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- 1 Mining for NRPS and PKS genes revealed a high diversity in the Sphagnum bog
- 2 metagenome
- 3
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- 11 Running title: NRPS and PKS screening in the Sphagnum microbiome
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## 15 Abstract

16 Sphagnum bog ecosystems are one of the oldest vegetation forms harbouring a specific 17 microbial community, which is known to produce an exceptionally wide variety of bioactive substances. Although the Sphagnum metagenome indicate a rich secondary 18 19 metabolism, the genes are not yet explored. To analyse non-ribosomal peptide synthetases 20 (NRPS) and polyketide synthases (PKS) the diversity of NRPS and PKS genes in Sphagnum-21 associated metagenome was investigated by in silico data mining and sequence-based 22 screening (PCR-amplification of 9500 fosmid clones). The in silico Illumina-based 23 metagenomic approach resulted in the identification of 279 NRPS, 346 PKS, as well as 40 24 PKS-NRPS hybrid gene sequences. Occurrence of NRPS sequences was strongly dominated 25 by the phyla Protebacteria, especially by the genus Burkholderia, while PKS sequences were 26 mainly affiliated to Actinobacteria. Thirteen novel NRPS-related sequences were identified 27 by PCR-amplification screening, displaying amino acid sequence identities of 48 to 91% to 28 annotated sequences of the phyla Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria and Cyanobacteria. Some of 29 the identified metagenomic clones showed closest similarity to peptide synthases from 30 Burkholderia or Lysobacter, which are emerging bacterial sources of yet undescribed 31 bioactive metabolites. This study highlights the role of the extreme natural ecosystems as a 32 promising source for detection of secondary compounds and enzymes, serving as a source for 33 biotechnological applications.

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35 *Keywords: Sphagnum* moss, NRPS/PKS, metagenome, fosmid library, *in silico* data mining

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## 37 Introduction

38 The plant microbiome has established itself in recent years as an important player in the field 39 of plant health and agricultural productivity (1). Mosses, especially Sphagnum species, are a 40 phylogenetically old group of land plants in bog ecosystems, which are unique extreme 41 habitats displaying high acidity, low temperature and water saturation, together with extremely low concentrations of mineral nutrients (2). Sphagnum bogs in particular reflect an 42 43 enormous importance because of their approved role in the global carbon cycle and have 44 therefore been used globally as an indicator of climate change (3). The role of Sphagnum 45 mosses as an important model for examining the plant-microbe interactions as well as the 46 ecology of plant-associated bacteria has been reported (4). Sphagnum mosses are in particular 47 characterized by a specific but diverse microbial community (5-7, 4), which fulfil important 48 functions in cooperation with the host, promoting plant growth by enhancing nutrient supply 49 and showing antagonistic activity against plant pathogens (4, 8). In fact, high abundance of 50 functional systems that are responsible for oxidative and drought stress, repair, resistance and 51 genetic exchange were detected recently by metagenomic analysis of the Sphagnum 52 microbiome (4). The biological activity of bryophytes and their traditional use in medicine 53 and agriculture are well known (9). It has been shown, that Sphagnum species produce 54 bioactive secondary metabolites, which influence their microbial colonisation (8). Bryophytes 55 have been traditionally used in China, India and among Native Americans for their antifungal 56 properties, and Sphagnum moss was employed as natural disinfectant for natural nappies or 57 wound dressings in Europe (9). There are more than 300 natural compounds that have been 58 isolated from bryophytes, mainly from liverworts (Marchantiophyta) but also from mosses 59 (Bryophyta) (10). Some of the reported natural products in mosses are highly unsaturated fatty 60 acids, alkanones, triterpenoids and flavonoids (10). Biological effects observed for extracts of 61 mosses include antimicrobial, antifungal, cytotoxic, and antitumor activities (11, 12). The 62 analysis of endo- and ectophytic bacterial strains revealed that Sphagnum moss harbours an extraordinary high proportion of antifungal isolates, as well as a lower proportion of antibacterial isolates, which can partly explain the medicinal use (8). However, the major part (97%) of microbial communities associated with *Sphagnum* mosses belong to non-cultivable forms (7). Therefore, the antimicrobial potential of the moss microbiome remains mostly unexplored.

68 Prominent classes of active compounds from microbial and plant origin (antibiotics, 69 antifungals or antitumor agents) are synthesized by large multi-modular enzymes, the non-70 ribosomal peptide synthetases (NRPSs) and polyketide synthases (PKSs) or hybrids thereof 71 (13). The widespread occurrence of the NRPS and PKS genetic machinery across all three 72 domains of life (bacteria, archaea and eukarya) has been reported (14). Bacteria host the 73 majority of the described NRPS/PKS gene clusters, which are especially common in the phyla 74 Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, Firmicutes and Cyanobacteria (14). Both NRPSs and PKSs 75 are regarded as multi-enzymatic mega-synthases (200-2000 kDa) organized in a modular 76 assembly line fashion, that contains catalytic modules for single rounds of chain elongation 77 and variable modifications of the intermediate product (13). In non-ribosomal peptides 78 (NRPs) defined monomers, amino acids or non-proteinogenic monomers, are incorporated by 79 specific modules consisting of three essential catalytic domains. The adenylation (A) domain 80 catalyse the activation of the amino acid, which is then transferred to the peptidyl carrier 81 protein (PCP), followed by condensation of the bound amino acid (condensation (C) domain) 82 (15). In a similar way, PKS mega-enzymes consist of an acyltransferase (AT) domain for selection of the monomer substrate, usually malonyl- or methyl-malonyl-CoA, priming it to 83 84 the acyl carrier protein (ACP), followed by chain elongation and condensation (C-C-bond 85 formation) by a ketosynthase (KS) domain (16). In addition to the core domains, a variable 86 set of domains for further modifications of the peptide chain (epimerization, 87 heterocyclization) (15) or the polyketide chain (ketoreduction, dehydration) are available 88 (16). Termination of the chain is catalysed in both NRPS and PKS by a thioester (TE) domain. Because of structural and functional similarities between elements of each class,
NRPS and PKS can form mixed assembly lines (hybrid gene clusters) (14). Rational design
of combinatorial PKS and NRPS modules is an emerging strategy to design tailor-made
antibiotics or therapeutic compounds (17).

93 Rapid development of new metagenomic approaches permit the assessment and exploitation of the taxonomic as well as the functional diversity of microbial communities 94 95 (18, 19). The discovery of novel biocatalysts for production of natural active compounds can 96 be accomplished through screening of metagenomic libraries, for example by PCR-based 97 screening techniques. Metagenomic applications were recently used for detection of 98 NRPS/PKS genes of bacterial communities in soil (20) and marine environments (21), but 99 not for plant-associated microhabitats or extreme bog ecosystems known to be rich in 100 antimicrobial activity (22).

101 In this study, our aim was to explore the diversity of sequences assigned to NRPS and 102 PKS genes in the Sphagnum-associated bacteria, allowing us greater insight into potentially 103 novel synthetic pathways and biocatalysts. We combined two sequence-based screening 104 methods to search for NRPS and PKS related sequences: in silico mining in the moss 105 metagenomic database and PCR-amplification screening of a metagenomic fosmid library in 106 E. coli. Origin and abundance of the identified metagenomic sequences were investigated. 107 Our results demonstrate how sequence-based screenings can be used to detect NRPS and PKS 108 genes involved in the biosynthesis of secondary metabolites within the Sphagnum moss 109 microbiome.

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## 111 Methods

## 112 In silico analysis of the Sphagnum moss dataset

113 The recently published metagenomic dataset of the Sphagnum microbiome (4) was employed 114 for data mining of NRPS and PKS gene sequences. The generated paired-end reads from 115 untreated and normalized sequences from a previous study by Bragina et al. (4) were quality 116 filtered (trimming of read ends with an average <Q30 and polyN nucleotides) using the 117 PRINSEQ software according to the manual (http://prinseq.sourceforge.net). The normalized 118 dataset consisted of ssDNA sequences after treatment and separation by hydroxyapatite 119 chromatography (4). Untreated and normalized datasets were pooled and the generated mixed 120 dataset was used for *de novo* assembly with the SOAPdenovo2 software 121 (http://soap.genomics.org.cn/soapdenovo.html) using default parameters for metagenomic 122 datasets (23). Briefly, the SOAPec correction tool was used first to filter short reads (kmer 123 size  $\leq 17$ , quality value of 33, thread of 12), using a low frequency cutoff value of 5. For 124 contig assembly (de Bruijn graph) a kmer size of 23 was employed, using an average insert 125 size of 200 bp, a read length cut-off of 100 bp, a paired end cutoff value of 3 and a minimum 126 alignment length of 32. The resulting fasta file from *de novo* assembly, including the 127 assembled scaffolds and contigs, was employed as query for blastx analysis using a self-128 developed bioinformatics workflow (fasta-file splitting, blastx, and generation of the blastx 129 database). Then, the resulting moss metagenomic blastx database was mined for NRPS and 130 PKS gene sequences employing a self-developed script, which works on the basis of a search 131 term. The terms "non ribosomal peptide synthetase" and "polyketide synthase" were used for 132 the search. Additionally, to compare the abundance of NRPS and PKS with other commonly 133 found microbial genes a search was performed for monooxygenases and rpoD RNA 134 polymerases.

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### 136 Sampling and total community DNA isolation

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Sampling of *S. magellanicum* gametophytes and preparation of the microbiome for total community DNA isolation (enrichment of microbial fraction and removal of plant debris) was performed as reported in Bragina *et al.* (4). To construct the fosmid library for PCR-based screening, total community DNA was extracted using the Meta-G-Nome<sup>™</sup> DNA Isolation Kit (Epicentre, Madison, WI, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Metagenomic DNA was randomly sheared to fragment sizes of approximately 40 kb that were used for construction of the fosmid library.

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### 145 Metagenomic fosmid library generation and PCR screening

146 A metagenomic fosmid library from the Sphagnum moos microbiome was constructed using 147 the CopyControl Fosmid Library Production Kit (Epicentre) as described by the 148 manufacturer's instructions. In short, the isolated metagenomic DNA (1  $\mu$ g) of approximately 149 40 kb was directly used for blunt-end repair and was ligated into the CopyControl 150 pCC2FOS<sup>™</sup> vector (1.1 µg vector, 0.62 µg insert DNA). The ligated DNA was packaged 151 with MaxPlax Lambda Packaging Extracts. The packaged phage particles were employed to infect E. coli EPI300-T1<sup>R</sup> cells. The fosmid library was spread onto LB agar plates containing 152 153 12.5 µg ml<sup>-1</sup> chloramphenicol and incubated at 37 °C overnight. In total, 9500 clones were 154 randomly transferred to 96-well microtiter plates (MTP) containing 150 µl of LB medium with chloramphenicol (12.5 µg ml<sup>-1</sup>) using sterile tooth picks, each plate consisting of ninety-155 156 five different clones and one negative control (only medium). MTP cultures were grown at 37 157 °C overnight by shaking at 225 rpm, and finally stored at -70 °C after addition of glycerol to a 158 final concentration of 25% (v/v) to each well. To estimate the average insert size in the 159 fosmid clones, restriction digestion was performed with BamHI. For the PCR screening, 10 160 clones were pooled together for a total of 10 MTP-pools in LB medium (12.5 µg ml<sup>-1</sup> chloramphenicol). The pooled MTPs were cultivated under the conditions described above, 161 162 upon addition of 1x Fosmid Autoinduction Solution (Epicentre) to induce high copy number.

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163 Denaturation (15 min at 99°C) of diluted MTP cultures (1:2 in ddH<sub>2</sub>O) and centrifugation 164 (4000 rpm, 5 min) were performed in order to make the fosmid DNA accessible to PCR 165 screening with the two previously reported degenerated primer pairs NRPS1 and NRPS2 (24) 166 which are given in Supplementary Material, Table S1. A standard PCR reaction (25 µl) 167 contained 1x Taq 2xMaster Mix (12.5 µl, New England Biolabs, Ipswich, UK), 0.4 µM of 168 each primer (1 µl degenerated primer, Table 1; Sigma-Aldrich, Wien, Austria), ddH<sub>2</sub>O  $(4.25 \ \mu l)$ , 5% (v/v) DMSO  $(1.25 \ \mu l)$  and 5  $\mu l$  of pooled template DNA. Following PCR 169 170 program was used: 95 °C, 5 min; 35 cycles of 95 °C, 1 min; 57 °C, 1 min; 68 °C, 1 min; and elongation at 68 °C, 10 min. PCR products were analysed by 2% agarose/TAE gel 171 172 electrophoresis. Localization of positive clones was achieved by repetition of the PCR as 173 described above, employing in this case the 10 single clones from the previously identified 174 positive MTP-pool.

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#### 176 Phylogenetic analysis of identified fosmid clones

177 Diluted PCR products (1:1000) from single fosmid clones identified as positive hits during 178 rescreening of the library were amplified with shorter non-degenerated primer pairs 179 NRPS1ndeg and NRPS2ndeg (nested PCR), employing the above mentioned PCR program. 180 These primers resemble those used for library screening but lacking the degenerated 181 nucleotides in the 3'-region (Supplementary Material, Table S1). The resulting PCR products 182 were purified using a Wizard® SV 96 PCR Clean-Up System (Promega, Mannheim, 183 Germany) and sent for Sanger sequencing at LGC Genomics (Berlin, Germany). Based on the 184 first sequencing results, selected fosmids (3-F3, 3-H3, 2-D4, 2-F4, 7-B9, 6-H4) were partially 185 sequenced by primer walking using for each a sequence-specific primer (Supplementary 186 Material, Table S1). This allowed retrieval of longer DNA sequences contiguous to the 187 previously identified NRPS gene region (up to 1100 bp) directly from the fosmid clones. 188 Analysis of the obtained sequences was performed using BLASTx (25) against the non-

189	redundant (nr) protein sequences database at NCBI (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/protein) or
190	the KEGG database (http://www.genome.jp/kegg). The retrieved amino acid (aa) sequences
191	of positive fosmid clones were employed for phylogenetic analysis, together with the most
192	similar gene sequences from the blastx search. Alignment of aa sequences and construction of
193	the phylogenetic tree were performed with CLC Main Workbench 6.9.1. The phylogenetic
194	tree was generated using the Unweighted Pair Group Method using Arithmetic averages
195	(UPMGA), Kimura Protein as distance measure and a bootstrap of 1000 replicates.

### 197 Results

## 198 Data mining in the moss metagenomic dataset

The metagenomic dataset of *Sphagnum magellanicum* moss (Illumina HiSeq 2x100 pairedend sequencing) consist of 17323 Mbp raw (pair-number: 86617475) and 14141 Mbp normalised metagenomic DNA (pair-number: 70705608) (4). *De novo* assembly of the pooled metagenome (raw and normalized reads; N50 of 199) yielded 1062181 contig sequences (168393 scaffolds and 893788 contigs), featuring a total size of 188.2 Mbp with an average length of 183 bp (Supplementary Material, Table S2).

205 Blastx analysis of the metagenomic dataset revealed that NRPS, PKS and NRPS-PKS 206 hybrid gene sequences are present in the moss microbiome. Without cutoff settings, the blastx 207 dataset consist of 279 NRPS, 346 PKS, and 40 hybrid or mixed gene sequences (Table 1). 208 This translates into a rate of 0.063% contigs containing NRPS/PKS gene sequences in the 209 assembled Sphagnum metagenome (665 out of 1062181 contigs). In comparison, other 210 common microbial gene sequences such as those coding for monooxygenases (3244 contigs) 211 or the rpoD RNA polymerase (sigma 70 factor; 160 contigs), contributed to the assembly with 212 rates of 0.305% and 0.015%, respectively. It has to be considered that the estimated rates rely 213 on the availability of annotated homolog genes in the employed databases, which can be 214 subjected to changes along with the discovery of novel sequences. Therefore, our results may 215 underrepresent the real frequency of these protein families in the microbial community. The 216 highest abundance of NRPS closest matches belong to the phyla Proteobacteria 217 (Burkholderia spp., n=50, 18%; Pseudomonas spp., n=40, 14%; Myxococcus spp., n=27, 218 10%) and Actinobacteria (Streptomyces spp., n=25, 9%; Rhodococcus spp., n=10, 4%). In the 219 case of PKS, closest matches are mainly represented by Actinobacteria (Mycobacterium spp., 220 n=92, 27%; Streptomyces spp., n=46, 13%) and uncultured bacteria (n=18, 5%). The 221 remaining hits from the in silico search show a diverse distribution of underrepresented taxa 222 from Proteobacteria and Actinobacteria, but also from Cyanobacteria (e.g. Nostoc,

Anabaena, Pseudoanabaena, Microcystis, Fischerella). Hybrid-gene matches are mainly
affiliated to the phylum Proteobacteria (Pseudomonas spp., n=7, 18%; Lysobacter spp., n=6,
15%, and Myxococcus spp., n=6, 15%).

Employing an E value cutoff of  $10^{-20}$  (bitscore >88) it was possible to select the best 226 227 matching sequences in the database. This resulted in a confined selection of 34 NRPS and 28 228 PKS genes, as well as three NRPS-PKS hybrids (Supplementary Material, Table S3). These 229 sequences display diverse identities to their closest neighbour from the blastx analysis ranging 230 from 35 to 98%. Many of the selected PKS sequences with a higher similarity (>60% 231 identity) to annotated genes in the nr database are mainly related to the genus *Mycobacterium*. 232 The remaining sequences (35-60% identity) show similarity to PKSs from diverse genera, 233 such as Streptomyces or Rubrivivax. In the case of NRPS gene sequences, the most abundant 234 genera from the closest hits are Burkholderia, followed by Bradyrhizobium, Pseudomonas, 235 Mycobacterium and Pectobacterium. One hybrid gene sequence is related to the genus 236 *Lysobacter* and the remaining two resemble the well-studied Yersiniabactin synthase (26) 237 from Pseudomonas syringae. Additionally, five of the NRPS and PKS gene sequences display 238 the highest similarity to annotated genes from yet uncultured bacteria.

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### 240 Fosmid library screening

241 The Sphagnum moss fosmid library was generated employing 1 µg of metagenomic DNA, 242 obtained from the enriched microbial fraction (1 g) contained in 200 g moss. Based on the 243 number of clones obtained (96,025) and an average insert size of 27 kb, the library size was 244 estimated as 2.6 Gb. In total, 9,500 randomly selected clones (0.26 Gb) were employed for the 245 screening of NRPS genes by PCR amplification in MTP using two different degenerated 246 oligonucleotide primer pairs (NRPS1 and NRPS2). The primers were previously designed to 247 target the adenylation domain of NRPS gene clusters in diverse soil samples (27). In total, 25 248 NRPS1 and 33 NRPS2 wells, each containing a pool of ten clones, gave a positive amplification result. A second round of screening of the corresponding single clones resulted in 11 NRPS1 and 26 NRPS2 putative positive hits. Positive clones were subjected to optimization of PCR-conditions with shorter non-degenerated primer pairs in a nested PCR to avoid the amplification of unspecific products. Amplicons of 21 NRPS positive fosmids that were obtained as a pure DNA band were sent for sequencing.

Based on blastx analysis against the nr protein sequences database (NCBI) and the KEGG database, 14 sequences showed similarity to genes encoding for peptide synthases (NRPS, Table 2) and could be therefore assigned to these protein family. Seven clones were detected with each primer pair (NRPS1 or NRPS2) respectively, resulting in an average hit rate of one NRPS gene per 37 Mb of screened moss metagenomic DNA.

NRPS sequence identities to the closest hits from blastx analysis range from 48 to 99% (Table 2). Most of the identified closest neighbour sequences belong to the phylum of *Proteobacteria* (12 hits; 86%), and in particular to the genus of *Pseudomonas* (4 hits, Table 2). The remaining two hits include the phyla *Actinobacteria* (*Kutzneria albida*) and *Cyanobacteria* (*Rubidibacter lacunae*). Despite of the clone 3-F3, showing a very high aa sequence homology of 99.4% to a peptide synthase from *Pseudomonas* sp. Ag1, all other 13 clones harbour novel, not yet annotated aa sequences with maximal identities of up to 91%.

The obtained aa sequences aligned partially to conserved domains of annotated NRPS sequences, either to the adenylation domain (A\_NRPS motif; cd05930), the phosphopantetheine prosthetic group attachment site (pp-binding motif; pfam00550) or the condensation domain (pfam00668) (see multiple sequence alignment in Supplementary Material, Figure S1).

To gain a better overview of putative NRPS amino acid sequences found in the fosmid library a phylogenetic tree was generated (Figure 1). Sequences with a hit length of >100 aa and a gap value <2% were placed on the tree. The phylogenetic analysis exhibits the distribution of the putative NRPS sequences, which clustered into three main groups. The first 275 group is composed of  $\alpha$ -Proteobacteria, containing the sequences NRPS 7-F1 and 6-H4. 276 These sequences are most related to peptide synthetases from the family of Caulobacteraceae 277 and Agrobacterium spp. The product of these peptide synthase gene clusters are, however, 278 still unknown. The second and more diverse group includes the NRPS sequences 4-B4, 7-D4, 279 and 6-B1, clustering in closer proximity to peptide synthetases from  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -, and  $\gamma$ -280 Proteobacteria. Sequences from clones 7-D4 and 6-B1 are close related to thioester-281 reductases from Dyella and Variovorax species. This group is also in close proximity to the 282 well-studied Gramicidin synthase from Kutzneria albida (phylum of Actinobacteria). 7-D4 283 displays furthermore a distant similarity (50%) to the Gramicidin synthetase (LgrC) from 284 Streptacidiphilus albus (Table 2). The closest match of clone 4-B4 to a synthetase coding for 285 a known product is the Syringopeptin synthetase b from Photorhabdus asymbiotica (65% aa 286 sequence similarity; Table 2). The third group, which includes the NRPS sequences 3-F3, 7-287 B9, and 2-F4, comprises species from Pseudomonas and Lysobacter (y-Proteobacteria). The 288 sequence of clones 3-F3 and 2-F4 match partially to the biosynthetic pathway genes of the 289 siderophore Pyoverdin from *Pseudomonas amygdali* and the toxin Syringomycin from *P*. 290 syringae, respectively (61% and 57% similarity, Table 2).

Additionally, to investigate a possible overlap of NRPS sequences found by both screening methodologies the fosmid clones sequences were aligned (blastn) against the NRPS contig dataset from the *in silico* screening. Overlaps with high sequence similarity (up to 100%) were obtained only for very short DNA fragments (<15 bp). The best alignment score (63 bit, E value of 7.00E-12) was found for the fosmid clone 7-B9 and the scaffold30678 with a sequence similarity of 91% (alignment length of 47 bp).

## 298 Discussion

299 Our strategy to identify NRPS and PKS genes within moss-associated bacteria using two 300 different approaches resulted in new findings. By in silico data mining we gained a valuable 301 insight into the abundance and origin of NRPS and PKS genes present in the Sphagnum moss 302 microbiome. Our hypothesis that the Sphagnum microbiome is a promising sources for novel 303 NRPS and PKS genes based on ecological knowledge (4, 8) was fulfilled. The biological 304 activity of bryophytes is well known (9) and several natural compounds have been elucidated 305 including antibiotics, antifungals or cytotoxic compounds (10). We could show that the 306 associated microbiota of Sphagnum has the biosynthetic potential to synthetize a significant 307 amount of natural products by NRPS and PKS systems. In fact, the previous functional 308 analysis of the Sphagnum metagenome revealed a high availability of subsystems that are 309 responsible for the synthesis of bioactive compounds, such as quorum sensing molecules, 310 toxins-antitoxins, adhesins, and especially sideropohores (4). Siderophore production and 311 antibiotic/antifungal activity has been detected in many bacteria isolated from Sphagnum sp. 312 (5, 6, 28, 29), although none microbial bioactive compounds has been isolated so far. Toxins, 313 siderophores and antibiotics are commonly synthetized by NRPS/PKS systems (30). This 314 compounds are often involved in characteristic reactions of microbial antagonisms, where 315 microbes inhibit each other (antibiotics, toxins) or compete for space, nutrients and minerals 316 (release of siderophores) in a shared microenvironment (31). A high incidence of 317 biosynthetic systems for siderophore production was expected since Sphagnum-dominated 318 peat bogs are nutrient deficient environments with low concentrations of bioavailable 319 minerals like iron (32).

The blastx analysis revealed a significant number and also a clear difference in the bacterial diversity between NRPS and PKS sequences in the *Sphagnum* metagenome (Table 1). The composition of microbial communities derived from PKS-related sequences is strongly dominated by the genera *Mycobacterium* and *Streptomyces*. These two Applied and Environmental Microbiology

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Actinobacteria are well-studied producers of bioactive compounds including both NRPs and PKs (33). The synthesis of flavonoids in higher plants is nearly ubiquitous and involves the use of chalcone synthases (CHS), which belongs to the family of type III PKS (34). However, type III PKSs (CHS-like enzymes) have been also identified in bacteria (e.g. *Streptomyces griseus, S. coelicolor, Mycobacterium tuberculosis, Bacillus subtilis, Pseudomonas fluorescens*) and fungi (35). This strongly supports the possible microbial synthesis of flavonoid and aromatic polyketides (polyphenols such as stilbenes and chalcones) in mosses.

331 In contrast to PKS, NRPS-related sequences showed higher abundance of species 332 belonging to Proteobacteria over those from Actinobacteria. A high abundance of protein 333 coding sequences from Proteobacteria and Actinobacteria was expected, since our previous 334 analysis on taxonomic structure and diversity based on 16S rRNA genes of the Sphagnum 335 moss metagenome revealed a dominant role of these two phyla (65.8 % Proteobacteria and 336 5.6% Actinobacteria). A similar taxonomic hit distribution of Proteobacteria and 337 Actinobacteria (62% and 8% respectively) was estimated on the basis of predicted protein 338 coding regions and ribosomal RNA genes (4). At the class level the 16S rRNA analysis 339 revealed high abundance of  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -, and  $\gamma$ -*Proteobacteria*, which correlates well to the high 340 occurrence of NRPS-related sequences from this taxa (Table 1). A high portion of PKS 341 sequences (44%, remaining strains in Table 1) is affiliated to diverse bacterial taxa, mainly 342 Actinobacteria, Cyanobacteria, Proteobacteria or Firmicutes. Both Cyanobacteria and 343 Firmicutes represent rather subdominant phyla in the Sphagnum metagenome (4).

Extensively studied bacterial sources for antibiotics are *Streptomyces*, myxobacteria, cyanobacteria, *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas* (36). The distribution of PKS and NRPS clusters in bacterial genomes was also comprehensively reviewed by Donadio *et al.* (30). In the last years growing knowledge has been gained through sequencing of whole bacterial genomes, revealing the potential of many unexpected bacterial strains, which harbour the genetic machinery for production of secondary metabolites. One of the newly discovered groups of 350 secondary metabolites producers is the genus of Burkholderia. Burkholderia spp. synthetize 351 toxins (bongkretic acid), antifungal compounds (rhizoxin), and also antibacterial compounds 352 (enacycloxin) among others (37). Culture-dependent analysis of Sphagnum magellanicum-353 associated antagonists demonstrated the dominant role of the genus Burkholderia, accounting 354 for 38% of the isolates (6). Besides, new moss-associated Burkholderia species (B. bryophila 355 and *B. megapolitana*) displaying antifungal activities and tested positively for the production 356 of siderophores were also described in this collection (28). Species from the plant-associated 357 Burkholderia cluster were identified as cosmopolitan core members of the Sphagnum 358 microbiome; they were present in the *Sphagnum* sporophyte as well as the gametophyte (38). 359 By in silico screening in the moss database we also detected a significantly high abundance of 360 NRPS sequences affiliated to Burkholderia (18%). Our results undermine the dominant role 361 of the genus Burkholderia in Sphagnum mosses, especially in regard to the production of 362 NRPS-synthetized secondary metabolites.

363 Furthermore, single sequences of both NRPS and PKS were affiliated to 364 cyanobacteria. Cyanobacteria are a rich source of structurally diverse oligopeptides, mostly 365 synthesized by NRPSs and NRPS/PKS hybrid pathways (39). Common cyanobacteria genus 366 like Nostoc, Microcystis, and Anabaena, that were present in the moss metagenome, produce 367 bioactive peptides (39). Interestingly, mixed/hybrid NRPS-PKS gene clusters were also 368 present within the moss microbiome dataset. Most of the sequences were assigned to the 369 phylum Proteobacteria, being the most abundant genera Pseudomonas and especially 370 Lysobacter. The latter has emerged in the last years, not only as a promising source of new 371 bioactive natural products, such as antibiotics, ß-lactams, cyclic lactams and depsipeptides, 372 but also as a biocontrol agent for fungal plant infections (36, 40, 41). Furthermore, similar 373 sequences coding for the siderophore Yersiniabactin from P. syringae were detected. 374 Yersiniabactin acts as a virulence factor, facilitating iron uptake in the host, and is synthetized 375 by a hybrid PKS/NRPS system located on a transmissible high-pathogenicity island. This 376 pathogenicity island has been encountered in various strains as a result of horizontal transfer 377 (e.g. in enterobacteria) (26). In the case of Yersiniabactin and similar compounds, mobility 378 by horizontal transfer to other pathogenic strains (mainly *Proteobacteria*) could account for 379 the high incidence in metagenomic dataset, as in the *Sphagnum* moss microbiome.

Of special interest are those NRPS and PKS as sequences with a rather low sequence identity to their next blastx neighbours or displaying similarity to sequences originated from uncultured bacteria (12 NRPS and 18 PKS sequences; Table 1). Recently, the huge potential of uncultured bacteria for the screening of novel bioactive compounds was confirmed through discovery of the novel antibiotic teixobactin, which shows promising properties against multiresistant pathogenic strains (42).

386 In addition to in silico data mining, PCR-amplification screening of a moss 387 metagenomic fosmid library led to identification of 13 novel NRPS-related sequences out of 388 14 detected clones. Only a minimal overlap between the fosmid clone sequences and the 389 NRPS contigs from the *in silico* analysis was detected. This can be explained by the major 390 differences between both methodologies. On the one hand, low rates for discovery of positive 391 hits in metagenomic clone libraries are very common, in our case 0.15% (14 from 9500 392 screened clones). On the other hand, assemblies of metagenomic DNA usually contain poor 393 or no coverage of complete genomes or genome portions and are prone to formation of 394 chimeras (43). The Sphagnum assembly employed in this study has a rather low average 395 contig length of 183 bp, which limits the recovery of complete genes and leads to the low 396 observed overlap between sequences. Despite of this, the methods complement each other for 397 studying the biosynthetic capacity of the Sphagnum metagenome.

398 In terms of taxonomy, the *in vitro* library screening reflects the findings of the *in silico* 399 screening. Phylogenetic analysis of the retrieved aa sequences from the *Sphagnum* moss 400 fosmid library revealed closer proximity of NRPS-related genes to the phylum 401 *Proteobacteria*. Selected sequences clustered into three main groups, with one representative 402 group being closely related to Pseudomonas and Lysobacter. The relevance of Lysobacter as 403 an "emerging" producer of bioactive compounds was discussed above. In a similar manner, 404 novel NRPS systems were recently discovered in *Pseudomonas* spp. by new PCR-screening 405 methods (44). We encountered partial similarity of some of the sequences (3-F3 and 2-F4) to 406 the reported peptide synthetase products Pyoverdine and Syringomycin, originated from 407 opportunistic pathogenic Pseudomonas strains. Pyoverdine, a siderophore that facilitates iron-408 uptake, and Syringomycin, a cyclic lipodepsipeptide phytotoxin, are both regarded as important virulence factors secreted by the host cell (45, 46). Production and release of 409 410 siderophore has been reported for Sphagnum-associated bacteria like Pseudomonas sp., 411 Serratia sp. and Burkholderia sp. (5)

The second group, containing clones 7-F1 and 6-H4, shows similarity to annotated peptide synthases from the *Caulobacteraceae* family and *Agrobacterium* spp. So far, only ribosomally encoded peptides (so-called Lasso peptides), have been isolated or described in bacteria belonging to the *Caulobacteraceae* (47). For the *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain C58 only one biosynthetic gene cluster has been characterized, a hybrid NRPS-PKS system that catalyses the formation of a novel siderophore (48).

418 In the third group, one of the NRPS-sequence (clone 4-B4) is closely related to peptide 419 synthetases from Burkholderia rhizoxinica and Photorabdus temperate. Interestingly, both of 420 these bacteria are symbionts of pathogenic organisms, the fungal pathogen Rhizopus 421 *microspores* and of entomopathogenic nematodes, respectively. Complete genome sequencing 422 of Burkholderia rhizoxinica showed the occurrence of 14 NRPS gene clusters with a yet 423 unknown function (49). Photorabdus temperata is also known to produce a large number of 424 bioactive compounds, especially stilbenes, where a significant proportion of the genome (6%) 425 is devoted to the production of secondary metabolites (50). Derivatives of stilbenes have also 426 been detected in Bryophytes (10), which demonstrates convergence between the metabolic 427 capacity of the associated bacterium and the plant host. A lower similarity of clone 4-B4 was

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428 found for the gene cluster producing Syringopeptin in Photorhabdus asymbiotica. 429 Syringopeptin is like Syringomycin a well-known phytotoxin that is secreted by the host 430 organism and has been studied in more detail in Pseudomonas syringae (51). The last two 431 sequences in this group, belonging to clones 7-D4 and 6-B1, display similarity to annotated 432 sequences of thioester-reductases rather than peptide synthetases. The occurrence of reductase domains in NRPS systems has been reported, for example for the peptaibol synthetase from 433 434 Trichoderma virens that does not comprise the commonly encountered thioester domain 435 (TE) for termination of peptide synthesis, but rather a reductase domain (52). Similarly, in 436 the fungus Aspergillus flavus NRPS-like proteins that are involved in the synthesis of 437 metabolites contain a reductase domain instead of a condensation domain (53). These 438 sequences, especially 7-D4, show distant homology to a gene cluster coding for Gramicidin, a 439 linear polypeptide antibiotic (toxin) that forms an ion membrane channel and has been 440 intensively studied in Bacillus brevis (54).

441 By combining two different screening approaches, we gained an excellent overview of 442 the taxonomic and functional composition of NRPS and PKS gene clusters within the 443 Sphagnum microbiome. The in silico data mining approach provided a general survey on the 444 occurrence and abundance of the NRPS and PKS genetic machinery in Sphagnum moss-445 associated bacteria. Additionally, single clones containing novel NRPS sequences were 446 identified by PCR-amplification screening. Analysis of the amplicon sequences suggested the 447 presence of several novel gene clusters for production of microbial metabolites, such as 448 siderophores, phytotoxins or antibiotics. These findings are in accordance to the previous 449 metagenomic analysis and antimicrobial assays that suggested the availability of such 450 biosynthetic systems in Sphagnum. A further characterization of the identified metagenomic 451 clones will provide a promising basis for the discovery of novel biosynthetic pathways.

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### 464 Data accessibility

Query sequences from the *S. magellanicum* metagenome that showed homology to NRPS,
PKS or hybrid NRPS-PKS genes (from *in silico* data mining) were deposited in the DRYAD
repository (http://datadryad.org/pages/repository) under the accession number xxxx.

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# 622 Figures and Tables

- 623 Table 1 Abundance and occurrence of phylas of NRPS, PKS and NRPS-PKS hybrid sequences from in silico
- 624 data mining in the Sphagnum moss metagenomic database (counts >10 are highlighted in bold, the highest
- 625 values are underlined).

Taxon	No. of occurrences					
Phylum/Class	Genus	NRPS	PKS	Hybrids		
Actinobacteria	Mycobacterium	5	92	0		
Actinobacteria	Streptomyces	25	46	2		
Actinobacteria	Rhodococcus	10	1	0		
Actinobacteria	Brachybacterium	0	0	3		
α-Proteobacteria	Bradyrhizobium	10	4	3		
β-Proteobacteria	Burkholderia	50	5	0		
β-Proteobacteria	Rubrivivax	0	6	0		
β-Proteobacteria	Bordetella	0	6	0		
β-Proteobacteria	Ralstonia	2	0	4		
γ-Proteobacteria	Pseudomonas	40	2	7		
γ-Proteobacteria	Lysobacter	0	0	6		
γ-Proteobacteria	Pectobacterium	12	0	0		
γ-Proteobacteria	Xanthomonas	9	0	0		
γ-Proteobacteria	Xenorhabdus	6	1	0		
δ-Proteobacteria	Myxococcus	27	5	6		
δ-Proteobacteria	Candidatus	4	2	2		
Firmicutes	Paenibacillus	1	6	1		
uncultured bacterium	12	18	1			
Remaining strains	66	152	5			
Total count	279	346	40			

626	Table 2 Blastx analysis of non-ribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS) putative sequences obtained through PCR-based screening of the Sphagnum moss metagenomic fosmid

627 library. For fosmid clones 3-F3, 3-H3, 2-D4, 2-F4, 7-B9 and 6-H4 longer sequences (759-1155 bp, 252-384 aa) were retrieved by primer walking. Blastx was performed against

 $\label{eq:constraint} 628 \qquad the non-redundant protein database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/protein; 07.04.2015).$ 

Clone ID	Primer	Close hits	Description [source]	E-value	Score	Bit	Alignment	Identity	Positive	Gaps
(Query)	(Screening)	(Accession no.)				score	length [aa]	[%]	[%]	[%]
3-F3	NRPS1	WP_008434512	Peptide synthase [Pseudomonas sp. Ag1]	0	1,691	656	345	99.4	99.4	0
		WP_005745216	Pyoverdine sidechain peptide synthetase III, partial [Pseudomonas amygdali]	4.76E-131	1,019	397	342	60.6	73.9	0.87
7-B9	NRPS2	WP_031373175	Hypothetical protein, partial [Lysobacter antibioticus]	6.26E-116	969	378	320	62.9	73.8	1.25
		WP_032634710	Non-ribosomal peptide synthetase modules, partial [Pseudomonas syringae]	8.94E-105	845	330	322	57.2	68.0	3.08
6-H4	NRPS2	WP_031447884	Peptide synthetase [Caulobacteraceae bacterium PMMR1]	3.68E-114	948	370	301	64.1	76.1	0.66
2-F4	NRPS1	WP_032630858	Hypothetical protein, partial [Pseudomonas syringae]	4.78E-88	723	283	254	64.2	76.0	1.18
		WP_004417722	Syringomycin synthetase E, partial [Pseudomonas syringae]	2.55E-73	651	255	255	57.3	69.4	1.18
7-F1	NRPS2	WP_031447884	Peptide synthetase [Caulobacteraceae bacterium PMMR1]	1.47E-54	498	196	147	73.5	81.0	0
4-B4	NRPS2	WP_013428427	Peptide synthetase [Burkholderia rhizoxinica]	5.34E-48	451	178	143	70.1	78.5	0.69
		WP_015833634	Syringopeptin synthetase b [Photorhabdus asymbiotica]	2.32E-41	400	158	143	64.6	74.3	0.69
7-D4	NRPS2	AHX13665	Thioester reductase [Dyella jiangningensis]	1.10E-43	418	166	126	62.7	77.8	0
		WP_042439855	Gramicidin synthetase LgrC, partial [Streptacidiphilus albus]	2.08E-29	304	122	122	50	66.4	0.82
2-D4	NRPS1	WP_030110998	Hypothetical protein, partial [Kutzneria albida]	2.30E-41	415	165	209	47.9	58.1	3.72
8-C8	NRPS2	WP_011473791	Amino acid adenylation [Rhodopseudomonas palustris]	6.93E-34	346	138	156	50.3	61.6	5.03
6-B1	NRPS2	AHX13666	Amino acid adenylation protein [Dyella jiangningensis]	5.51E-31	323	129	103	72.8	80.6	0
3-H3	NRPS1	WP_010564295	Peptide synthetase [Pseudomonas extremaustralis]	1.56E-18	218	89	45	91.1	95.6	0
3-G9	NRPS1	CDG17982	Non-ribosomal peptide synthetase [Xenorhabdus doucetiae]	9.97E-10	151	63	39	74.4	76.9	0
2-C8	NRPS1	WP_022609339	Non-ribosomal peptide synthetase module, partial [Rubidibacter lacunae]	2.29E-08	138	58	29	86.2	89.7	0
7-C3	NRPS1	WP_032631609	Hypothetical protein, partial [Pseudomonas syringae]	0.05	88	39	20	90.0	90.0	0



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630 Figure 1 Phylogenetic tree of identified NRPS gene metagenomic sequences, obtained from the sequenced-based screening of a Sphagnum moss fosmid library. Putative NRPS

- 631 sequences were aligned with reference sequences from the protein database (NCBI; accession no. in parenthesis). The tree was generated using CLC Main Workbench 6.9.1
- 632 software using the UPGMA algorithm, Kimura Protein, and a bootstrap of 1000 replicates. Bootstrap values higher than 50% are indicated at branch points. The bar indicates 1.1
- 633 substitutions per amino acid position.





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