

1 **Genomic characterization and computational phenotyping of nitrogen-fixing**
2 **bacteria isolated from Colombian sugarcane fields**

3
4 Luz K. Medina-Cordoba^{a,b}, Aroon T. Chande^{a,b,c}, Lavanya Rishishwar^{a,b,c}, Leonard W.
5 Mayer^{b,c}, Lina C. Valderrama-Aguirre^{b,d}, Augusto Valderrama-Aguirre^{b,e,f}, John Christian
6 Gaby^{a,g}, Joel E. Kostka^{a,b,#} and I. King Jordan^{a,b,c,#}

7
8 ^aSchool of Biological Sciences, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Georgia, USA

9 ^bPanAmerican Bioinformatics Institute, Cali, Valle del Cauca, Colombia

10 ^cApplied Bioinformatics Laboratory, Atlanta, Georgia, USA

11 ^dLaboratory of Microorganismal Production (Bioinoculums), Department of Field
12 Research in Sugarcane, INCAUCA S.A.S., Cali, Valle del Cauca, Colombia

13 ^eBiomedical Research Institute (COL0082529), Cali, Valle del Cauca, Colombia

14 ^fUniversidad Santiago de Cali, Cali, Colombia.

15 ^gFaculty of Chemistry, Biotechnology and Food Science, Norwegian University of Life
16 Sciences, Ås, Norway

17 Running Head: Computational phenotyping of nitrogen-fixing bacteria

18

19 #Address computational correspondence to king.jordan@biology.gatech.edu

20 *Present address: 950 Atlantic Dr NW, Atlanta, GA 30332

21

22 #Address microbiology correspondence to joel.kostka@biology.gatech.edu

23 *Present address: 310 Ferst Dr NW, Atlanta, GA 30332

24

25 **KEYWORDS:** biofertilizer, nitrogen fixation, plant growth promoter, genome
26 sequencing, computational phenotyping

27 **ABSTRACT** Previous studies have shown that the sugarcane microbiome harbors diverse
28 plant growth promoting (PGP) microorganisms, including nitrogen-fixing bacteria, and the
29 objective of this study was to design a genome-enabled approach to prioritize sugarcane
30 associated nitrogen-fixing bacteria according to their potential as biofertilizers. Using a
31 systematic high throughput approach, 22 pure cultures of nitrogen-fixing bacteria were isolated
32 and tested for diazotrophic potential by PCR amplification of nitrogenase (*nifH*) genes, common
33 molecular markers for nitrogen fixation capacity. Genome sequencing confirmed the presence
34 of intact nitrogenase *nifH* genes and operons in the genomes of 18 of the isolates. Isolate
35 genomes also encoded operons for phosphate solubilization, siderophore production operons,
36 and other PGP phenotypes. *Klebsiella pneumoniae* strains comprised 14 of the 22 nitrogen-
37 fixing isolates, and four others were members of closely related genera to *Klebsiella*. A
38 computational phenotyping approach was developed to rapidly screen for strains that have high
39 potential for nitrogen fixation and other PGP phenotypes while showing low risk for virulence
40 and antibiotic resistance. The majority of sugarcane isolates were below a genotypic and
41 phenotypic threshold, showing uniformly low predicted virulence and antibiotic resistance
42 compared to clinical isolates. Six prioritized strains were experimentally evaluated for PGP
43 phenotypes: nitrogen fixation, phosphate solubilization, and the production of siderophores,
44 gibberellic acid and indole acetic acid. Results from the biochemical assays were consistent
45 with the computational phenotype predictions for these isolates. Our results indicate that
46 computational phenotyping is a promising tool for the assessment of benefits and risks
47 associated with bacteria commonly detected in agricultural ecosystems.

48 **IMPORTANCE** A genome-enabled approach was developed for the prioritization of
49 native bacterial isolates with the potential to serve as biofertilizers for sugarcane fields
50 in Colombia's Cauca Valley. The approach is based on computational phenotyping,
51 which entails predictions related to traits of interest based on bioinformatic analysis of
52 whole genome sequences. Bioinformatic predictions of the presence of plant growth
53 promoting traits were validated with experimental assays and more extensive genome
54 comparisons, thereby demonstrating the utility of computational phenotyping for
55 assessing the benefits and risks posed by bacterial isolates that can be used as
56 biofertilizers. The quantitative approach to computational phenotyping developed here
57 for the discovery of biofertilizers has the potential for use with a broad range of
58 applications in environmental and industrial microbiology, food safety, water quality, and
59 antibiotic resistance studies.

60 INTRODUCTION

61 The human population is expected to double in size within the next 50 years,
62 which will in turn lead to a massive increase in the global demand for food (1). Given
63 the scarcity of arable land worldwide, an increase in agricultural production of this
64 magnitude will require vast increases in cropping intensity and yield (2). It has been
65 estimated that as much as 90% of the increase in global crop production will need to
66 come from increased yield alone (3). At the same time, climate change and other
67 environmental challenges will necessitate the development of agricultural practices that
68 are more ecologically friendly and sustainable.

69 Chemical fertilizers that provide critical macronutrients to crops – such as
70 nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), potassium (K), and sulfur (S) – are widely used to
71 maximize agricultural yield (4). The application of chemical fertilizers represents a
72 major cost for agricultural companies and also contributes to environmental damage, in
73 the form of eutrophication, hypoxia, harmful algal blooms, and air pollution through the
74 formation of microparticles (5). Biological fertilizers (biofertilizers) are comprised of
75 microbial inoculants that promote plant growth, thereby representing an alternative or
76 complementary approach for increasing crop yield, which is more sustainable and
77 environmentally friendly. Biofertilizers augment plant growth through nutrient
78 acquisition, hormone production, and by boosting immunity to pathogens (6).

79 Sugarcane is a tall, perennial grass cultivated in tropical and warm temperate
80 regions around the world, which is capable of producing high concentrations of sugar
81 (sucrose) and diverse byproducts (7). Sugarcane is consistently ranked as one of the
82 top ten planted crops in the world (8). Sugarcane agriculture plays a vital role in the

83 economy of Colombia by supporting the production of food products and biofuel
84 (ethanol). The long-term goals of this work are to develop more effective and
85 sustainable sugarcane cropping practices in Colombia by simultaneously (i) increasing
86 crop yield, and (ii) decreasing the reliance on chemical fertilizers via the discovery,
87 characterization, and application of endemic (native) biofertilizers to Colombian
88 sugarcane fields.

89 Most sugarcane companies in Colombia currently use commercially available
90 biofertilizers, consisting primarily of nitrogen-fixing bacteria, which were discovered and
91 isolated from other countries (primarily Brazil), with limited success. We hypothesized
92 that indigenous bacteria should be better adapted to the local environment and thereby
93 serve as more effective biofertilizers for Colombian sugarcane. The use of indigenous
94 bacteria as biofertilizers should also mitigate potential threats to the environment posed
95 by non-native, and potentially invasive, species of bacteria. Finally, indigenous bacteria
96 represent a renewable resource that agronomists can continually develop through
97 isolation and cultivation of local strains.

98 The advent of next-generation sequencing technologies has catalyzed the
99 development of genome-enabled approaches to harness plant microbiomes in
100 sustainable agriculture (9, 10). The objective of this study was to use genome analysis
101 to predict the local bacterial isolates that have the greatest potential for plant growth
102 promotion while representing the lowest risk for virulence and antibiotic resistance.
103 Putative biofertilizer strains were isolated and cultivated from Colombian sugarcane
104 fields, and computational phenotyping was employed to predict their potential utility as
105 biofertilizers. We then performed a laboratory evaluation of the predicted plant growth

106 promoting properties of the prioritized bacterial biofertilizer isolates, with the aim of
107 validating our computational phenotyping approach.

108

109 **RESULTS**

110 **Initial genome characterization of putative nitrogen-fixing bacteria.** A
111 systematic cultivation approach, incorporating seven carbon substrates in nitrogen-free
112 media (Fig. S1), was employed to isolate putative nitrogen-fixing bacteria from four
113 different sugarcane plant compartments, and isolates were screened for nitrogen
114 fixation potential through PCR amplification of *nifH* genes. This initial screening
115 procedure yielded several hundred clonal isolates of putative nitrogen-fixing bacteria,
116 and Ribosomal Intergenic Spacer Analysis (RISA) was subsequently used to identify the
117 (presumably) genetically unique strains from the larger set of clonal isolates. A total of
118 22 potentially unique strains of putative nitrogen-fixing bacteria were isolated in this way
119 and selected for genome sequence analysis.

120 Genome sequencing and assembly summary statistics for the 22 isolates are
121 shown in Table 1. Isolate genomes were sequenced to an average of 67x coverage
122 (range: 50x – 88x) and genome sizes range from 4.5Mb to 6.1Mb. GC content varies
123 from 41.82% – 66.69%, with a distinct mode at ~57%. The genome assemblies are
124 robust with a range of 24 – 294 contigs ≥ 500 bp in length and averages of
125 $N_{50}=310,166$ bp and $L_{50}=8.4$. Genome sequence assemblies, along with their
126 functional annotations, can all be found using the NCBI BioProject PRJNA418312.

127 Individual BioSample, Genbank Accession, and Assembly Accession numbers for the
128 22 isolates are shown in Table S1.

129 **Comparative genomic analysis.** Average nucleotide identity (ANI; Fig. 1) and
130 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis (Fig. S2) were employed in the taxonomic
131 assignment of nitrogen-fixing isolates and the results of both approaches were highly
132 concordant (Table 2), with ANI yielding superior resolution to 16S rRNA gene sequence
133 analysis. A total of eight different species and seven different genera were identified
134 among the 22 isolates characterized. Analysis of *nifH* gene sequences also gave
135 similar results; however, four of the isolates were not found to encode *nifH* genes,
136 despite their (apparent) ability to grow on nitrogen-free media and the positive *nifH* PCR
137 results. This could be due to false-positives in the original PCR analysis for the
138 presence of *nifH* genes, or to changes in the composition of (possibly mixed) bacterial
139 cultures during subsequent growth steps after the initial isolation on nitrogen-free
140 media.

141 The majority of isolates, 14 of 22, were characterized as *Klebsiella pneumoniae*,
142 consistent with previous studies showing that *K. pneumoniae* strains are capable of
143 fixing nitrogen (11); in fact, the canonical *nif* operons were defined in the *K. pneumoniae*
144 type strain 342 genome sequence (12). *K. pneumoniae* is also known to be an
145 opportunistic pathogen that can cause disease in immunocompromised human hosts
146 (13), which raises obvious safety concerns regarding its application to crops as part of a
147 biofertilizer inoculum. We performed a comparative sequence analysis between the
148 endophytic nitrogen-fixing *K. pneumoniae* type strain 342, which is capable of infecting
149 the mouse urinary tract and lung (14), and five of the isolates identified as *K.*

150 *pneumoniae* here. All genomes were shown to contain the *nif* cluster, which contains
151 five functionally related *nif* operons involved in nitrogen fixation (Fig. 2). In contrast, the
152 four most critical pathogenicity islands implicated in the virulence of *K. pneumoniae* 342
153 were all missing in the environmental *K. pneumoniae* isolates characterized here (PAI
154 1-4 in Fig. 2A). The absence of pathogenicity islands in the genome of the endophytic
155 nitrogen-fixer *K. michiganensis* Kd70 was associated with an inability to infect the
156 urinary tract in mice (15). Our results indicate that nitrogen-fixing *K. pneumoniae*
157 environmental isolates from Colombian sugarcane fields do not pose a health risk
158 compared to clinical and environmental isolates that have previously been associated
159 with pathogenicity. We explore this possibility in more detail in the following section on
160 computational phenotyping.

161 The *nifH* genes from the *Klebsiella* isolates characterized here form two distinct
162 phylogenetic clusters (Fig. 3). This finding is consistent with previous results showing
163 multiple clades of *nifH* among *Klebsiella* genome sequences (16-18) and underscores
164 the potential functional diversity, with respect to nitrogen fixation, for the sugarcane
165 isolates.

166 **Computational phenotyping.** Computational phenotyping, also referred to as
167 reverse genomics, was used to evaluate the potential of the bacterial isolates
168 characterized here to serve as biofertilizers for Colombian sugarcane fields. For the
169 purpose of this study, computational phenotyping entails the prediction of specific
170 organismal phenotypes, or biochemical capacities, based on the analysis of functionally
171 annotated genome sequences (19). The goal of the computational phenotyping
172 performed here was to identify isolates that show the highest predicted capacity for

173 plant growth promotion while presenting the lowest risk to human populations.
174 Accordingly, bacterial isolate genome sequences were screened for gene features that
175 correspond to the desirable (positive) characteristics of (i) nitrogen fixation and (ii) plant
176 growth promotion and the disadvantageous (negative) characteristics of (iii) virulence
177 and (iv) antimicrobial resistance. Genome sequences were scored and ranked
178 according to the combined presence or absence of these four categories of gene
179 features as described in the Materials and Methods. To compute genome scores, the
180 presence of nitrogenase and plant growth promoting genes contribute positive values,
181 whereas the presence of virulence factors and predicted antibiotic resistance yield
182 negative values. Scores for each of the four specific phenotypic categories were
183 normalized and combined to yield a single composite score for each bacterial isolate
184 genome. The highest scoring isolates are predicted as best candidates to be included
185 as part of a sugarcane biofertilizer inoculum (Figure 4; Table S2). The predicted
186 biochemical capacities of the highest scoring isolates were subsequently experimentally
187 validated.

188 Isolates are ranked according to their composite genome scores, with a value of
189 10.87 observed as the highest potential for biofertilizer production (Figure 4). Individual
190 gene and phenotype scores are color coded for each genome, and the four functional-
191 specific categories are shown separately. The *nif* gene presence/absence profiles were
192 found to be highly similar for all but four of the bacterial isolates characterized here,
193 those which are not members of the *Klebsiella* genus, or closely related species, and do
194 not encode any *nif* genes. The four non-nitrogen fixing isolates represent bacterial
195 species that are commonly found in soil (20-23), but they are not predicted to be viable

196 biofertilizers. The *Kosakonia radicincitans* genome encodes the largest number of *nif*
197 genes ($n=17$) observed for any of the Colombian sugarcane isolates. This is consistent
198 with previous studies showing that isolates of this species are capable of fixing nitrogen
199 (24). The 14 characterized *K. pneumoniae* genomes all contain 16 out of 21 *nif* genes,
200 including the core *nifD* and *nifK* genes, which encode the heterotetramer core of the
201 nitrogenase enzyme, and the *nifH* gene, which encodes the dinitrogenase reductase
202 subunit (25). These genomes also all encode the nitrogenase master regulators *nifA*
203 and *nifL*. The missing *nif* genes for the *K. pneumoniae* isolates correspond to
204 accessory structural and regulatory proteins that are not critical for nitrogen fixation.
205 Accordingly, all of *K. pneumoniae* isolate genomes are predicted to encode the capacity
206 for nitrogen fixation, consistent with previous results (14, 26). The single *Raoultella*
207 *ornithinolytica* isolate characterized here also contains the same 16 *nif* genes;
208 *Raoultella* species have previously been isolated from sugarcane (27) and have also
209 been demonstrated to fix nitrogen (28).

210 Initially, a total of 29 canonical bacterial plant growth promoting genes were
211 mined from the literature, 25 of which were found to be present in at least one of the
212 bacterial isolate genome sequences characterized here. These 25 plant growth
213 promoting genes were organized into six distinct functional categories: phosphate
214 solubilization, indolic acetic acid (IAA) production, siderophore production, 1-
215 aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate (ACC) deaminase, acetoin butanediol synthesis, and
216 peroxidases (Table S3). For the purposes of visualization (Fig. 4), each functional
217 category is deemed to be present in an isolate genome sequence if all required genes
218 for that function can be found, but the weighted scoring for these categories is based on

219 individual gene counts as described in the Materials and Methods. The *R.*
220 *ornithinolytica* isolate shows the highest predicted capacity for plant growth promotion,
221 with 5 of the 6 functional categories found to be fully present. The majority of *K.*
222 *pneumoniae* isolates also show similar, but not identical, plant growth promoting gene
223 presence/absence profiles, with 3 or 4 functional categories present. The capacity for
224 siderophore production is predicted to vary among *K. pneumoniae* isolates. The *K.*
225 *radicincitans* genome also encodes 4 functional categories of plant growth promoting
226 genes, but differs from the *K. pneumoniae* isolates with respect to absence of
227 phosphate solubilization genes and the presence of acetoin butanediol synthesis genes.
228 Three of the four species found to lack *nif* genes also do not score present for any of the
229 plant growth promoting gene categories, further underscoring their predicted lack of
230 utility as biofertilizers.

231 Initially, a total of ~2,500 virulence factor genes were mined from the Virulence
232 Factor Database (VFDB) (29), 44 of which were found to be present in at least one of
233 the bacterial isolate genome sequences characterized here. These 44 virulence factors
234 were organized into six distinct functional categories related to virulence and toxicity:
235 adherence, invasion, capsules, endotoxins, exotoxins, and siderophores. The weighted
236 scores for these categories were computed based on individual gene presence/absence
237 patterns (Fig. 4). In contrast to the *K. pneumoniae* clinical isolates which have
238 previously been characterized as opportunistic pathogens, the *K. pneumoniae*
239 environmental isolates showed uniformly low virulence scores. The virulence factor
240 genes found among the *K. pneumoniae* environmental isolates correspond to
241 adherence proteins, capsules, and siderophores. As shown in Fig. 2, genomes of

242 environmental isolates lack coding capacity for important invasion and toxin proteins,
243 including the Type IV secretion system, which are found in clinical *K. pneumoniae*
244 isolates. The *R. ornithinolytica* and *K. radicincitans* isolates, both of which show high
245 scores for nitrogen fixation and plant growth promotion, gave higher virulence scores in
246 comparison to the environmental *K. pneumoniae* isolates. Whereas *Bacillus pumilus*
247 had the lowest virulence score for any of the isolates, the remaining three non-nitrogen
248 fixing isolates had the highest virulence scores and were shown to encode well-known
249 virulence factors, such as Type IV, hemolysin, and fimbria secretion systems.

250 The predicted antibiotic resistance phenotypes for all characterized isolates were
251 fairly similar across the 20 classes of antimicrobial compounds for which predictions
252 were made. The majority of the *K. pneumoniae* genomes, along with the relatively high
253 scoring *R. ornithinolytica* and *K. radicincitans* isolate genomes, indicated predicted
254 susceptibility to 10 of the 20 classes of antimicrobial compounds, intermediate
255 susceptibility for 2-4, and predicted resistance to 5-8. The highest level of predicted
256 antibiotic resistance was seen for *Serratia marcescens*, with resistance predicted for 8
257 compounds and intermediate susceptibility predicted for 4.

258 Computational phenotyping scores for the four categories were normalized and
259 combined into a final score, with respect to their potential as biofertilizers (Fig. 4). Most
260 of the top positions are occupied by *K. pneumoniae* isolates, with the exception of the
261 second-ranked *R. ornithinolytica* and the third-ranked *K. radicincitans*. The results of a
262 similar analysis of four additional plant associated *Klebsiella* genomes are shown in Fig.
263 S3.

264 **Virulence comparison.** The results described in the previous section indicate
265 that the majority of the *K. pneumoniae* strains isolated from Colombian sugarcane fields
266 have the highest overall potential as biofertilizers, including a low predicted potential for
267 virulence. Nevertheless, the fact that strains of *K. pneumoniae* have previously been
268 characterized as opportunistic pathogens (30) raises concerns when considering the
269 use of *K. pneumoniae* as part of a bioinoculum that will be applied to sugarcane fields.
270 With this in mind, we performed a broader comparison of the predicted virulence profiles
271 for Colombian sugarcane isolates along with a collection of 28 clinical isolates of *K.*
272 *pneumoniae* and several other closely related species (See Table S5 for isolate
273 accession numbers). For this comparison, the same virulence factor scoring scheme
274 described in the previous section was applied to all 50 genome sequences (Fig. 5).
275 Perhaps most importantly, a very clear distinction was observed in the virulence score
276 distribution, whereby all 28 clinical strains show a substantially higher predicted
277 virulence (from 4.45 to 2.11) in comparison to the environmental isolates (1.55 to 0.00).
278 Furthermore, the three environmental isolates that show the highest predicted virulence
279 correspond to species with low predicted capacity for both nitrogen fixation and plant
280 growth promotion; as such, these isolates would not be considered as potential
281 biofertilizers. In particular, the *K. pneumoniae* environmental isolates showed uniformly
282 low predicted virulence compared to clinical isolates of the same species. Thus, the
283 results support, in principle, the use of the environmental *K. pneumoniae* isolates as
284 biofertilizers for Colombian sugarcane fields.

285 **Experimental validation of prioritized isolates.** The top six scoring isolates
286 from the computational phenotyping were subjected to a series of cultivation-based

287 phenotypic assays in order to validate their predicted biochemical activities: (i)
288 acetylene reduction (a proxy for nitrogen fixation), (ii) phosphate solubilization, (iii)
289 siderophore production, (iv) gibberellic acid production, and (v) indole acetic acid
290 production.

291 Nitrogen fixation activity, as determined by acetylene reduction to ethylene, was
292 observed in all six isolates, three of which had higher levels in comparison to the
293 positive control (Fig. 6A). All six of the isolates showed high levels of phosphate
294 solubilization (Fig. 6B & C) and siderophore production (Fig. 6D & E) compared to the
295 respective negative controls. All six isolates showed the ability to produce gibberellic
296 acid (Fig. 6F), whereas none were able to produce indole acetic acid. The biochemical
297 assay results are consistent with the computational phenotype predictions for these
298 isolates.

299

300 **DISCUSSION**

301 Members of the *Enterobacteriaceae* are often observed in cultivation-
302 independent studies of sugarcane and nitrogen-fixing *Enterobacteriaceae* are often
303 isolated from sugarcane plants worldwide (31-35). The majority of isolates that were
304 obtained in this study from Colombian sugarcane belonged to the family
305 *Enterobacteriaceae*, with the *Klebsiella* as the most abundant genus along with *Serratia*,
306 *Kluyvera*, *Stenotrophomonas*, and *Bacillus*. *Klebsiella* are Gram-negative, facultatively
307 anaerobic bacteria found in soils, plants, or water (36). *Klebsiella* species have been
308 isolated from a large variety of crops worldwide, such as sugarcane, rice, wheat, and
309 maize (36-38). *Klebsiella* species associated with plants have been shown to fix

310 nitrogen and express other plant growth promoting traits (37, 39). Specifically,
311 *Klebsiella* species are abundant amongst the cultivable strains of *Enterobacteriaceae*
312 obtained from sugarcane (31). For example, a survey of sugarcane in Guangxi, China
313 observed that *Klebsiella* was the most abundant plant-associated nitrogen-fixing
314 bacterial group (31), and among the strains isolated, *K. variicola* was shown to colonize
315 sugarcane and promote plant growth (37). In addition, endophytic *Klebsiella* spp. have
316 been isolated from commercial sugarcane in Brazil, and their potential for plant growth
317 promotion was evaluated *in vitro* (40). Finally in Pakistan, the phenotypic diversity of
318 plant growth promoting associated with sugarcane was determined, with *Klebsiella* also
319 appearing as one of the most abundant bacteria found (33). At the same time, *Klebsiella*
320 and other groups of *Enterobacteriaceae* commonly detected in agricultural systems are
321 abundant in the human microbiome and often contain closely related members that are
322 known opportunistic pathogens (41-44). The coexistence of microbial species that
323 contain plant beneficial traits with closely related strains that potentially cause human
324 diseases presents a challenge for the development of sustainable agriculture. How can
325 we effectively perform a risk-benefit analysis of bacterial strains for potential use in the
326 agricultural biotechnology industry? Thus, the overall goal of this study was to develop
327 high throughput methods for the isolation and screening of nitrogen-fixing bacteria for
328 their potential as biofertilizers.

329

330 **Computational phenotyping for the prioritization of potential biofertilizers.**

331 A computational phenotyping approach was developed for the screening of plant growth
332 promoting bacteria for their potential to serve as biofertilizers. Computational

333 phenotyping entails the implementation of a variety of bioinformatic and statistical
334 methods to predict phenotypes of interest based on whole genome sequence analysis
335 (45, 46). This approach has been used for a variety of applications in the biomedical
336 sciences: prediction of clinically relevant phenotypes, study of infectious diseases,
337 identification of opportunistic pathogenic bacteria in the human microbiome, and cancer
338 treatment decisions (47, 48). To our knowledge, this study represents the first time
339 computational phenotyping has been used for agricultural applications. To implement
340 computational phenotyping for the prioritization of potential biofertilizers, we developed
341 a scoring scheme based on the genome content of four functional gene categories of
342 interest: nitrogen-fixing genes, other plant growth promoting genes, virulence factor
343 genes, and antimicrobial resistance genes.

344 The results of the computational phenotyping predictions, confirmed by
345 laboratory experiments, support the potential use of selected bacterial strains isolated
346 from Colombian sugarcane fields as biofertilizers with minimum health risk to the human
347 population. In particular, all isolates with higher scores (5.53 to 10.87, Fig. 4) in our
348 scheme were found to demonstrate the potential to fix nitrogen and to promote plant
349 growth in other ways, while lacking many of the important known virulence factors and
350 antibiotic resistance genes that can be found in clinical isolates of the same species. In
351 general, isolates SCK7, SCK14, and SCK19 appeared to possess more potent plant
352 growth promoting properties compared to isolates SCK9, SCK16, and SCK21 (Fig. 4).
353 Our computational phenotyping scheme also has valuable negative predictive value.
354 Isolates that contained few or none of the beneficial traits that characterize biofertilizers,
355 *Bacillus pumilus* SCK3 and *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* SCK1, had the lowest scores

356 (-10 and -11 respectively). Finally, it is also worth reiterating that the computationally
357 predicted biochemical activities related to plant growth promotion were all validated by
358 experimental results (Fig. 6).

359 **Virulence profiling for the prioritization of potential biofertilizers.**

360 Opportunistic pathogens are microorganisms that usually do not cause disease in a
361 healthy host, but rather colonize and infect an immunocompromised host (49, 50). For
362 example, *Klebsiella* spp. including *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Klebsiella oxytoca*, and
363 *Klebsiella granulomatis* were associated with nosocomial diseases (51) and other
364 hospital-acquired infections, primarily in immunocompromised persons (52). The
365 potential for virulence, along with the presence of antimicrobial resistance genes, is an
366 obvious concern when proposing to use *Klebsiella* spp. as biofertilizers. Importantly, we
367 found that the environmental *Klebsiella* isolates did not contain pathogenicity islands
368 associated with many virulence factor genes usually found in clinical isolates of
369 *Klebsiella* spp. (Fig. 2). Our results are corroborated by a previous study of *Klebsiella*
370 *michiganensis* Kd70 isolated from the intestine of larvae of *Diatraea saccharalis*, for
371 which the genome was shown to contain multiple genes associated with plant growth
372 promotion and root colonization, but lacked pathogenicity islands in its genome (15). In
373 order to shed further light on this problem, we extended our study of environmental
374 isolates from Colombian sugarcane to comparisons with genomes of *Klebsiella* clinical
375 isolates associated with opportunistic infections in humans along with a number other
376 environmental isolates with available genome sequences (Fig. 5). The virulence factor
377 profiles for all of the environmental isolates were clearly distinct from the clinical strains,

378 which show uniformly higher virulence profile scores, underscoring the relative safety of
379 *Klebsiella* environmental isolates for use as biofertilizers.

380 **Potential for the use of computational phenotyping in other microbiology**
381 **applications.** The results obtained from the computational phenotyping approach
382 developed in this study serve as a proof of principle in support of genomic guided
383 approaches to sustainable agriculture. In particular, computational phenotyping can
384 serve to substantially narrow the search space for potential plant growth promoting
385 bacterial isolates, which can be further interrogated via experimental methods.
386 Computational phenotyping can be used to simultaneously identify beneficial properties
387 of plant associated bacterial isolates while avoiding potentially negative characteristics.
388 In principle, this approach can be applied to a broad range of potential plant growth
389 promoting isolates, or even assembled metagenomes, from managed agricultural
390 ecosystems.

391 We can also envision a number of other potential applications for computational
392 phenotyping of microbial genomes. The computational phenotyping methodology
393 developed here has broad potential including diverse applications in agriculture, plant
394 and animal breeding, food safety, water quality microbiology along with other industrial
395 microbiology applications such as bioenergy, quality control/quality assurance, and
396 fermentation microbiology as well as human health applications such as pathogen
397 antibiotic resistance, virulence predictions, and microbiome characterization. For
398 instance, computational phenotyping could be useful in food safety related to vegetable
399 crop production. Vegetables harbor a diverse bacterial community dominated by the
400 family *Enterobacteriaceae*, Gram-negative bacteria that include a huge diversity of plant

401 growth promoting bacteria and enteric pathogens (53). Vegetables such as lettuce,
402 spinach, and carrots are usually consumed raw, which increases the concern of
403 bacterial infections or human disease outbreaks associated with consumption of
404 vegetables (49).

405 Increasing antibiotic resistance, generated by the abuse of antibiotics in
406 agriculture as well as medicine, is another major threat to human health (54), and the
407 food supply chain creates a direct connection between the environmental habitat of
408 bacteria and human consumers (55). Our computational phenotyping approach could
409 provide for an additional food safety solution, which could be used to prevent the spread
410 of antibiotic resistance pathogens genes present in the food chain.

411

412 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

413 **Sampling and cultivation of putative nitrogen-fixing bacteria from**
414 **sugarcane.** INCAUCA is a Colombian sugarcane company located in the Cauca River
415 Valley in the southwest region of the country between the western and central Andes
416 mountain ranges (<http://www.incauca.com/>). Samples of leaves, rhizosphere soil, stem,
417 and roots were collected from the sugarcane fields 32T and 37T of the INCAUCA San
418 Fernando farm located in the Cauca Valley (3°16'30.0"N 76°21'00.0"W). A high-
419 throughput enrichment approach was developed to enable the cultivation of multiple
420 strains of putative nitrogen-fixing bacteria from sugarcane field samples; details of this
421 approach can be found in the Supplementary Material (Supplementary Methods and
422 Fig. S1).

423 A total of 22 distinct *nifH* PCR+ isolates that passed the initial cultivation and
424 screening steps were grown in LB medium (Difco) at 37°C for subsequent genomic DNA
425 extraction. The E.Z.N.A. bacterial DNA kit (Omega Bio-Tek) was used for genomic
426 DNA extraction, and paired-end fragment libraries (~1,000bp) were constructed using
427 the Nextera XT DNA library preparation kit (Illumina).

428 **Genome sequencing, assembly, and annotation.** Isolate genomic DNA
429 libraries were sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq platform using V3 chemistry, yielding
430 approximately 400,000 paired-end 300bp sequence reads per sample. A list of all
431 genome sequence analysis programs that were used for this study is provided Table
432 S4. Sequence read quality control and trimming were performed using the programs
433 FastQC version 0.11.5 (56) and Trimmomatic (v.0.35) (57). *De novo* sequence
434 assembly was performed using the program SPAdes (v.3.6) (58). Assembled genome
435 sequences were annotated using the Rapid Annotations using Subsystems Technology
436 (RAST) Web server (59, 60) and NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline
437 (PGAP) (61). The 15 *Klebsiella* isolates characterized in this way were briefly described
438 in a Genome Announcement (62), and the analysis here includes 7 additional non-
439 *Klebsiella* isolates.

440 **Comparative genomic analysis.** Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) was
441 employed to assign the taxonomy of the bacterial isolates characterized here (63, 64).
442 Taxonomic assignment was also conducted by targeting small subunit ribosomal RNA
443 (SSU rRNA) gene sequences. Nitrogenase enzyme encoding *nifH* gene sequences
444 were extracted from isolate genome sequences, clustered, and taxonomically assigned
445 using the TaxaDiva (v.0.11.3) method developed by our group (12). Whole genome

446 sequence comparisons between bacterial isolates characterized here and the *K.*
447 *pneumoniae* type strain 342 were performed using BLAST+ (v.2.2.28) (65) and
448 visualized with the program CGView (v.1.0) (66). Details of the methods used
449 comparative genomic analysis can be found in the Supplementary Methods section.

450 **Computational phenotyping.** Computational phenotyping was performed by
451 searching the bacterial isolate genome sequences characterized here for the
452 presence/absence of genes or features related to four functional classes of interest, with
453 respect to their potential as biofertilizers: (i) nitrogen fixation (NF), (ii) plant growth
454 promotion (PGP), (iii) virulence factors (iv), and (4) antimicrobial resistance (AMR).
455 Gene panels were manually curated by searching the literature (NCBI PubMed) for
456 genes implicated in nitrogen fixation and plant growth promotion. The Virulence Factors
457 Database (VFDB) was used to curate the virulence factor gene panel (29). AMR levels
458 were quantified using the PATRIC3/mic prediction tool (67). A composite score was
459 developed to characterize each bacterial isolate genome sequence with respect to the
460 presence/absence of genes from the NF, PGP, and VF gene panels along with the
461 predicted AMR levels. Details on the gene panels, AMR level, and the composite
462 scoring system can be found in the Supplementary Methods.

463 **Experimental validation.** Predictions made by computational phenotyping were
464 validated using five distinct experimental assays: (1) Acetylene reduction assay for
465 nitrogen fixation activity, (2) Phosphate solubilization assay, (3) Siderophore production
466 assay, (4) Gibberellic acid production assay, and (5) Indole acetic acid production
467 assay. Details of each experimental assay can be found in the Supplementary
468 Methods.

469 **Figure Legends**

470 **FIG 1 Phylogeny of the bacterial isolates characterized here (SCK numbers)**

471 **together with their most closely related bacterial type strains.** The phylogeny was
472 reconstructed using pairwise average nucleotide identities between whole genome
473 sequence assemblies, converted to p-distances, with the neighbor-joining method.
474 Horizontal branch lengths are scaled according the p-distances as shown.

475

476 **FIG 2 Comparison of the *K. pneumoniae* type strain 342 to *K. pneumoniae***

477 **sugarcane isolates characterized here.** (A) BLAST ring plot showing synteny and
478 sequence similarity between *K. pneumoniae* 342 and five *K. pneumoniae* sugarcane
479 isolates. The *K. pneumoniae* 342 genome sequence is shown as the inner ring, and
480 syntenic regions of the five *K. pneumoniae* sugarcane isolates are shown as rings with
481 strain-specific color-coding according to the percent identity between regions of *K.*
482 *pneumoniae* 342 and the sugarcane isolates. The genomic locations of *nif* operon
483 cluster along with four important pathogenicity islands (PAIs) are indicated. PAI1 – type
484 IV secretion and aminoglycoside resistance, PAI2 hemolysin and fimbria secretion,
485 heme scavenging, PAI3 – radical S-adenosyl-L-methionine (SAM) and antibiotic
486 resistance pathways, PAI4 – fosfomycin resistance and hemolysin production. (B) A
487 scheme of the *nif* operon cluster present in both *K. pneumoniae* 342 and the five *K.*
488 *pneumoniae* sugarcane isolates.

489 **FIG 3 Phylogeny of the *nifH* genes for the *Klebsiella* bacterial isolates**
490 **characterized here (SCK numbers).** The phylogeny was reconstructed using pairwise
491 nucleotide p-distances between *nifH* genes recovered from the isolate genome
492 sequences using the neighbor-joining method. Horizontal branch lengths are scaled
493 according the p-distances as shown.

494

495 **FIG 4 Computational phenotyping of the sugarcane bacterial isolates**
496 **characterized here.** The presence (red) and absence (blue) profiles for nitrogen
497 fixation genes, plant growth promoting genes, and virulence factor genes are shown for
498 the 22 bacterial isolates. Results are shown for all $n=21$ nitrogen-fixing genes. Results
499 for plant growth promoting genes ($n=25$) and virulence factor genes ($n=44$) are merged
500 into six gene categories each. Predicted antibiotic resistance profiles are shown for
501 $n=20$ antibiotic classes. Detailed results for gene presence/absence and predicted
502 antibiotic resistance profiles are shown in Table S2. The results for all four phenotypic
503 classes of interest were merged into a single priority score for each isolates (right side
504 of plot), as described in the Materials and Methods, and used to rank the isolates with
505 respect to their potential as biofertilizers.

506

507 **FIG 5 Comparison of predicted virulence profiles for clinical *K. pneumoniae***
508 **isolates compared to the environmental (sugarcane) bacterial isolates**
509 **characterized here.** As in Fig. 4, predicted virulence profiles for six classes of
510 virulence factor genes are shown for each isolate. Isolate-specific virulence factor

511 scores are shown for each isolate are based on the presence/absence profiles for the
512 $n=44$ virulence factor genes as described in the Materials and Methods. The virulence
513 factor genes are used to rank the genomes from most (left) to least (right) virulent.
514 Clinical versus environmental samples are shown to the left and right, respectively, of
515 the red line, based on their virulence scores.

516

517 **FIG 6 Experimental validation of prioritized biofertilizer isolates.** The
518 computationally predicted plant growth promoting phenotypes for the top six isolates
519 were experimentally validated. All six strains were capable of acetylene reduction, i.e.
520 ethylene production (A), phosphate solubilization (B&C), siderophore production (D&E),
521 and gibberellic Acid production (F).

522 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

523 We thank members of the INCAUCA Laboratory of Microorganismal Production
524 for their support with the isolation of sugarcane-associated bacteria in Colombia. We
525 thank the Kostka laboratory technicians Patrick Steck and Michael Blejwas for their
526 support with laboratory analysis of sugarcane-associated bacteria at Georgia Tech.

527

528 **REFERENCES**

- 529 1. Fess TL, Kotcon JB, Benedito VA. 2011. Crop breeding for low input agriculture:
530 A sustainable response to feed a growing world population. Sustainability
531 3:1742-1772.
- 532 2. Bargaz A, Lyamlouli K, Chtouki M, Zeroual Y, Dhiba D. 2018. Soil microbial
533 resources for improving fertilizers efficiency in an integrated plant nutrient
534 management system. Front Microbiol 9:1606.
- 535 3. Tilman D, Balzer C, Hill J, Befort BL. 2011. Global food demand and the
536 sustainable intensification of agriculture. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108:20260-4.
- 537 4. Stewart WM, Dibb DW, Johnston AE, Smyth TJ. 2005. The contribution of
538 commercial fertilizer nutrients to food production. Agronomy Journal 97:1-6.
- 539 5. Savci S. 2012. Investigation of effect of chemical fertilizers on environment.
540 International Conference on Environmental Science and Development 1:287-
541 292.

- 542 6. Bhardwaj D, Ansari MW, Sahoo RK, Tuteja N. 2014. Biofertilizers function as key
543 player in sustainable agriculture by improving soil fertility, plant tolerance and
544 crop productivity. *Microbial Cell Factories* 13.
- 545 7. Cherubin MR, Karlen DL, Cerri CE, Franco AL, Tormena CA, Davies CA, Cerri
546 CC. 2016. Soil quality indexing strategies for evaluating sugarcane expansion in
547 Brazil. *PLoS One* 11:e0150860.
- 548 8. Selman-Housein G, Lopez MA, Ramos O, Carmona ER, Arencibia AD,
549 Menendez E, Miranda F. 2000. Towards the improvement of sugarcane bagasse
550 as raw material for the production of paper pulp and animal feed. *Plant Genetic*
551 *Engineering: Towards the Third Millennium* 5:189-193.
- 552 9. Dong M, Yang Z, Cheng G, Peng L, Xu Q, Xu J. 2018. Diversity of the bacterial
553 microbiome in the roots of four *Saccharum* species: *S. spontaneum*, *S.*
554 *robustum*, *S. barberi*, and *S. officinarum*. *Front Microbiol* 9:267.
- 555 10. Li HB, Singh RK, Singh P, Song QQ, Xing YX, Yang LT, Li YR. 2017. Genetic
556 diversity of nitrogen-fixing and plant growth promoting *Pseudomonas* species
557 isolated from sugarcane rhizosphere. *Front Microbiol* 8:1268.
- 558 11. Postgate JR. 1982. Biological nitrogen fixation: fundamentals. *Philos Trans R*
559 *Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 296:375-385.
- 560 12. Gaby JC, Rishishwar L, Valderrama-Aguirre LC, Green SJ, Valderrama-Aguirre
561 A, Jordan IK, Kostka JE. 2018. Diazotroph community characterization via a
562 high-throughput *nifH* amplicon sequencing and analysis pipeline. *Appl Environ*
563 *Microbiol* 84.

- 564 13. Li B, Zhao Y, Liu C, Chen Z, Zhou D. 2014. Molecular pathogenesis of *Klebsiella*
565 *pneumoniae*. Future Microbiol 9:1071-81.
- 566 14. Fouts DE, Tyler HL, DeBoy RT, Daugherty S, Ren Q, Badger JH, Durkin AS,
567 Huot H, Shrivastava S, Kothari S, Dodson RJ, Mohamoud Y, Khouri H, Roesch
568 LF, Krogfelt KA, Struve C, Triplett EW, Methe BA. 2008. Complete genome
569 sequence of the N₂-fixing broad host range endophyte *Klebsiella pneumoniae*
570 342 and virulence predictions verified in mice. PLoS Genet 4:e1000141.
- 571 15. Dantur KI, Chalfoun NR, Claps MP, Tortora ML, Silva C, Jure A, Porcel N,
572 Bianco MI, Vojnov A, Castagnaro AP, Welin B. 2018. The endophytic strain
573 *Klebsiella michiganensis* Kd70 lacks pathogenic island-like regions in its genome
574 and is incapable of infecting the urinary tract in mice. Front Microbiol 9:1548.
- 575 16. Rosenblueth M, Martinez L, Silva J, Martinez-Romero E. 2004. *Klebsiella*
576 *variicola*, a novel species with clinical and plant-associated isolates. Systematic
577 and Applied Microbiology 27:27-35.
- 578 17. Raymond J, Siefert JL, Staples CR, Blankenship RE. 2004. The natural history of
579 nitrogen fixation. Mol Biol Evol 21:541-54.
- 580 18. Zehr JP, Jenkins BD, Short SM, Steward GF. 2003. Nitrogenase gene diversity
581 and microbial community structure: a cross-system comparison. Environ
582 Microbiol 5:539-54.
- 583 19. Weimann A, Mooren K, Frank J, Pope PB, Bremges A, McHardy AC. 2016. From
584 genomes to phenotypes: Traitar, the microbial trait analyzer. mSystems
585 1:e00101-16.

- 586 20. Deredjian A, Alliot N, Blanchard L, Brothier E, Anane M, Cambier P, Jolivet C,
587 Khelil MN, Nazaret S, Saby N, Thioulouse J, Favre-Bonte S. 2016. Occurrence of
588 *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* in agricultural soils and antibiotic resistance
589 properties. Research in Microbiology 167:313-324.
- 590 21. Caulier S, Gillis A, Colau G, Licciardi F, Liepin M, Desoignies N, Modrie P,
591 Legreve A, Mahillon J, Bragard C. 2018. Versatile antagonistic activities of soil-
592 borne *Bacillus* spp. and *Pseudomonas* spp. against *Phytophthora infestans* and
593 other potato pathogens. Front Microbiol 9:143.
- 594 22. Badran S, Morales N, Schick P, Jacoby B, Villella W, Lorenz T. 2018. Complete
595 genome sequence of the *Bacillus pumilus* phage Leo2. Genome Announc 6.
- 596 23. Pavan ME, Franco RJ, Rodriguez JM, Gadaleta P, Abbott SL, Janda JM,
597 Zorzopulos J. 2005. Phylogenetic relationships of the genus *Kluyvera*: transfer of
598 *Enterobacter intermedius* Izard et al. 1980 to the genus *Kluyvera* as *Kluyvera*
599 *intermedia* comb. nov. and reclassification of *Kluyvera cochleae* as a later
600 synonym of *K. intermedia*. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 55:437-42.
- 601 24. Berger B, Wiesner M, Brock AK, Schreiner M, Ruppel S. 2015. *K. radicincitans*, a
602 beneficial bacteria that promotes radish growth under field conditions. Agronomy
603 for Sustainable Development 35:1521-1528.
- 604 25. Stacey G, Burris RH, Evans HJ. 1992. Biological Nitrogen Fixation. Chapman
605 and Hall, New York.
- 606 26. Scott KF, Rolfe BG, Shine J. 1981. Biological nitrogen fixation: primary structure
607 of the *Klebsiella pneumoniae nifH* and *nifD* genes. J Mol Appl Genet 1:71-81.

- 608 27. Luo T, Ou-Yang XQ, Yang LT, Li YR, Song XP, Zhang GM, Gao YJ, Duan WX,
609 An Q. 2016. *Raoultella* sp. strain L03 fixes N₂ in association with
610 micropropagated sugarcane plants. J Basic Microbiol 56:934-40.
- 611 28. Schicklberger M, Shapiro N, Loque D, Woyke T, Chakraborty R. 2015. Draft
612 genome sequence of *Raoultella terrigena* R1Gly, a diazotrophic endophyte.
613 Genome Announc 3.
- 614 29. Chen L, Zheng D, Liu B, Yang J, Jin Q. 2016. Hierarchical and refined dataset for
615 big data analysis--10 years on. Nucleic Acids Res 44:D694-697.
- 616 30. Holt KE, Wertheim H, Zadoks RN, Baker S, Whitehouse CA, Dance D, Jenney A,
617 Connor TR, Hsu LY, Severin J, Brisse S, Cao HW, Wilksch J, Gorrie C, Schultz
618 MB, Edwards DJ, Nguyen KV, Nguyen TV, Dao TT, Mensinke M, Minh VL, Nhu
619 NTK, Schultsz C, Kuntaman K, Newton PN, Moore CE, Strugnell RA, Thomson
620 NR. 2015. Genomic analysis of diversity, population structure, virulence, and
621 antimicrobial resistance in *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, an urgent threat to public
622 health. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of
623 America 112:E3574-E3581.
- 624 31. Lin L, Li Z, Hu C, Zhang X, Chang S, Yang L, Li Y, An Q. 2012. Plant growth-
625 promoting nitrogen-fixing enterobacteria are in association with sugarcane plants
626 growing in Guangxi, China. Microbes Environ 27:391-8.
- 627 32. Magnani GS, Didonet CM, Cruz LM, Picheth CF, Pedrosa FO, Souza EM. 2010.
628 Diversity of endophytic bacteria in Brazilian sugarcane. Genet Mol Res 9:250-8.

- 629 33. Mehnaz S, Baig DN, Lazarovits G. 2010. Genetic and phenotypic diversity of
630 plant growth promoting rhizobacteria isolated from sugarcane plants growing in
631 pakistan. J Microbiol Biotechnol 20:1614-23.
- 632 34. Ferrara FID, Oliveira ZM, Gonzales HHS, Floh EIS, Barbosa HR. 2012.
633 Endophytic and rhizospheric enterobacteria isolated from sugar cane have
634 different potentials for producing plant growth-promoting substances. Plant and
635 Soil 353:409-417.
- 636 35. Taule C, Mareque C, Barlocco C, Hackembruch F, Reis VM, Sicardi M, Battistoni
637 F. 2012. The contribution of nitrogen fixation to sugarcane (*Saccharum*
638 *officinarum* L.), and the identification and characterization of part of the
639 associated diazotrophic bacterial community. Plant and Soil 356:35-49.
- 640 36. Bagley ST. 1985. Habitat association of *Klebsiella* species. Infect Control 6:52-8.
- 641 37. Wei CY, Lin L, Luo LJ, Xing YX, Hu CJ, Yang LT, Li YR, An QL. 2014.
642 Endophytic nitrogen-fixing *Klebsiella variicola* strain DX120E promotes
643 sugarcane growth. Biology and Fertility of Soils 50:657-666.
- 644 38. Ji SH, Gururani MA, Chun SC. 2014. Isolation and characterization of plant
645 growth promoting endophytic diazotrophic bacteria from Korean rice cultivars.
646 Microbiol Res 169:83-98.
- 647 39. Lin L, Wei C, Chen M, Wang H, Li Y, Li Y, Yang L, An Q. 2015. Complete
648 genome sequence of endophytic nitrogen-fixing *Klebsiella variicola* strain
649 DX120E. Stand Genomic Sci 10:22.
- 650 40. Beneduzi A, Moreira F, Costa PB, Vargas LK, Lisboa BB, Favreto R, Baldani JI,
651 Passaglia LMP. 2013. Diversity and plant growth promoting evaluation abilities of

- 652 bacteria isolated from sugarcane cultivated in the South of Brazil. *Applied Soil*
653 *Ecology* 63:94-104.
- 654 41. Denton M, Kerr KG. 1998. Microbiological and clinical aspects of infection
655 associated with *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 11:57-80.
- 656 42. Downing KJ, Leslie G, Thomson JA. 2000. Biocontrol of the sugarcane borer
657 *Eldana saccharina* by expression of the *Bacillus thuringiensis cry1Ac7* and
658 *Serratia marcescens chiA* genes in sugarcane-associated bacteria. *Appl Environ*
659 *Microbiol* 66:2804-10.
- 660 43. Ribeiro VB, Zavascki AP, Rozales FP, Pagano M, Magagnin CM, Nodari CS, da
661 Silva RC, Dalarosa MG, Falci DR, Barth AL. 2014. Detection of bla(GES-5) in
662 carbapenem-resistant *Kluyvera intermedia* isolates recovered from the hospital
663 environment. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 58:622-3.
- 664 44. Juhnke ME, des Jardin E. 1989. Selective medium for isolation of *Xanthomonas*
665 *maltophilia* from soil and rhizosphere environments. *Appl Environ Microbiol*
666 55:747-50.
- 667 45. Richesson RL, Sun JM, Pathak J, Kho AN, Denny JC. 2016. Clinical phenotyping
668 in selected national networks: demonstrating the need for high-throughput,
669 portable, and computational methods. *Artificial Intelligence in Medicine* 71:57-61.
- 670 46. Drouin A, Giguere S, Deraspe M, Marchand M, Tyers M, Loo VG, Bourgault AM,
671 Laviolette F, Corbeil J. 2016. Predictive computational phenotyping and
672 biomarker discovery using reference-free genome comparisons. *Bmc Genomics*
673 17.

- 674 47. Berger AH, Brooks AN, Wu X, Shrestha Y, Chouinard C, Piccioni F, Bagul M,
675 Kamburov A, Innielinski M, Hogstrom L, Zhu C, Yang X, Pantel S, Sakai R,
676 Kaplan N, Root D, Narayan R, Natoli T, Lahr D, Tirosh I, Tamayo P, Getz G,
677 Wong B, Doench J, Subramanian A, Golub TR, Meyerson M, Boehm JS. 2016.
678 High-throughput phenotyping of lung cancer somatic mutations. *Cancer*
679 *Research* 76.
- 680 48. Bone WP, Washington NL, Buske OJ, Adams DR, Davis J, Draper D, Flynn ED,
681 Girdea M, Godfrey R, Golas G, Groden C, Jacobsen J, Kohler S, Lee EMJ, Links
682 AE, Markello TC, Mungall CJ, Nehrebecky M, Robinson PN, Sincan M, Soldatos
683 AG, Tifft CJ, Toro C, Trang H, Valkanas E, Vasilevsky N, Wahl C, Wolfe LA,
684 Boerkoel CF, Brudno M, Haendel MA, Gahl WA, Smedley D. 2016.
685 Computational evaluation of exome sequence data using human and model
686 organism phenotypes improves diagnostic efficiency. *Genetics in Medicine*
687 18:608-617.
- 688 49. Berg G, Erlacher A, Smalla K, Krause R. 2014. Vegetable microbiomes: is there
689 a connection among opportunistic infections, human health and our 'gut feeling'?
690 *Microb Biotechnol* 7:487-95.
- 691 50. Fishman JA. 2013. Opportunistic infections--coming to the limits of
692 immunosuppression? *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med* 3:a015669.
- 693 51. Rosenblueth M, Martinez L, Silva J, Martinez-Romero E. 2004. *Klebsiella*
694 *variicola*, a novel species with clinical and plant-associated isolates. *Syst Appl*
695 *Microbiol* 27:27-35.

- 696 52. Podschun R, Ullmann U. 1998. Klebsiella spp. as nosocomial pathogens:
697 epidemiology, taxonomy, typing methods, and pathogenicity factors. Clin
698 Microbiol Rev 11:589-603.
- 699 53. Osterblad M, Pensala O, Peterzens M, Helenius H, Huovinen P. 1999.
700 Antimicrobial susceptibility of Enterobacteriaceae isolated from vegetables. J
701 Antimicrob Chemother 43:503-9.
- 702 54. Canica M, Manageiro V, Abriouel H, Moran-Gilad J, Franz CMAP. 2019.
703 Antibiotic resistance in foodborne bacteria. Trends in Food Science &
704 Technology 84:41-44.
- 705 55. Bengtsson-Palme J. 2017. Antibiotic resistance in the food supply chain: where
706 can sequencing and metagenomics aid risk assessment? Current Opinion in
707 Food Science 14:66-71.
- 708 56. Andrews S. FastQC a quality control tool for high throughput sequence data.
709 <http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/>. Accessed
710 07/31/2017.
- 711 57. Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. 2014. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for
712 Illumina sequence data. Bioinformatics 30:2114-2120.
- 713 58. Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, Gurevich AA, Dvorkin M, Kulikov AS, Lesin VM,
714 Nikolenko SI, Pham S, Pribelski AD. 2012. SPAdes: a new genome assembly
715 algorithm and its applications to single-cell sequencing. Journal of Computational
716 Biology 19:455-477.

- 717 59. Aziz RK, Bartels D, Best AA, DeJongh M, Disz T, Edwards RA, Formsma K,
718 Gerdes S, Glass EM, Kubal M. 2008. The RAST Server: rapid annotations using
719 subsystems technology. *BMC genomics* 9:75.
- 720 60. Wattam AR, Abraham D, Dalay O, Disz TL, Driscoll T, Gabbard JL, Gillespie JJ,
721 Gough R, Hix D, Kenyon R. 2013. PATRIC, the bacterial bioinformatics database
722 and analysis resource. *Nucleic Acids Research* 42:D581-D591.
- 723 61. Tatusova T, DiCuccio M, Badretdin A, Chetvernin V, Nawrocki EP, Zaslavsky L,
724 Lomsadze A, Pruitt KD, Borodovsky M, Ostell J. 2016. NCBI prokaryotic genome
725 annotation pipeline. *Nucleic Acids Res* 44:6614-24.
- 726 62. Medina-Cordoba LK, Chande AT, Rishishwar L, Mayer LW, Marino-Ramirez L,
727 Valderrama-Aguirre LC, Valderrama-Aguirre A, Kostka JE, Jordan IK. 2018.
728 Genome sequences of 15 *Klebsiella* sp. isolates from sugarcane fields in
729 Colombia's Cauca Valley. *Genome Announc* 6.
- 730 63. Konstantinidis KT, Tiedje JM. 2005. Genomic insights that advance the species
731 definition for prokaryotes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of*
732 *the United States of America* 102:2567-2572.
- 733 64. Goris J, Konstantinidis KT, Klappenbach JA, Coenye T, Vandamme P, Tiedje
734 JM. 2007. DNA–DNA hybridization values and their relationship to whole-
735 genome sequence similarities. *International Journal of Systematic and*
736 *Evolutionary Microbiology* 57:81-91.
- 737 65. Camacho C, Coulouris G, Avagyan V, Ma N, Papadopoulos J, Bealer K, Madden
738 TL. 2009. BLAST+: architecture and applications. *BMC Bioinformatics* 10:421.

- 739 66. Grant JR, Arantes AS, Stothard P. 2012. Comparing thousands of circular
740 genomes using the CGView comparison tool. *BMC Genomics* 13:202.
- 741 67. Nguyen M, Brettin T, Long SW, Musser JM, Olsen RJ, Olson R, Shukla M,
742 Stevens RL, Xia F, Yoo H, Davis JJ. 2018. Developing an in silico minimum
743 inhibitory concentration panel test for *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *Sci Rep* 8:421.

744 **Tables**

745 Table 1. **Genome assembly statistics for the isolates characterized here.**

746

Sample ID	Genome Length (bp)	N50 ^a	L50 ^b	GC(%)	# of Contigs ^c
SCK1	4,522,541	402,304	4	66.79	24
SCK2	5,231,439	417,927	5	59.33	53
SCK3	3,824,428	670,745	3	41.82	150
SCK4	4,511,030	223,239	8	66.79	55
SCK5	5,774,634	162,673	13	53.1	98
SCK6	6,094,823	117,689	15	56.73	294
SCK7	5,693,007	282,996	7	57.03	50
SCK8	5,695,902	281,292	9	57.03	50
SCK9	5,579,618	311,650	6	57.03	42
SCK10	5,591,472	614,324	3	57.03	34
SCK11	5,696,136	382,597	5	57.15	268
SCK12	5,817,089	176,655	10	57.02	79
SCK13	5,476,221	358,490	5	57.34	33
SCK14	5,465,811	300,899	5	57.34	41
SCK15	5,564,330	330,579	5	57.15	43
SCK16	5,795,921	478,592	3	54.06	84
SCK17	5,475,984	358,490	4	57.34	35
SCK18	5,476,135	422,400	3	57.34	32
SCK19	5,688,396	270,585	7	57.09	56
SCK20	5,500,801	82,111	20	57.45	165
SCK21	5,324,920	112,078	15	55.26	100
SCK22	5,847,607	65,329	29	57.02	181

747

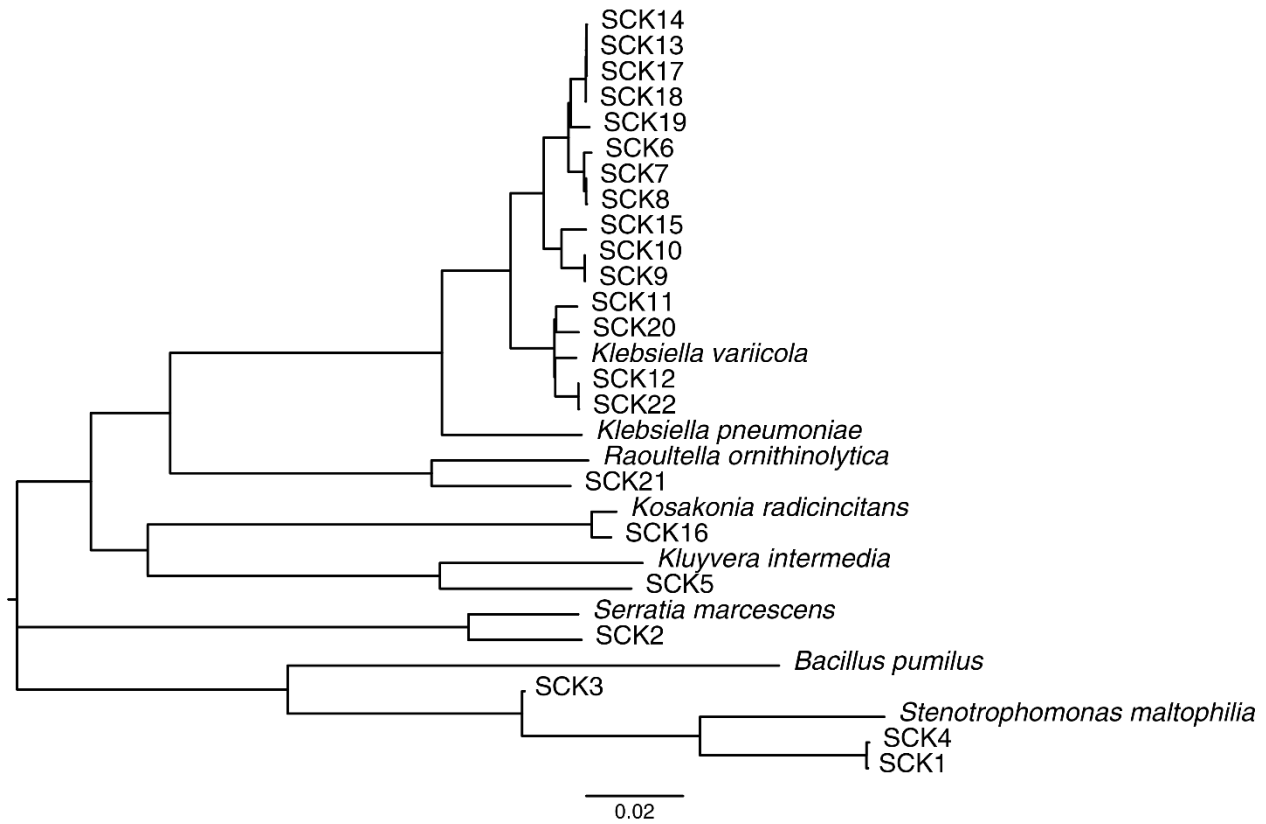
748 ^a When the contigs of an assembly are arranged from largest to smallest, N50 is the
749 length of the contig that makes up at least 50% of the genome

750 ^b L50 is the number of contigs equal to or longer than N50 In other words, L50, for
751 example, is the minimal number of contigs that cover half the assembly

752 ^c Number of contigs \geq 500bp in length

753 Table 2. **Identity of the most closely related species (genus) for the isolates**
 754 **characterized here.** Species (genus) identification was performed using average
 755 nucleotide identity (ANI), 16S rRNA and *nifH* sequence comparisons.

Strain	ANI	16S	<i>nifH</i>
757 SCK1	<i>Stenotrophomonas maltophilia</i>	<i>Stenotrophomonas</i>	NA
758 SCK2	<i>Serratia marcescens</i>	<i>Serratia</i>	NA
759 SCK3	<i>Bacillus pumilus</i>	<i>Bacillus</i>	NA
760 SCK4	<i>Stenotrophomonas maltophilia</i>	<i>Stenotrophomonas</i>	NA
SCK5	<i>Kluyvera intermedia</i>	<i>Kluyvera</i>	<i>Kluyvera</i>
761 SCK6	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
SCK7	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
762 SCK8	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
SCK9	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
763 SCK10	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
764 SCK11	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
SCK12	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
765 SCK13	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
SCK14	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
766 SCK15	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
SCK16	<i>Kosakonia radicincitans</i>	<i>Kosakonia</i>	<i>Kosakonia</i>
SCK17	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
767 SCK18	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
SCK19	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
768 SCK20	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
SCK21	<i>Raoultella ornithinolytica</i>	<i>Raoultella</i>	<i>Raoultella</i>
SCK22	<i>Klebsiella variicola</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>



769

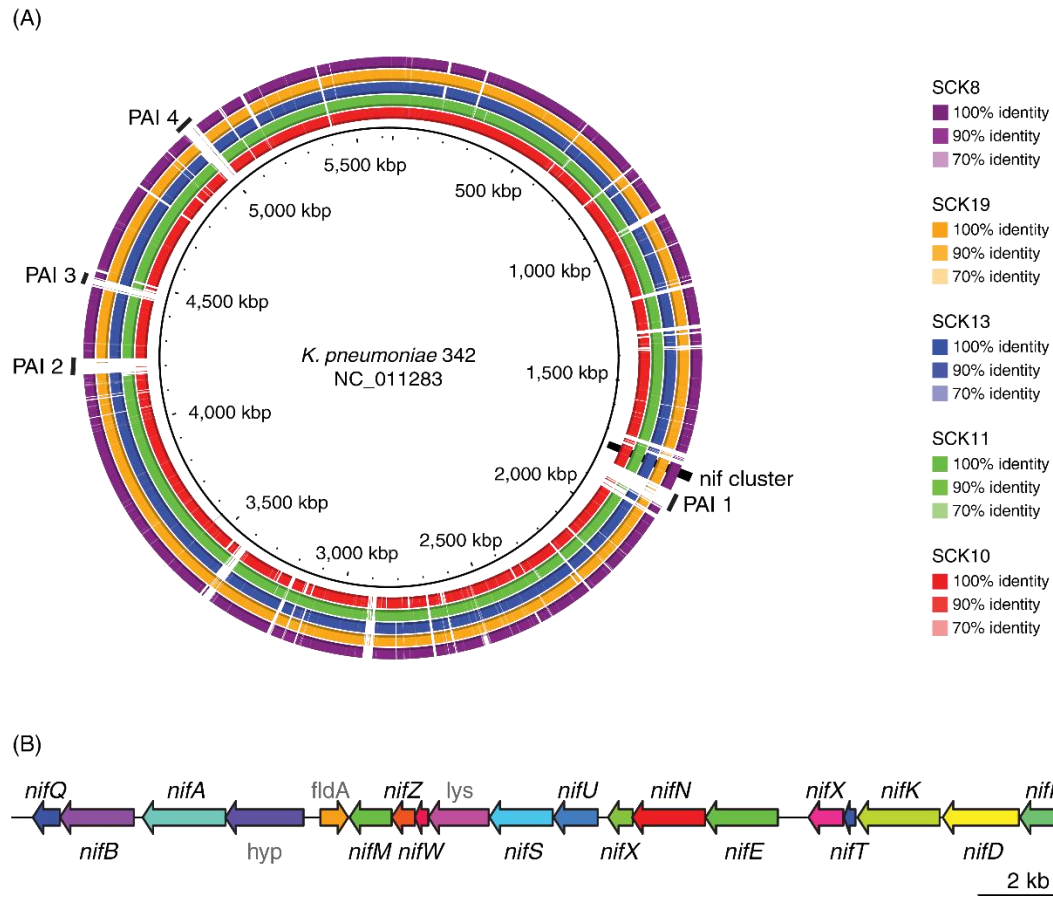
770 **FIG 1 Phylogeny of the bacterial isolates characterized here (SCK numbers)**

771 **together with their most closely related bacterial type strains.** The phylogeny was

772 reconstructed using pairwise average nucleotide identities between whole genome

773 sequence assemblies, converted to p-distances, with the neighbor-joining method.

774 Horizontal branch lengths are scaled according the p-distances as shown.



775

776 **FIG 2 Comparison of the *K. pneumoniae* type strain 342 to *K. pneumoniae* sugarcane**

777 **isolates characterized here.** (A) BLAST ring plot showing synteny and sequence similarity

778 between *K. pneumoniae* 342 and five *K. pneumoniae* sugarcane isolates. The *K. pneumoniae*

779 342 genome sequence is shown as the inner ring, and syntenic regions of the five *K.*

780 *pneumoniae* sugarcane isolates are shown as rings with strain-specific color-coding according

781 to the percent identity between regions of *K. pneumoniae* 342 and the sugarcane isolates. The

782 genomic locations of nif operon cluster along with four important pathogenicity islands (PAIs)

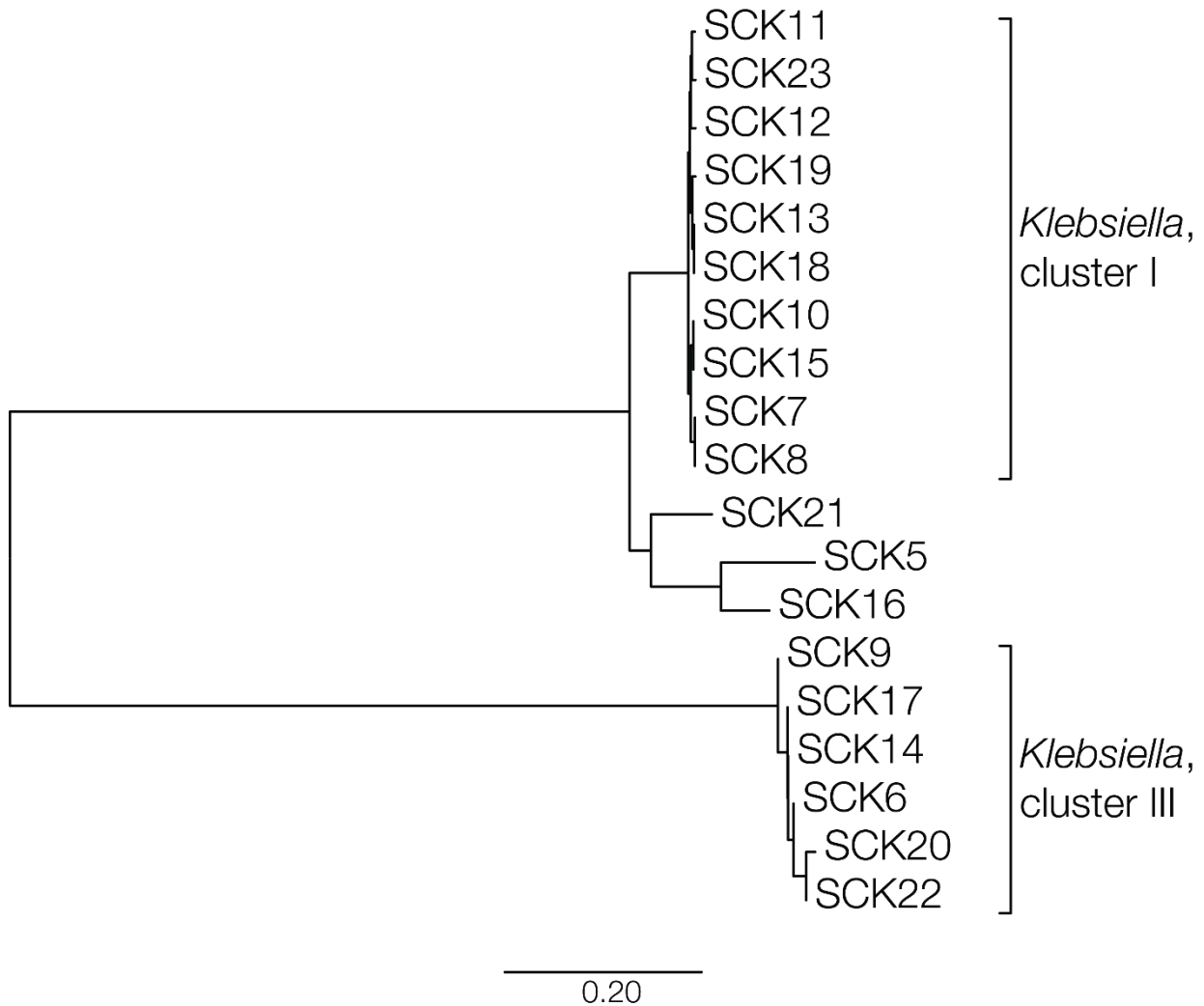
783 are indicated. PAI1 – type IV secretion and aminoglycoside resistance, PAI2 hemolysin and

784 fimbria secretion, heme scavenging, PAI3 – radical S-adenosyl-L-methionine (SAM) and

785 antibiotic resistance pathways, PAI4 – fosfomycin resistance and hemolysin production. (B) A

786 scheme of the nif operon cluster present in both *K. pneumoniae* 342 and the five *K. pneumoniae*

787 sugarcane isolates.



788

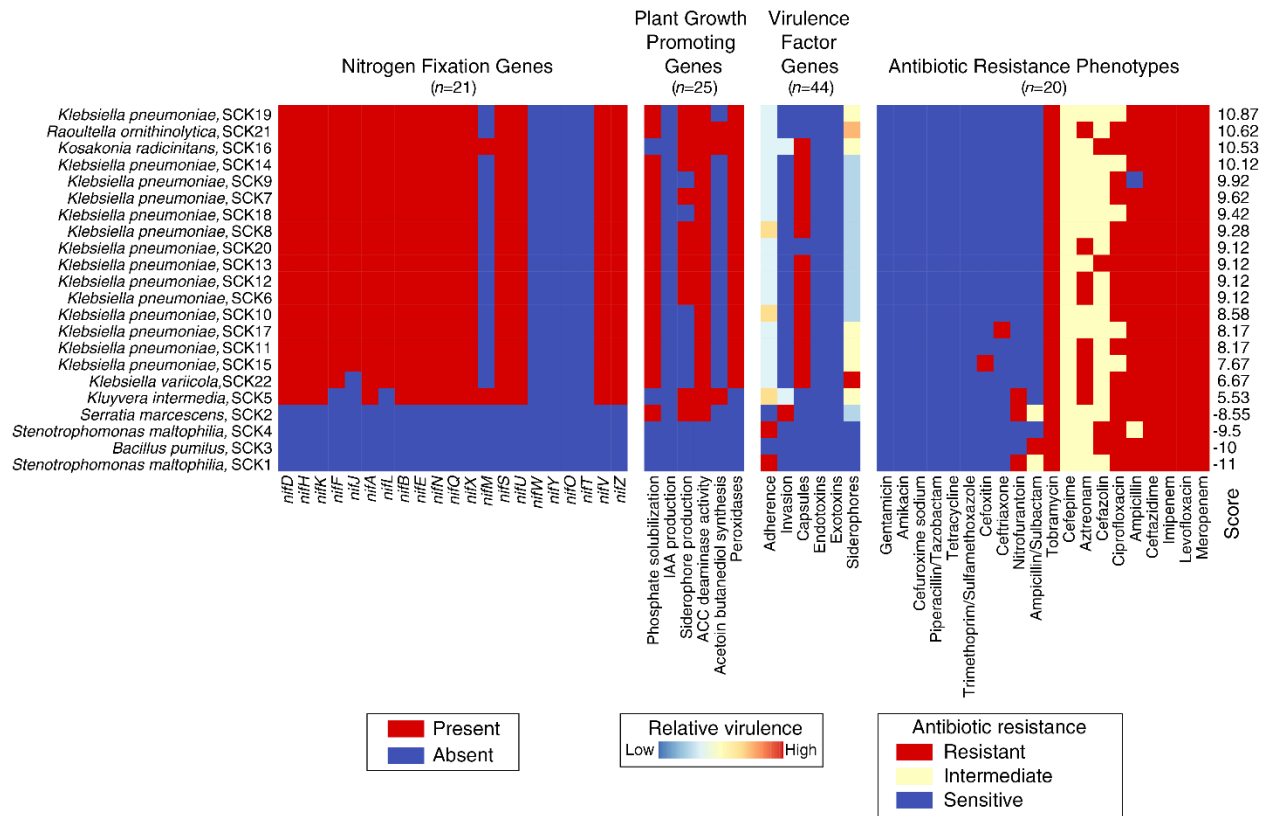
789 **FIG 3 Phylogeny of the *nifH* genes for the *Klebsiella* bacterial isolates**

790 **characterized here (SCK numbers).** The phylogeny was reconstructed using pairwise

791 nucleotide p-distances between *nifH* genes recovered from the isolate genome

792 sequences using the neighbor-joining method. Horizontal branch lengths are scaled

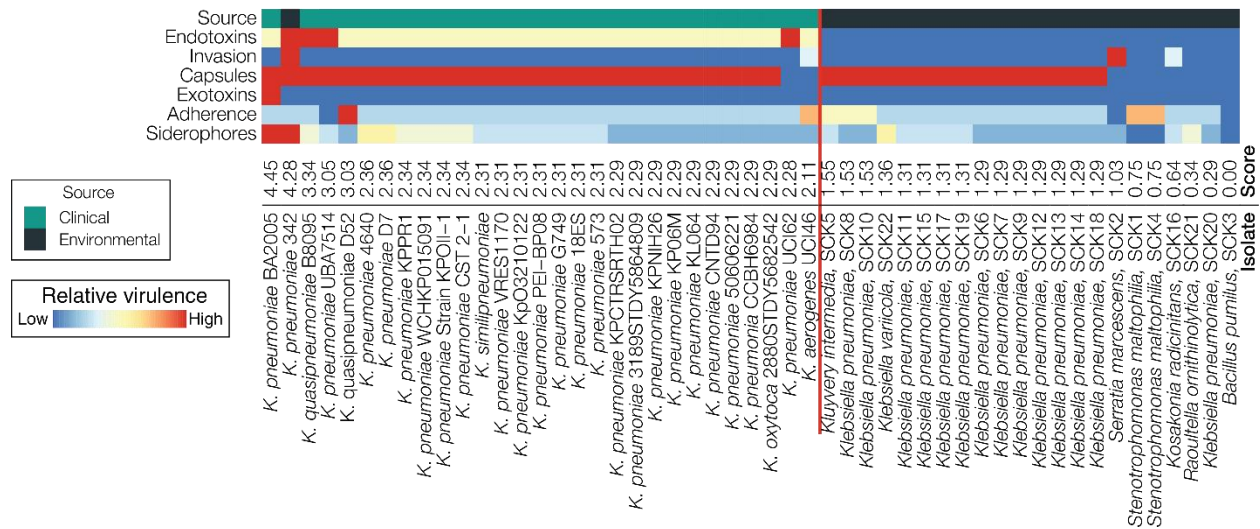
793 according to the p-distances as shown.



794

795 **FIG 4 Computational phenotyping of the sugarcane bacterial isolates**

796 **characterized here.** The presence (red) and absence (blue) profiles for nitrogen
 797 fixation genes, plant growth promoting genes, and virulence factor genes are shown for
 798 the 22 bacterial isolates. Results are shown for all $n=21$ nitrogen-fixing genes. Results
 799 for plant growth promoting genes ($n=25$) and virulence factor genes ($n=44$) are merged
 800 into six gene categories each. Predicted antibiotic resistance profiles are shown for
 801 $n=20$ antibiotic classes. Detailed results for gene presence/absence and predicted
 802 antibiotic resistance profiles are shown in Table S2. The results for all four phenotypic
 803 classes of interest were merged into a single priority score for each isolates (right side
 804 of plot), as described in the Materials and Methods, and used to rank the isolates with
 805 respect to their potential as biofertilizers.



806

807 **FIG 5 Comparison of predicted virulence profiles for clinical *K. pneumoniae***

808 **isolates compared to the environmental (sugarcane) bacterial isolates**

809 **characterized here.** As in Fig. 4, predicted virulence profiles for six classes of

810 virulence factor genes are shown for each isolate. Isolate-specific virulence factor

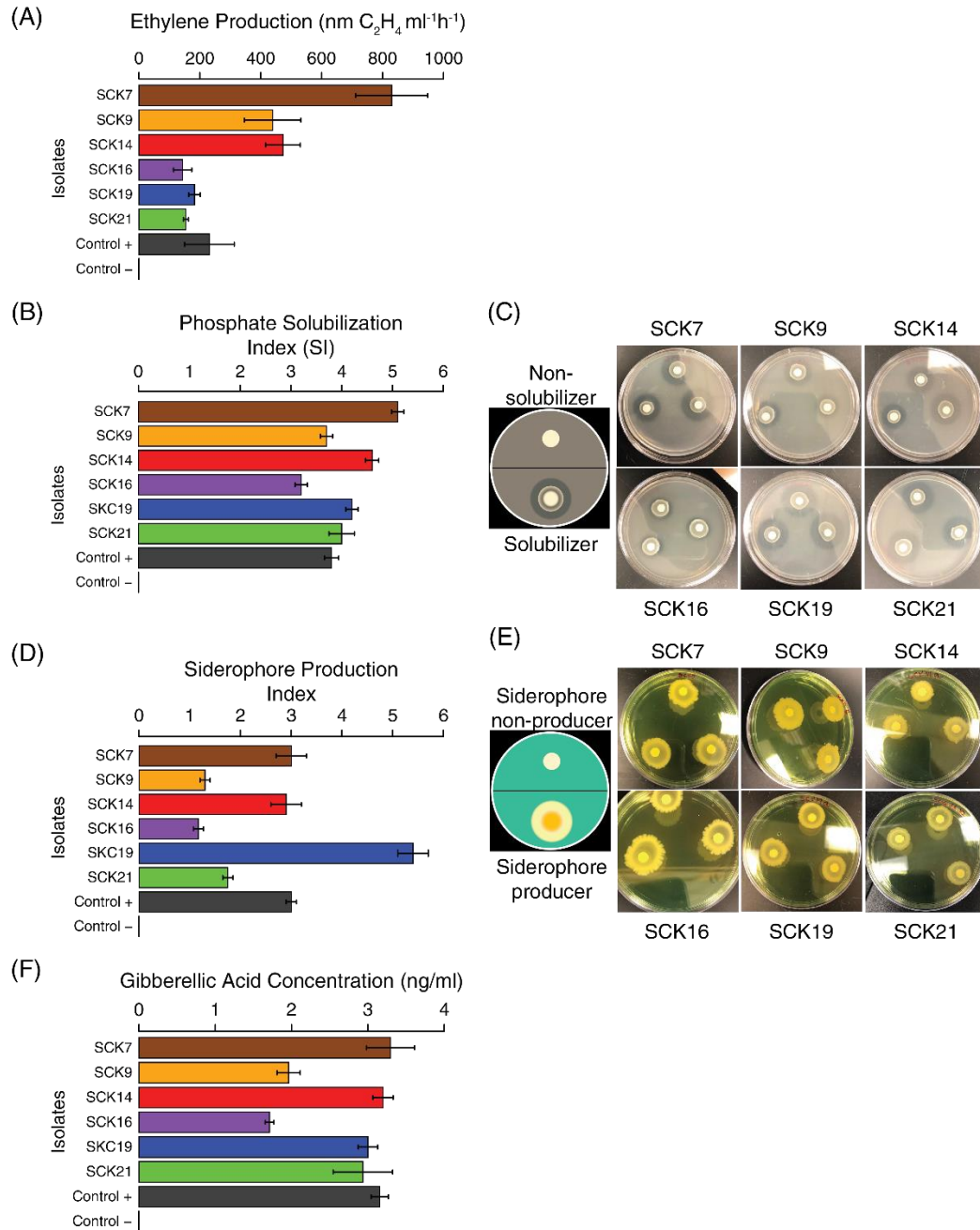
811 scores are shown for each isolate are based on the presence/absence profiles for the

812 $n=44$ virulence factor genes as described in the Materials and Methods. The virulence

813 factor genes are used to rank the genomes from most (left) to least (right) virulent.

814 Clinical versus environmental samples are shown to the left and right, respectively, of

815 the red line, based on their virulence scores.



816

817 **FIG 6 Experimental validation of prioritized biofertilizer isolates.** The
 818 computationally predicted plant growth promoting phenotypes for the top six isolates
 819 were experimentally validated. All six strains were capable of acetylene reduction, i.e.
 820 ethylene production (A), phosphate solubilization (B&C), siderophore production (D&E),
 821 and gibberellic acid production (F).