document Size: 4.5 MB

Additional File 4. Phylogeny of ArsB in RefSoil+ organisms. Maximum likelihood tree with 100 bootstrap replications of ArsB sequences predicted from RefSoil+ genomes. Leaf tips show the name of the RefSoil+ organisms and background color indicates phylum-level taxonomy. Bootstrap values > 50 are represented by black circles within the tree.

    Document Name: Additional_File_4.png
    Document Format: PNG
    Document Size: 9.6 MB

Additional File 5. Phylogeny of ArsC (trx) in RefSoil+ organisms. Maximum likelihood

tree with 100 bootstrap replications of ArsC (trx) sequences predicted from RefSoil+
genomes. Leaf tips show the name of the RefSoil+ organisms and background color
indicates phylum-level taxonomy. Bootstrap values > 50 are represented by black circles
within the tree.

Document Name: Additional_File_5.png
Document Format: PNG
Document Size: 2 MB
950

Additional File 6. Phylogeny of ArsC (grx) in RefSoil+ organisms. Maximum
likelihood tree with 100 bootstrap replications of ArsC (grx) sequences predicted from
RefSoil+ genomes. Leaf tips show the name of the RefSoil+ organisms and background
color indicates phylum-level taxonomy. Bootstrap values > 50 are represented by black
circles within the tree.

Document Name: Additional_File_6.png
Document Format: PNG
Document Size: 4.9 MB
960

Additional File 7. Phylogeny of ArsM in RefSoil+ organisms. Maximum likelihood tree
with 100 bootstrap replications of ArsM sequences predicted from RefSoil+ genomes.
Leaf tips show the name of the RefSoil+ organisms and background color indicates
phylum-level taxonomy. Bootstrap values > 50 are represented by black circles within the
tree.

Document Name: Additional_File_7.eps
Document Format: EPS
Document Size: 6.2 MB
970

Additional File 8. **Histogram of arsenic related gene copy numbers in RefSoil+**
organisms. Total copy number is based on hits from both chromosomes and plasmids
from the same organism.

Document Name: Additional_File_8.eps
Document Format: EPS
Document Size: 25 KB

Additional File 9. Phylum-level community structure of soil metagenomes in this
study.
Document Name: Additional_File_9.eps
Document Format: EPS
Document Size: 67 KB

Additional File 10. Summary of endemic arsenic related gene sequences. A sequence

was considered endemic if it was present in less than three different soil sites.

Document Name: Additional_File_10.docx
Document Format: Word
Document Size: 45 KB

Additional File 11. Summary of reference arsenic resistance and metabolism gene

sequences from FunGene databases.

Document Name: Additional_File_11.docx
Document Format: Word
Document Size: 53 KB

1000

Figure 1

A

Hidden markov models for searching amino acid sequences

Gene database for current sequences and primer design

BLAST databases for amino acid and/or nucleotide sequences

Gene-targeted assembly of metagenomes

B

Gene	Category	Encoded function	Reference
acr3	Detoxification	arsenite permease	[8]
arsB	Detoxification	arsenite permease	[8]
arsC (grx)	Detoxification	cytoplasmic arsenate reductase	[8]
arsC (trx)	Detoxification	cytoplasmic arsenate reductase	[8]
arsD	Detoxification	transcriptional repressor and metallochaperone	[37]
arsM	Metabolism	arsenite methyltransferase	[38]
aioA	Metabolism	arsenite oxidase (large subunit)	[39]
arrA	Metabolism	dissimilatory arsenate reductase (large subunit)	[40]
arxA	Metabolism	arsenite oxidase (molybdopterin subunit)	[41]

Figure 2

Figure 3

Phylum

a Acidobacteria	**f** Chlamydiae	**k** Deferribacteres	**p** Gemmatimonadetes	**u** Synergistetes
b Actinobacteria	**g** Chlorobi	**l** Deinococcus-Thermus	**q** Nitrospirae	**v** Tenericutes
c Aquificae	**h** Chloroflexi	**m** Euryarchaeota	**r** Planctomycetes	**w** Terrabacteria
d Armatimonadetes	**i** Crenarchaeota	**n** Firmicutes	**s** Proteobacteria	**x** Thermotogae
e Bacteroidetes	**j** Cyanobacteria	**o** Fusobacteria	**t** Spirochaetes	**y** Verrucomicrobia

Figure 4

Phylum			
a Acidobacteria	**f** Chlamydiae	**k** Deferribacteres	**p** Gemmatimonadetes	**u** Synergistetes
b Actinobacteria	**g** Chlorobi	**l** Deinococcus-Thermus	**q** Nitrospirae	**v** Tenericutes
c Aquificae	**h** Chloroflexi	**m** Euryarchaeota	**r** Planctomycetes	**w** Terrabacteria
d Armatimonadetes	**i** Crenarchaeota	**n** Firmicutes	**s** Proteobacteria	**x** Thermotogae
e Bacteroidetes	**j** Cyanobacteria	**o** Fusobacteria	**t** Spirochaetes	**y** Verrucomicrobia

Figure 5

Phylum

a	Acidobacteria	n	Firmicutes
b	Actinobacteria	o	Fusobacteria
c	Aquificae	p	Gemmatimonadetes
d	Armatimonadetes	q	Nitrospirae
e	Bacteroidetes	r	Planctomycetes
f	Chlamydiae	s	Proteobacteria
g	Chlorobi	t	Spirochaetes
h	Chloroflexi	u	Synergistetes
i	Crenarchaeota	v	Tenericutes
j	Cyanobacteria	w	Terrabacteria
k	Deferribacteres	x	Thermotogae
l	Deinococcus-Thermus	y	Verrucomicrobia
m	Euryarchaeota		

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8