| 1 | Large scale comparativ | e phenotypic and genomic analyses reveal ecological | |
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| 2 | preferences of Shewanel | <i>la</i> species and identify metabolic pathways conserved at | |
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1 ABSTRACT

2 The use of comparative genomics among different microbiological species has 3 increased substantially as sequence technologies become more affordable. However, 4 efforts to fully link a genotype to its phenotype remain limited to the development of one 5 mutant at the time. In this study, we provide a high throughput alternative to this limiting 6 step by coupling comparative genomics to phenotype arrays for five sequenced 7 Shewanella strains. Positive phenotypes were obtained for 441 nutrients (C, N, P, and S 8 sources), with N-based compounds being the most utilized for all strains. Many genes 9 and pathways predicted by genome analyses were confirmed with the comparative 10 phenotype assay, and three degradation pathways believed to be missing in Shewanella 11 were confirmed. A number of previously unknown gene products were predicted to be 12 part of pathways or to have a function, expanding the number of gene targets for future 13 genetic analyses. Ecologically, the comparative high throughput phenotype analysis 14 provided insights into niche specialization within the five different strains. For example, 15 Shewanella amazonensis strain SB2B, isolated from the Amazon River delta, was 16 capable of utilizing 60 C compounds, whereas Shewanella sp. strain W3-18-1, from the 17 deep marine sediment, utilized only 25 of them. In spite of the large number of nutrient 18 sources yielding positive results, our study indicated that except for the N-sources they 19 were not sufficiently informative to predict growth phenotypes from increasing 20 evolutionary distances. Our results indicate the importance of phenotypic evaluation for 21 confirming genome predictions. This strategy will accelerate the functional discovery of 22 genes and provide an ecological framework for microbial genome sequencing projects.

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1 INTRODUCTION

The *Shewanella* genus is composed of facultative anaerobic bacteria known for their distinctive capability of utilizing a variety of electron acceptors such as NO₃, U, Cr, Tc, Pu, and nitroaromatic compounds (13). Members of this genus have also being regarded for their role as drivers of global biogeochemical cycles of C, N, and S in redox interfaces of marine environments (3, 28).

7 Being found in different environments such as salt and fresh waters, sediments, 8 and subsurface formations, it is not surprising that the genus Shewanella developed its 9 hallmark respiratory capability of utilizing many different electron acceptors. This 10 diversity of respiratory phenotypes is a reflection of the genetic makeup carried by 11 members of this genus. The sequenced genome of the Shewanella oneidensis strain 12 MR-1 (MR-1) showed a large percentage of genes dedicated to the cell's electron 13 transport system including cytochromes, reductases, iron-sulfur proteins, and guinones 14 (12). As revealed by the genome sequencing of 22 additional Shewanella species and 15 strains of the same species (10), the genetic diversity carried out by this genus is 16 significant, with less than half of the genes being shared among ten of the sequenced 17 Shewanella genomes (21).

18 Recently, several studies have used comparative genomics to systematize the 19 genomic content into two groups: the core genome comprised of genes present in all 20 strains and the accessory genome consisting of unique or strain-specific genes (21, 39). 21 This approach has allowed for putative determination of the total number of genes and 22 operons that might be involved in the ecological fitness of strains subjected to a specific 23 environmental condition (18, 19, 24, 33). It is, however, less clear how this genomic 24 diversity is translated into phenotypic traits and what their implications are to the 25 ecological success of the species. Traditionally, a particular genotype has been linked to 26 a phenotype through the development and characterization of mutants (23). Based on

the 862 genes (19.2%) that still remain to be characterized in the genome of the model
 microorganism *Escherichia coli* strain K12 (36), the above procedure is not only a labor
 intensive, but also a time-consuming activity.

High-throughput phenotype arrays can be used as an alternative approach to expedite the functional characterization of genes. The Biolog assay uses tetrazolium violet to monitor cell respiration, assuming that oxidation of the nutrient source will lead to respiration and, hence to purple dye formation (1). High-throughput phenotype arrays have been extensively used to characterize knockout mutants of single microorganisms (15, 43), but have yet to be tested for comparative analysis of phenotypes in light of genome sequence data (2).

In this study, we sought to gain access to the ecology of members of the Shewanella genus through a large-scale comparative analysis of phenotypes. Here, we took advantage of five fully sequenced Shewanella genomes and compared them to high-throughput phenotype arrays containing 561 nutrient sources. We established genotype-phenotype relationships, expanded the number of genes associated with specific phenotypes, and showed there is a limit in predicting phenotypes with increased phylogenetic distances.

18

19 MATERIAL AND METHODS

Strains used in this study. Microorganisms and their genome accession numbers (in parenthesis) used in this study were *Shewanella oneidensis* strain MR-1 (AE014299, AE14300), *Shewanella* sp. strain MR-4 (CP000446), *Shewanella* sp. strain MR-7 (CP000444, CP000445), *Shewanella* sp. strain W3-18-1 (CP000503), and *Shewanella amazonensis* strain SB2B (CP000507). Strain selection was based on the following: (1) representation of an evolutionary gradient with strains of the same species and different

species, (2) genomes that were curated manually. A description of habitat conditions at
 the time of sampling is presented in Table 1.

3 High-throughput phenotypic comparisons. Phenotype microarray assays were performed at Biolog Inc. (Hayward, CA) as previously described (1). Briefly, Shewanella 4 5 strains were grown on R2A plates and incubated overnight at 22°C. Colony swabs were 6 used to suspend cells in IF-0 GN medium and diluted until 85% of transmittance of the 7 cell suspension was achieved. A volume of 100 µl was added to each plate well. Plates 8 were incubated in the OmniLog reader at 22°C. Monitoring of color change was recorded 9 for 48h for all plates. Only positive results for three replicate plates were reported. For 10 the purpose of this work, a nutrient was defined as being used as the sole source for the 11 element, e.g. when glycine was defined as a N source, another C source was provided 12 in the well to be oxidized, providing electrons for the dye reduction.

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14 Gene analysis and pathway reconstructions. Protein sequences encoded by the five 15 Shewanella genomes were analyzed and compared. Function predictions for the gene 16 products were obtained from the Shewanella Knowledgebase (17). Many of these 17 predictions resulted from careful manual curation as previously described (17, 35, 37). 18 Further, the gene products were assigned to metabolic pathways according to the 19 MetaCyc schema (5) and the primary literature. In addition, we made use of the 20 orthologous relationships previously determined for ten Shewanella strains, including the 21 five strains used in our analysis (21). The sets of orthologs were identified based on their 22 sequence similarity and genome neighborhoods and included genes present in one or 23 more of the Shewanella genomes. The cut-off criteria for gene presence or absence was 24 compiled from three different methods: (1) protein-protein pair-wise reciprocal BLAST-P, 25 (2) Pair-wise alignments with PAM score of 100, and (3) reciprocal tBLAST-N (21). The 26 ortholog table for the five Shewanella strains is available in Supplementary Material ST2.

Metabolic pathway predictions and the complete *Shewanella* ortholog dataset are also
 available through the *Shewanella* Knowledgebase (17).

3 **Phenotypic and genome clustering analyses.** Data analysis was performed using the 4 kinetic and parametric modules of the software OmniLog v1.2. Tested compounds 5 yielding negative or not reproducible results for all Shewanella strains were removed 6 from the analysis. Results from three replicates were averaged and subtracted from 7 control intensity value. Next, substrates with intensity values below the threshold of 10 8 were discarded as a conservative measure for respiration. Phenotypic profiles were 9 converted into a matrix using the following parameters: 1 for values below 50, 2 for 10 values between 50 and 100, and 3 for values above 100. Clustering was performed with 11 the Cluster 3.0 software (6), using the single linkage and Euclidean distance.

Genomic clustering for all five strains was calculated based on gene orthologs identified in the genomes. When a gene ortholog was observed in the genome, it was scored as present (one in the matrix), whereas a gene not observed was scored as absent (zero in the matrix). Clustering analysis was carried out using a single linkage scheme and Euclidean distance. Pair-wise average nucleotide identity (%ANI) values between genomes were calculated according to Konstantinidis and Tiedje (20).

18

19 **RESULTS**

Large scale comparative phenotypic analysis. Five *Shewanella* strains were tested for metabolic diversity with 561 sources of carbon (C), nitrogen (N), sulfur (S), or phosphorus (P). Positive phenotypes for at least one strain were observed for a total of 441 sources (Supplemental Material SF1). Among the different substrates tested, 55 (92%) of the P, 293 (77%) of the N, 21 (58%) of S, and 67 (35%) of the C sources were utilized by one or more of the strains. The majority of the nutrient sources were used by

2-4 of the strains with only 15% and 16% being utilized by all strains or by one of the
 strains, respectively.

3

4 Carbon utilization patterns. Only 15 of the 190 carbon sources tested were utilized by 5 all five strains (Fig. 1A). Growth on six of these substrates (L-lactate, adenosine, inosine, 6 pyruvate, and N-acetyl-D-glucosamine) has been confirmed in other studies (7, 31, 42). 7 The remaining compounds (2'-deoxyadenosine, methyl-pyruvate, uridine, Tween 80, 8 Tween 40, Tween 20, gelatin, and three dipeptides) have not been shown to support 9 growth of the five Shewanella strains and remain targets for further experimental studies. 10 Hydrolyses of gelatin and Tween detergents have been previously reported for S. loihica 11 strain PV-4 (11) and S. affinis strains KMM 3586 and KMM 3587 (14), respectively, and 12 it is possible that these phenotypes are shared by the entire genus. The three di-13 peptides utilized by all strains had an N-terminal glycine (Gly-Glu, Gly-Pro, Gly-Asp). A 14 fourth dipeptide with a C-terminal glycine (Ala-Gly) was only degraded by SB2B 15 suggesting the need for a separate transporter or peptidase to utilize this dipeptide. The 16 majority of the substrates degraded by all strains enter the central metabolism at the 2 or 17 3 carbon compound level (Fig. 2). This agrees with earlier predictions made in an 18 analysis of the S. oneidensis MR-1 (MR-1) genome (37) where many of these pathways 19 were outlined. It was also noted that MR-1 contained a smaller number of iso-enzymes 20 for the degradation of 5 and 6 carbon compounds compared to Escherichia coli, an 21 organism that is capable of using a plethora of 5 and 6 carbon compounds. Instead MR-22 1 was found to encode iso-enzymes for the utilization of 3 carbon compounds, i.e. 3 23 glyceraldehyde dehydrogenases. Escherichia coli also contains over 40 PTS systems for 24 import of 4 – 6 carbon carbohydrates while MR-1 only has one such system. These 25 trends hold up for the five Shewanellas included in this study. An additional mannose

specific PTS system was found on a mobile island in *Shewanella* sp. strain W3-18-1
 (W3-18-1 from here on).

3 We observed a variation in the growth phenotype for sugar and polysaccharide 4 utilization where each substrate was degraded by one to three strains. Several of the 5 sugars tested included dimers or polymers of glucose subunits (i.e. α -, β -, and γ -6 cyclodextrin, dextrin, maltose, maltotriose, and sucrose). Since all of the glucose 7 multimers were utilized by Shewanella amazonensis SB2B (SB2B), Shewanella sp. MR-8 4 (MR-4) and Shewanella sp. MR-7 (MR-7), and not by W3-18-1 or MR-1, it is likely that 9 some of the same enzymes (pathways) and transporters are shared by different strains 10 and involved in the degradation of the above compounds.

11 SB2B showed the most phenotypic versatility for carbon sources when compared 12 to the other species. This strain was able to utilize 60 different substrates, while strain 13 W3-18-1 used only 25. The limited substrate utilization by W3-18-1 includes its inability 14 to utilize the many glucose-based multimers as well as several amino acids. In fact, 15 none of the single amino acids tested were degraded by this strain. When the two most 16 evolutionarily related strains isolated from the Black Sea water column were compared, 17 namely strain MR-4 and MR-7, their carbon utilization pattern showed larger than 18 expected differences. Both strains shared the ability to metabolize 31 carbon substrates 19 with an additional 13 sources being solely utilized by strain MR-4 while strain MR-7 used 20 another 6 substrates. MR-4 and MR-7 have an average nucleotide identity (ANI) of 97% 21 suggesting that they belong to the same species.

22

Nitrogen utilization patterns. A total of 50 nitrogen sources were utilized by all five strains (a subset of sources is presented on Fig. 1B, Supplementary Material SF1). These substrates were all dipeptides with pronounced preference for amino acids with polar uncharged side chains: serine, threonine, asparagine, and glutamine. Amino acids

with electrically charged side chains (positive or negative) or hydrophobic side chains were of limited use for these strains, with exception of alanine and leucine. When analyzing for nitrogen substrates utilized by all *Shewanella* strains but one, the number of substrates increased to 126, with the inclusion of purine bases such as xanthine and adenine.

6 The Black Sea isolates, MR-4 and MR-7, were able to utilize 285 and 242 7 substrates, respectively; followed by strain MR-1 with a pattern of substrate utilization 8 corresponding to 203 nitrogen sources. Inversely proportional to the carbon utilization 9 profile, strain SB2B had the lowest number of positive Biolog phenotypes (81) for 10 nitrogen sources. The low N-source diversity displayed by SB2B reflects its inability to 11 utilize 194 (71%) of the dipeptides and tripeptides, and these made up 89% of the N-12 sources tested. Furthermore, the only amino acids or amines utilized by SB2B were L-13 tyrosine and N-acetyl glucosamine.

14

15 **Phosphorus and sulfur utilization patterns.** Adenosine 5'-monophosphate (AMP) was 16 the sole phosphorus source utilized by all five strains. Of the 55 phosphorus compounds 17 degraded by Shewanella, 39 were only utilized by MR-7 and MR-1. In fact, these two 18 strains yielded a larger number of positive phenotypes for both the phosphate and sulfur 19 sources tested. MR-7 was able to utilize 52 phosphate- and 15 sulfur- sources, and 20 strain MR-1 used 48 and 19 substrates, respectively (Fig. 1C and 1D). The remaining 21 strains degraded a very limited number of phosphate substrates besides AMP; W3-18-1 22 utilized TMP, AMP, GMP, CMP, UMP, pyrophosphate; while MR-4 utilized 23 phosphogluconic acid and carbamylphosphate. Strain SB2B was able to utilize only TMP 24 in addition to AMP (Fig. 1C). While W-3-18-1 tested positive for 3 of the sulfur 25 compounds (L-cysteine sulfinic acid, glutathione, Glu-Met), MR-4 and SB2B did not 26 utilize any sulfur compounds under the conditions tested (Fig. 1D).

2 Smaller scale comparisons of biolog phenotypes. We sought to explain some of the 3 Biolog phenotypes from known phenotypes, genome contents, and orthologous relationships of the encoded genes (Supplementary Material ST1). The utilization of N-4 5 acetyl-D-glucosamine as a carbon source agrees with the published literature (42). 6 Lactate and pyruvate degradation via acetyl-CoA to acetate or the TCA cycle has been 7 shown with growth experiments (31). Also, the use of nucleotides and nucleosides, 8 including adenosine and inosine, has previously been shown for MR-1 (7), and can be 9 inferred for the other strains based on the presence of genes encoding for the 10 degradation enzymes.

11 According to the high throughput phenotype assay, MR-1 was the only strain 12 unable to utilize the C4 dicarboxylates L-malate, succinate, and fumarate. When these 13 results were observed in light of the genome sequences, we found that the gene 14 encoding the dicarboxylate carrier AbgT was absent from MR-1, but present in the other 15 strains (MR4_3833/MR7_3926/W3181_3971/Sama_3559). Furthermore, an 16 oxaloacetate decarboxylase was absent in MR-1 and present in the other strains 17 (MR4 2984-7/MR7 3066-9/W3181 3133-6/Sama 1054-1). This enzyme 18 decarboxylates oxaloacetate to pyruvate, and may be involved in the conversion of 4C 19 dicarboxylic acids via pyruvate and the gluconeogenesis pathway to 5C and 6C 20 essential metabolic intermediates. MR-1 also tested negative for L-arabinose utilization. 21 An arabinose (and arabinoside) metabolism locus, including a TonB arabinose receptor, 22 an ABC arabinose transporter, and enzymes degrading L-arabinose to xylose-5-23 phosphate, is found in the genomes of the strains MR-4 (MR4 1977-2001), MR-7 24 (MR7 1997-1974), and W3-18-1 (W3181 1944-1966), but not in MR-1, also observed 25 by (34). Strain SB2B, also with an L-arabinose utilizing phenotype, did not contain the 26 above locus and may use another hitherto unknown pathway to degrade arabinose. Two

additional sugars, D-mannose and D-fructose, were utilized by MR-7 and SB2B. A locus containing genes with similarity to the mannose utilization pathway is present in these organisms (MR7_3383-8/Sama_0565-60) with a second mannose transporter and utilization locus detected in SB2B (Sama_0303-4). While fructose can be degraded via the mannose degradation pathway, a transporter specific for fructose was not identified, agreeing with previous results (34).

7 In another example, N-acetyl-D-galactosamine was degraded by MR-4, MR-7, 8 and SB2B. This phenotype agrees with the presence of the aga operon for uptake and 9 degradation of N-acetyl-D-galactosamine in these strains (MR4 2530-6/MR7 2597-10 2603/Sama 1199-3). The Biolog assay also showed degradation of citric acid by the 11 same three strains. Based on a recent paper describing citric acid utilization by 12 Corynebacterium glutamicum (4), we identified genes for a citrate sensing two-13 component regulator and a three-component citrate transporter of the tricarboxylate 14 transporter (TTT) family in MR-4 and MR-7 (MR4_3099-5/MR7_0873-7). Genes 15 encoding these products were not found in the SB2B genome, suggesting that another 16 citrate utilization path was taken in this organism.

17

18 **Expanding testable predictions.** The high throughput genotype-phenotype comparison 19 among different strains allowed us to make targeted predictions for further experimental 20 analysis. For example, degradation of Tween 80 has been shown to involve an outer 21 membrane esterase in Pseudomonas aeruginosa (29). While no close homolog to the P. 22 aeruginosa enzyme was found in the 22 Shewanella genome sequences, we did identify 23 candidate genes present in the Tween degrading strains. Specifically, three candidate 24 genes encoding for surface expressed lipase а 25 (SO_2934/MR4_1469/MR7_1535/W3181_1613/Sama_2120), an outer membrane 26 phospholipase (SO 0428/MR4 0432/MR7 3595/W3181 0530/Sama 0379) and a cold-

1 lipase (SO 1994/MR4 2269/MR7 2341/W3181 1692/Sama 2029) were adapted 2 conserved among the strains. The latter gene encodes for a protein with sequence 3 similiarity to a cold-active lipase isolated from a deep-sea sediment metagenome (16). 4 We also identified two proton-dependent (oligo)peptide transporters 5 (SO 0002/MR4 3938/MR7 4030/W3181 4066/Sama 2411 and 6 SO 3195/MR4 1313/MR7 1380/W3181 1459/Sama 2266) that might be associated 7 with the use of Gly-Glu, Gly-Pro, or Gly-Asp as carbon sources by Shewanella.

8 Phenotype assays yielded positive results for strains MR-1, MR-4, and SB2B 9 tested with the heteropolysaccharide pectin. We searched the genomes for genes 10 present in these three strains and absent in MR-7 and W3-18-1 genomes, and noted an 11 outer membrane Ton-B dependent receptor (SO 1822/MR4 2467/Sama 1252). The 12 involvement of TonB receptors in the uptake of sugars and their derivatives has been 13 shown for MR-1 (42). We also identified a gene coding for a sugar-binding periplasmic 14 protein that may be linked to the degradation of dextrins, maltose, and sucrose in MR-4 15 (MR4 0355), MR-7 (MR7 3671), and SB2B (Sama 3287).

16

Linking genotypic and phenotypic changes. To gain insight into the phenotypic 17 18 variation and its relationship to the genome, we plotted the evolutionary distance 19 (defined as the % average nucleotide identity (ANI)) among the five strains and the 20 percent of identical phenotypes (Fig. 3, Supplementary Materials ST2 and ST3). The % 21 rRNA similarity vs. % ANI regression line was selected to represent a conserved trait (correlation coefficient $R^2 = 0.89$). The % conservation for orthologs was also included, 22 23 and it decreased more sharply with as the evolutionary distance increased ($R^2 = 0.76$). 24 We also observed a correlation between N source utilization and evolutionary distance $(R^2 = 0.86)$ (Fig 3). However, no such correlation was detected for the C source 25 utilization ($R^2 = 0.05$). Based on the clustering of the P and S utilization phenotypes (Fig. 26

1 C and 1D), it was evident that neither of these phenotypes would be conserved 2 according to their evolutionary distance. Because the number of 294 phenotypes for N 3 sources was significantly higher than the other compounds (67 C, 55 P, and 21 S), we 4 selected sets of 60 N sources randomly to calculate the % similarity vs. % ANI in order 5 to test for sample size bias. These datasets also showed a decrease in % similarity with 6 increasing evolutionary distance suggesting that the N source phenotypic results are not 7 dependent on the number of chemicals compared (data not shown).

8 In order to test whether the observed phenotypic diversity paralleled the gene 9 content diversity, we performed clustering analyses with each one of the datasets (Fig. 4 10 A and B). Similar clustering branches were observed for closely related strains MR-4 11 and MR-7, but the same correspondence was not seen with greater evolutionary 12 distances. The phenotypic diversity for closely related strains was much greater (longer 13 branch lengths in Fig. 4B) than their gene content diversity (shorter lengths, Fig. 4A).

14

15 **DISCUSSION**

16 Historically, the establishment of a direct link between genotype and its 17 phenotype has been performed through the study of mutants. However, the generation 18 of thousands of mutants can be costly and laborious. Here, we explored a different 19 avenue for developing such a link by making use of hundreds of Biolog phenotypes and 20 by taking advantage of predicted genes and pathways through comparative genomics. 21 Owing to the high phenotypic diversity within the Shewanella and availability of many 22 sequenced genomes, we selected five isolates representing a gradient of evolutionary 23 distances within the genus for this study.

The phenotype assay is not a measure of growth on the different substrates, but rather an indication of respiration when a nutrient source is provided. The presence of a transport system and catabolic pathway for a specific chemical compound would lead to

1 the production of NADH that then reduces a tetrazolium dye (1). Measuring respiration 2 has an advantage over growth assays as the microbial cell metabolic response to a 3 chemical compound is detected, even when growth support is not observed. Hence, in 4 our study respiration is a reflection of the ability to utilize different substrates. Likewise, 5 we used five genome sequences and their gene content to reflect the genetic potential of 6 the Shewanella genus, without taking into account the many regulatory levels that 7 determine whether a gene is expressed or whether the protein is synthesized and active. 8 By analyzing the predicted functions of the encoded proteins as well as their presence or 9 absence relative to a given phenotype, we were able to successfully confirm a series of 10 genome predictions towards a specific metabolism and to identify a series of target 11 genes for further genetic analysis.

12 Because the comparative phenotype analysis dealt with different numbers of C, 13 N, P, and S sources, we normalized the utilization profile based on the percent of 14 positive results over the total of number compounds tested. The emerging pattern of 15 phenotypes suggested that Shewanella is capable of utilizing a variety of N compounds, 16 (77% of the tested N sources) including several amino acids and dipeptides (Fig. 1). The 17 particular ability to grow on several amino acids was previously observed for strain MR-1 18 (32), but the use of amino acids as a sole N source was not extensively tested in the 19 Shewanella genus. This preference for N sources might explain the isolation of different 20 species of this genus from a variety of environments such as dead fish (9), chicken 21 breast (9), clinical samples (41), and marine sediments (26, 27, 40), where DNA and 22 polypeptides are known to accumulate. Despite the large number of N sources tested, 23 only 50, mainly dipeptides (90%), were utilized by all five strains. N-acetyl-D-24 glucosamine was used by these five strains as both N and as C sources (Fig. 2). While 25 N-acetyl-D-glucosamine previously has been characterized as a carbon and energy 26 source for the Shewanellae (42), its use as an N source has not been reported. We

1 identified 15 compounds that could be used both as N and C source by at least one of 2 the strains. Interestingly, while SB2B was the only strain able to utilize L-threonine as a 3 C source, the other four strains utilized it as an N source. Overall, there was a decrease 4 in the number of N compounds shared among the strains as the ANI values increased. 5 Fewer shared compounds might indicate a decrease in ecological niche overlap once 6 speciation has taken place. To address this possibility, first we compared the N 7 utilization profiles for the most closely related isolates, namely MR-4 and MR-7. These 8 Shewanellae, with 97.05% ANI, are strains of the same species (21) and shared the 9 largest number of N compounds (227). A comparison of these two strains to S. 10 oneidensis showed the number of shared N sources decreasing to 187 for MR-4 vs. MR-11 1 (87.74% ANI) and 175 for MR-7 vs. MR-1 (87.70% ANI). Strains MR-4 and MR-7 came 12 from the same environment, where niches have more similar conditions (Table 1). 13 Accordingly, strain SB2B, which came from an environment differing significantly from 14 the others, had the least number of overlaps in N source utilization with 81 positive 15 phenotypes when compared to the other strains. None of these N sources were uniquely 16 utilized by SB2B. However, upon inspection of the SB2B orthologs (Supplementary 17 Material ST1) we identified a stretch of six genes (Sama 0018 to Sama 0023) absent 18 from the other four strains that could be linked to nitrogen metabolism. Two of these 19 genes, Sama 0022 and Sama 0023, encode a predicted urea carboxylase cleaving 20 urea-1-carboxylate to CO₂ and ammonia, with the possibility of the later being 21 assimilated as a nitrogen source. The other co-localized genes included two membrane 22 proteins and a LamB family protein, but their specific role in nitrogen metabolism 23 remains unknown.

When attempting to make in depth connections between the ecology and genomic information of microorganisms, environmental metadata is generally missing or not fully described. Although, not different in our study, the limited habitat description for

1 the Shewanella isolates in congruency with the large-scale comparative phenotype 2 approach provided insights into the functional strategies devised by the five strains in 3 their environment. Shewanella amazonensis strain SB2B was capable of utilizing a full 4 range of C compounds, 60 out of the 67 tested, varying from well-known growth 5 substrates for Shewanella such as pyruvate and lactate to previously unknown 6 compounds such as the Tween series and laminarin. As SB2B was isolated from the 7 coastal muddy waters of the Amazon River, a low salinity environment (Table 1), it is 8 likely exposed to a full plethora of C compounds washed out from the Amazon forest 9 (25). In contrast with the SB2B C utilization profile, strain W3-18-1 yielded positive 10 results for only 25 C compounds. This might be a reflection of the W3-18-1 genetic 11 adaptation to nutrient limitation imposed in the marine sediments of the Pacific Ocean 12 (38).

13 Together, the five Shewanella strains selected for this study encode a total of 14 6,790 genes. Approximately 39% of the genes are present in all strains while the unique 15 genes comprise 21 - 40% of the genomes. On average, 550 genes per strain were 16 identified as unique, a number in accordance with the previously reported 468 unique 17 genes when ten Shewanella genomes were compared (21). In our high-throughput 18 genotype-phenotype analyses, we were able to link a few of these unique genes to 19 specific phenotypes. In addition, pathways believed to be missing in these Shewanella 20 strains (e.g. degradation of galactose, ribose, trehalose) were confirmed using the 21 phenotype assay.

It is noteworthy that not all observed phenotypes were explained through the use of comparative genomics. For example MR-7 was the only strain unable to utilize acetate and thymidine as C sources. From the ortholog table, we identified only four proteins that were missing in MR-7 and present in the other four strains; two lipopolysacharides biosynthesis genes and a transcriptional regulator with an adjacent

1 multidrug transporter. It is not evident how any of these functions could explain the 2 acetic acid and thymidine growth phenotypes. Likewise W3-18-1 is the only strain unable 3 to degrade L-glutamate and L-glutamine, yet no proteins for transport or degradation of 4 either compound could be found among the 137 genes absent from W3-18-1 and 5 present in the other four strains. Glutamate transporters as well as degrading enzymes 6 (i.e. glutamate decarboxylase, glutamate racemase, and mutase) were detected in all 7 five genome sequences. We observed a glutamate racemase (W3181_0949) and a 8 glutamine amidotransferase (W3181 0925) among proteins unique to W3-18-1, 9 suggesting that this organism may have a different strategy for metabolizing glutamine 10 and glutamate. Two possible reasons might explain the above differences. First, there is 11 a large fraction of genes without function predictions (37). Presently 21% of the protein 12 coding genes in the five strains remains of unknown function. Novel enzyme variants 13 may also encode some of the "missing" activities as was uncovered in studies focused 14 on revaluating the genomic content of S. oneidensis strain MR-1 (31, 42). Genome 15 reconstruction allowed identification of novel enzymes for both degradation of L-lactate 16 (lactate dehydrogenase, LIdEGF) and N-acetyl-glucosamine (glucosamine-6-phosphate 17 deaminase, NagB and N-acetylglucosamine kinase, NagK). Second, regulation of 18 expression or activity at the gene or protein level affects whether a phenotype is 19 exhibited, leading to weak phenotypic expression or a false negative in our analysis.

In order to validate our high-throughput phenotype approach, we compared our results to the recent work describing the reconstruction of *Shewanella* carbohydrate utilization pathways (34). Rodionov *et al.* determined the C degradation pathways for 19 *Shewanella* genomes using orthologous relationships, regulon predictions, and growth phenotypes. The increased number of genomes as well as the inclusion of growth phenotypes and regulatory networks allowed for thorough analysis of a subset of Csources compared to our analyses. Growth phenotype data were obtained for eight of

1 the sugars (arabinose, cellobiose, fructose, glucose, mannose, maltose, N-2 acetylglucosamine, sucrose) tested in our high-throughput phenotype assay. A 3 comparison between both studies indicated an agreement of 75% of the phenotypes 4 (W3-18-1 was not included in their growth studies). Although the dataset used for 5 comparison contains only a small number of sugars, we did not detect bias with regards 6 to a particular substrate or strain, attesting the validity of our approach. We also found 7 agreement in the utilization of amino acids by MR-1 between the Biolog phenotype and 8 growth (30) for six of the seven amino acids tested in both assays.

9 The five strains selected for this study had varying degrees of relatedness as 10 measured by the ANI. The two closest strains in the dataset, namely MR-4 and MR-7, 11 shared the highest fraction of genes (93%) relative to the other genome pairs (e.g. from 12 80% between MR-4 and MR-1 to 72% between MR-4 and SB2B). However, this high 13 sequence similarity between MR-4 and MR-7 was not reflected throughout the 14 phenotypic results (Fig. 4). These strains were among the most similar for the carbon 15 sources (88%) and nitrogen sources (77% similarity), but they were unable to both utilize 16 any of the 21 S sources tested and could only both use one of the 55 P sources tested. 17 Rather, MR-1 and MR-7 were able to utilize 87% and 95% of the P sources and 90% 18 and 76% of the S sources, respectively. The remaining strains only utilized 14% or less 19 of the P and S compounds. Considering that strains MR-1 and MR-7 have a more 20 distant evolutionary history (87.70% ANI), their similar growth phenotypes for P and S 21 sources might reflect the importance of whole cell networks and expression on 22 regulating ecological fitness under certain environmental conditions. High-throughput 23 phenotypic arrays were not designed to capture the interplay between whole cell gene 24 expression and environmental conditions. While it is clear that the present study 25 succeeds in deciphering novel phenotypic traits from a combination of high-throughput

phenotypes and comparative genomics, future work on linking the evolution of the
 phenotypes to environment fitness will need to include genome wide analyses.

The present study addressed the importance of bridging genomes and their counterpart phenotypes. The strategy devised here could accelerate the functional discovery of genes and provide an ecological framework for genome sequencing projects.

7

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- 16

1 FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1. Two-dimensional map representation of the large scale comparative analysis of nutrient utilization for five *Shewanella* strains. Differences in color shade intensities represent differences in metabolic activity of transformed data as follows: black (no activity was detected), light color (below 50 units), dark color (between 50 and 100 units), intense color (above 100 units). The units are arbitrary and represent the calculated difference between the areas of a specific well and the control well.

8

9 Fig. 2. Carbon source utilization by five *Shewanella* strains. The substrates and their 10 entry points into central metabolism via key metabolic intermediates are shown. 11 Substrates utilized by all five strains are highlighted in bold. Abbreviations include: PP, 12 pentose phosphate pathway; EDD, Entner-Doudoroff pathway; TCA, tricarboxylic acid 13 pathway; G6P, glucose-6-phosphate; GA3P, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate; PYR, 14 pyruvate; AcCoA, acetyl-CoenzymeA.

15

16 Fig. 3. Phenotypic and genotypic changes over evolutionary time. Five Shewanella 17 strains were compared in a pair-wise manner for their similarity at the 16S rRNA (green), 18 number of gene orthologs (purple), nitrogen utilization phenotype (blue), and carbon 19 utilization phenotype (red). The similarity of these traits, measured by % of shared 20 ortholog, positive Biolog phenotypes, or rRNA residues, is plotted relative to the % 21 average nucleotide identity (ANI) of the genome pair. A regression line and the curve 22 fitness (R-value) are shown for each trait. When fewer than 10 symbols are shown, 23 results overlap.

24

Fig. 4. Cladograms showing genomic and phenotypic comparisons among five Shewanella strains. Panels: (A) gene-content clustering based on orthologs identified

among the five genomes and (B) phenotypic transformed data clustering based on the
 presence/absence of respiratory activity for 441 nutrient sources. Scale bars indicate the
 percent similarity obtained from calculated matrices.

4

5 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

1. Figure SF1. Complete two-dimensional map of nutrient utilization profile for five sequenced *Shewanella* strains. Only nutrient sources with positive results for at least one strain are depicted: 67 carbon sources (red), 299 nitrogen sources (blue), 55 phosphorous sources (green), and 21 sulfur sources (yellow). Differences in color shade intensities represent differences in metabolic activity of transformed data as follows: black (no activity was detected), light color (below 50 units), dark color (between 50 and 100 units), intense color (above 100 units).

13

14 2. **Table ST1**. Table of *Shewanella* gene products and their orthologous relationships.

15 The complete sets of proteins encoded by the five *Shewanella* strains compared are

16 included in the table. The proteins are labeled with their locus tag, and their orthologous

17 relationships are indicated in the table. Functional descriptions of the gene products are

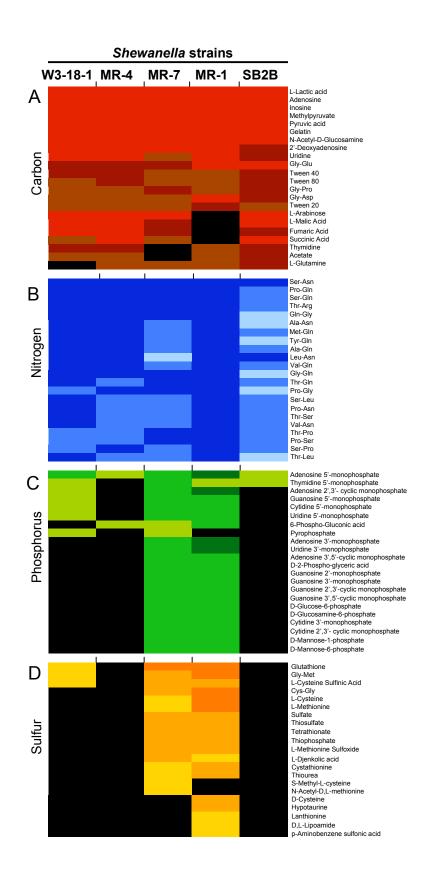
18 listed as well as the metabolic roles for gene products discussed in the paper.

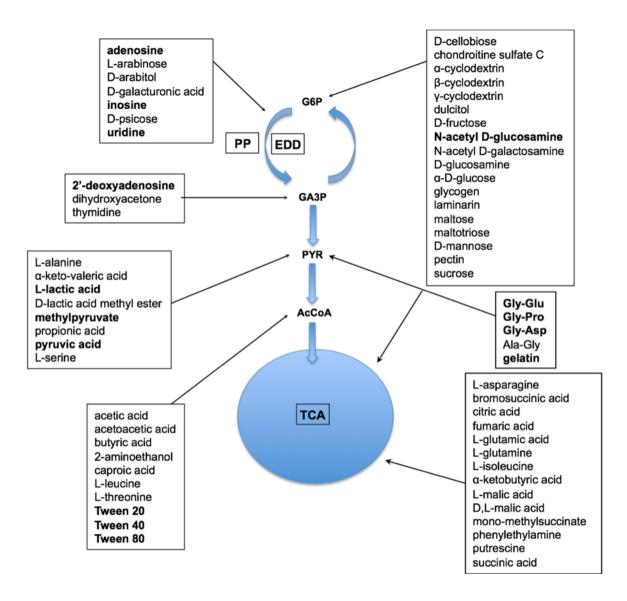
19

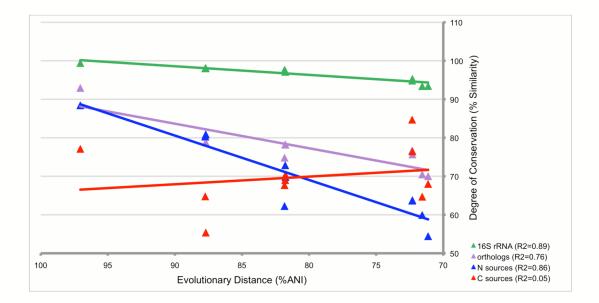
20 3. **Table ST2**. Average nucleotide identity values for the strains compared.

21

4. **Table ST3**. Calculations of trait similarity across evolutionary distance.







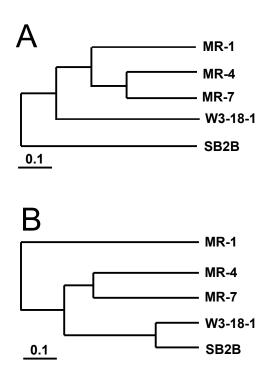


TABLE 1. Description of habitats of isolation and genome information for the *Shewanella* strains used in this study.

| Habitat of Isolation | Environmental characteristics | Shewanella species | Genome size (number of genes)⁵ | Reference |
|---|---|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|
| Lake Oneida (USA) fresh sediment | Anaerobic redox condition, pH 7.5-8.2, 4° C (Winter) and 20° C (Summer), > 100 μ M Mn ⁺⁴ | Shewanella oneidensis MR-1 | 5,131,416 (4,745) | 27 |
| Amazon River delta (Brazil) sediment | Non-sulfidic, suboxic redox conditions, 26.4- 31.5° C, 0.1-1 mM Fe ⁺² , 0.1-0.2 mM Cl ⁻ (low salinity), depth of 1 m | Shewanella amazonensis SB2B | 4,306,142 (3,785) | 40 |
| Pacific Ocean (USA) marine sediment | Washington coast, 3.4°C, 10 μ M Fe ⁺² , 76 μ M NH ₄ , depth of 997 m | Shewanella sp. W3-1-18 | 4,708,380 (4,217) | 26, 38 |
| Black Sea sediments | $8^{o}C$, 5 μM $O_{2},$ 7 μM NO_{3} depth of 60 m | Shewanella sp. MR-7 | 4,799,109 (4,186) | 28 ^a |
| Black Sea water | 16°C, 280 μ M O _{2,} depth of 5 m | Shewanella sp. MR-4 | 4,706,287 (4,084) | 28 ^ª |

^a Values were calculated based on reference. ^b Genome size (Mb) and number of predicted genes were calculated as a sum of chromosome and plasmid, when the later was present.