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Phylogenetic diversity and activity screening of cultivable actinobacteria isolated from marine sponges and associated environments from the western coast of India — Source link

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Published on: 10 Jan 2020 - bioRxiv (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory)

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1	Phylogenetic diversity and activity screening of cultivable actinobacteria isolated					
2	from marine sponges and associated environments from the western coast of					
3	India					
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23	Keywords: Bacterial predation; Antibiotic production; Secondary metabolites; Enzyme					
24	inhibition; Molecular phylogeny.					
25						

26 Abstract

27 Phylogenetic diversity of cultivable actinobacteria isolated from sponges (Haliclona spp.) 28 and associated environments of intertidal zones, along the northern parts of west coast of 29 India, were studied using 16S rRNA gene sequences. A subset of actinobacteria were 30 screened for three activities, namely predatory behavior, antibacterial activity and enzyme 31 inhibition. We recovered 237 isolates of actinobacteria belonging to 19 families and 28 32 genera, which could be attributed to 95 putative species using maximum likelihood partition 33 and 100 putative species using Bayesian partition in Poisson Tree Processes. Although the 34 trends in the discovery of actinobacterial genera isolated from sponges was consistent with 35 previous studies from different study areas, we provide first report of nine actinobacterial 36 species from sponges. We observed widespread non-obligate epibiotic predatory behavior in 37 eight actinobacterial genera and we provide first report of predatory activity in 38 Brevibacterium, Glutamicibacter, Micromonospora, Nocardiopsis, Rhodococcus and Rothia. 39 Sponge associated actinobacteria showed significantly more predatory behavior than 40 environmental isolates. While antibacterial activity by actinobacterial isolates mainly affected 41 Gram-positive target bacteria with little to no effect on Gram-negative bacteria, predation 42 targeted both Gram-positive and Gram-negative prey with equal propensity. Actinobacterial 43 isolates from both sponge and associated environment produced inhibitors of serine proteases 44 and angiotensin converting enzyme. Predatory behavior was strongly associated with 45 inhibition of trypsin and chymotrypsin. Our study suggests that sponge and associated 46 environment of western coast of India are rich in actinobacterial diversity with widespread 47 predatory activity, antibacterial activity and production of enzyme inhibitors. Understanding 48 diversity and associations among various actinobacterial activities, with each other and the 49 source of isolation, can provide new insights in marine microbial ecology and provide 50 opportunities to isolate novel therapeutic agents.

51 **INTRODUCTION**

52 The marine ecosystem is not only diverse with respect to microorganisms found in it but also 53 the natural products being synthesized by these microorganisms (Ward and Bora, 2006; 54 Taylor et al., 2007; Lam, 2006). Actinobacteria are among the taxa rich in secondary 55 metabolites (Barka et al., 2016) and are widely distributed in diverse habitats including soil, 56 marine and freshwaters and sediments (Ward and Bora, 2006; Taylor et al., 2007; Tan et al., 57 2015; Brasel et al., 2019; Mincer et al., 2002; Kokare et al., 2004). They are also not 58 uncommon in extreme environments (Jose and Jebakumar, 2014; Pathom-Aree et al., 2006; 59 Mohammadipanah and Wink, 2016; Shivlata and Tulasi, 2015; Riguelme et al., 2015; Yang 60 et al., 2015) and are also found as endobiotic symbionts of higher organisms (Taylor et al., 61 2007; Li et al., 2015; Mahmoud and Kalendar, 2016; Trujillo et al., 2015). They belong to the 62 phylum Actinobacteria and represent one of the major phyla within the bacterial domain 63 (Goodfellow, 2015). They are aerobic, spore forming, Gram-positive bacteria, which often 64 produce diffusible pigments, and occur as cocci or rods, branched filaments, aerial or 65 substrate mycelium (Goodfellow, 2015). The marine ecosystems are believed to have a wide range of unexplored diversity of actinobacteria (Montalvo et al., 2005) and their metabolites 66 67 (Taylor et al., 2007; Lam, 2006; Manivasagan et al., 2005) with diverse biological activities 68 like anticancer (Olano et al., 2009), anti-inflammatory (Trischman et al., 1994), antibiotic 69 (Pimentel-Elardo et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2015; Gandhimathi et al., 2008), cytotoxic 70 (Abdelfattah et al., 2016) and enzyme inhibitory (Manivasagan et al., 2015; Imada, 2005) 71 activity. Watve et al. (2001) estimated that the genus Streptomyces alone is capable of producing up to 10^5 different metabolites, majority of which remain unexplored. Of 23,000 72 73 medicinally important metabolites produced by marine microorganisms 70% are contributed 74 by actinobacteria (Mahapatra et al., in press). Till date, eight genera of actinobacteria have been reported to produce secondary metabolites and 267 products have been reported from 96
marine actinobacteria (Subramani and Sipkema, 2019)³¹.

77 Ecologically it is difficult to understand the production of extracellular metabolites or 78 enzymes by aquatic bacteria, since any molecule secreted outside the cell can be quickly 79 washed off. Extracellular products could be useful to the producer only in viscous or partially 80 enclosed environments. In the marine environment, sponges are likely to provide such closed 81 environment for bacteria. Sponges are filter feeders and collect small nutrient particles 82 including bacteria. This makes the environment locally nutrient rich in an otherwise 83 oligotrophic surroundings. Bacteria, especially actinobacteria, isolated from these sponges 84 may live in a symbiotic relationship that helps the host in defense against predation, sponge 85 skeleton stabilization, translocation of metabolites and help in nutritional process (Taylor et 86 al., 2007; Li et al., 2015; Montalvo et al., 2005; Pimentel-Elardo et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 87 2015; Gandhimathi et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2009; Thomas et al., 2010). In addition, since 88 sponges are sessile and lack other anti-predator defenses, secondary metabolites of bacteria 89 can provide them with chemical defense (Lee et al., 2001). Therefore, we expect more 90 secondary metabolite related activities from sponge-associated actinobacteria.

91 Sponge-associated actinobacteria are likely to have another ecological role. Among 92 actinobacteria at least three genera, namely Agromyces, Streptomyces and Streptoverticillium, 93 are shown to be predators that kill and feed on other live bacterial cells (Casida, 1980; 1983; 94 Kumbhar et al., 2014). Kumbhar and Watve (2013) argued that antibiotic activity might have 95 evolved primarily as a weapon in predation. However, the expression of secondary 96 metabolites during predation may be independent of antibiotic expression in pure culture; the 97 latter is likely to have evolved for mutualism with higher animal or plant hosts (Harir et al., 98 2018; Van der Meij et al., 2017). Further, for a niche of predation in association with sponge, 99 the predatory species needs to protect itself from the digestive enzymes of the sponge as well 100 as its own enzymes used for predation. Therefore, predatory actinobacteria are also expected101 to have efficient inhibitors of lytic enzymes.

In this study, we prepared an inventory of cultivable actinobacteria from sponges and associated environments of intertidal zones along the northern parts of west coast of India and studied their molecular diversity based on 16S rRNA gene sequences. We screened a subset of randomly selected cultures for predatory activity, antibiotic production and enzyme inhibition and tested their associations with each other and with the isolation source to test the hypotheses mentioned earlier.

108

109 MATERIALS AND METHODS

110 Sample collection

111 Small tissue samples (less than one gram) of marine sponges (*Haliclona* spp.) were collected 112 at the time of low tide along Maharashtra and Goa coast (18–15°N and 73–74°E) of India 113 during April 2014 to October 2018 without damaging the sponge or its associated 114 environment. Specimens were rinsed and flushed with sterile media to remove debris and 115 loosely attached microbes. Each sponge sample was collected in labeled polystyrene tubes 116 with lids containing sterile Poor Ravan Saline (Watve et al., 2000) and ZoBell Marine broth 117 (ZoBell, 1941). Sediment, water and air samples were collected from the same environment 118 as that of the sponge and were collectively considered as environmental samples. The 119 samples were brought to laboratory maintaining cold chain and were immediately processed 120 for microbial culturing.

121

122 Isolation and maintenance of cultivable actinobacteria

123 Each sample was subjected to pre-heat treatment at 60°C for 15 minutes to eliminate non-

124 sporulating bacteria. Sponge tissue (0.1 cm³) was homogenized in sterile medium and

125 vortexed for 5 minutes. Tubes were left undisturbed for two minutes. From the resulting supernatant serial 10 fold dilutions up to 10^{-5} were made and 0.1 ml sample was spread into 126 127 triplicates on petri plates containing sterile medium. We used two media the Zobell Marine 128 Agar (ZMA) and Poor Ravan Saline Agar (PRSA) with and without antibiotic 129 chloramphenicol (25 μ g/ml). Plates were incubated at 30°C for 7 days in the case of ZMA 130 and 21 days for PRSA. Plates were observed regularly for the growth of actinobacteria. 131 Bacterial colonies that showed resemblance to actinobacteria under light microscope were 132 purified several times on the respective media. In all 237 actinobacterial isolates were 133 selected and were re-streaked for making pure cultures. Colonies were labeled as per 134 Maharashtra Gene Bank (MGB) project code and preserved on ZMA slants at 4°C for further 135 use. Similarly, glycerol (18%) stocks were prepared and maintained at -20°C for long term 136 storage. Actinobacterial cultures are deposited in the Microbial Culture Collection (MCC) of 137 National Centre for Microbial Resource, National Center for Cell Sciences, Pune, India 138 (accession numbers are provided in the Supplementary Table S1).

139

140 Genetic identification, phylogeny and species delimitation

141 Actinobacterial isolates were outsourced for near complete 16S rRNA gene sequencing. Gene 142 sequences used for the study are deposited in the GenBank database under the accession 143 numbers MN339687–MN339897 and MT598037–MT598065 (Supplementary Table S1)). 144 Sequences were checked in BLAST (Altschul et al., 1990) to find the closest sequences 145 available in the GenBank database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). Four species of 146 Firmicutes, namely Bacillus paralicheniformis (MCC 6306), B. thuringiensis (MCC 7835), 147 B. subtilis (MCC 6386) and B. halotolerans (MCC 8381), were used as outgroups (GenBank 148 accession numbers MN339894-MN339897 respectively).

Gene sequences were aligned using MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004) implemented in MEGA (Kumar et al., 2016). Final aligned matrix had 1595 sites. Best nucleotide substitution model was determined using ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017) based on Bayesian information criterion (Schwarz, 1978; Nei and Kumar, 2000). Maximum likelihood analysis was performed in IQ-TREE (Nguyen et al., 2015) with ultrafast bootstrap support (Hoang et al., 2018) for 1000 iterations. Phylogenetic tree was edited in FigTree v1.4.2 (Rambaut, 2009).

To understand putative number of actinobacterial species we performed species delimitation based on Poisson Tree Processes (Zhang et al., 2013) with maximum likelihood partitioning (mPTP) and Bayesian partitioning (bPTP). Maximum likelihood tree was used to delimit species by setting the parameter values as follows: MCMC generations = 100,000, Thinning = 100, Burn-in = 0.1 and seed = 123.

We have identified all isolates up to genus level, while operational taxonomic units, in terms of putative species, are provided based on mPTP and bPTP methods (see Supplementary Table S1). Only in the text, some isolates are assigned to known species based on BLAST search and sequence identity more than 99%.

165

166 Screening for activities

167 Out of 237 actinobacterial isolates, 50 isolates were randomly selected for screening of three

168 activities, namely predation, antibiotic production and production of enzyme inhibition.

169

170 Target bacteria used for predation and antibiotic screening

171 Test bacteria, used for checking actinobacterial predation and antibiotic production, were

172 obtained from MCC and National Collection of Industrial Microorganisms (NCIM), National

173 Chemistry Laboratory, Pune, India. Fourteen bacteria, namely Acetobacter pasterianus

(NCIM 2317), Alcaligenes fecalis (NCIM 2262), Bacillus subtilis (NCIM 2063),
Enterobacter fecalis, Escherichia coli (NCIM 2184), Klebsiella pneumonae (NCIM 2957),
Micrococcus luteus (NCIM 2673), Mycobacterium smegmatis (NCIM 5138), Proteus
vulgaris (NCIM 2172), Pseudominas aeruginosa (NCIM 5029), Salinicoccus roseus (MCC
7574), Salmonella enterica (NCIM 2501), Serretia marcescens (NCIM 2919) and
Staphylococcus aureus (NCIM 2121), were used as target species for screening.

180

181 Screening for actinobacterial predatory growth

182 Growth of predator with the zone of clearance on prey cells was considered as predation as 183 defined earlier (Kumbhar et al., 2014). The method for the preparation of prey cells was 184 modified from Kumbhar et al. (2014). Pure cultures of the prey species were inoculated on 185 nutrient agar plates to check the purity and were later re-inoculated in nutrient broth. 186 Inoculated flasks were incubated at 37°C for 24 h. Broth was centrifuged at 7000 rpm for 10 187 minutes to concentrate cells using Eppendorf centrifuge 5810R. Cells were washed thrice 188 with sterile distilled water to remove traces of nutrient broth. Pellet was suspended in saline 189 to obtain a thick suspension of optical density of 1.0 at 600 nm. Lawn of prev cells was 190 spread on water agarose plate and plates were incubated at 37°C for 40 minutes. 191 Actinobacterial culture was spot inoculated on pre incubated plates. These plates were 192 incubated at room temperature for 48–72 h at 30°C. Plates with plaque were examined 193 visually and by using 4x and 45x magnification under light microscope. Prey and predator 194 control plates were used for comparison. Each experiment consisted of triplicate sets of 195 plates, as well as one predator control for testing growth of actinobacterial predator without 196 prey. In addition, there was a prey control to demonstrate viable and independent growth of 197 prey without predator. In either controls there was no zone of clearance indicating there was 198 no predation in the presence of predator or prey alone.

199

200 Screening for antibacterial activity using conventional cross streak method

201 Selected actinobacterial cultures were screened for antibacterial activity by cross streak 202 method (Velho-Pereira and Kamat, 2011; Valli et al., 2012). Test organism was streaked as a 203 straight line along the diagonal of the petri dish with sterile ZMA medium. The isolated pure 204 colony of actinobacteria was inoculated as a single streak perpendicular to the central streak. 205 Streaking was done from the edge of the plate to the test organism growth line. Plates were 206 incubated at 37°C for 18 h. The microbial inhibition was observed by determining zone of 207 clearance around the sensitive organisms. Control plates of the same medium with the streak 208 of test bacteria and without the streak of actinobacteria growth was used to observe the 209 normal growth of the test bacteria.

210

211 Screening for enzyme inhibitors

212 Actinobacterial cultures were screened for their ability to inhibit the activity of serine 213 proteases and angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE). Three different serine proteases i.e., 214 Subtilisin, Trypsin and α -Chymotrypsin were used for screening of inhibitory activity. 215 Protease inhibitor activity was studied using unprocessed X-ray films and spot-test method 216 (Cheung, 1991) with modifications. As described by Tripathi et al. (Tripathi et al., 2011), 217 dilutions of pure enzyme were first spotted on gelatine coated films. Lowest dilution showing 218 complete clearance (indicating complete digestion of gelatine) was chosen for further studies. 219 Pure enzyme (100 μ g/ml) was incubated with equal quantity of cell free supernatant of 220 actinobacterial isolates for 10 minutes and transferred to untreated X-ray-Fuji Medical X-ray, 221 HRU grade-films. The mixtures were allowed to react for 15 minutes at room temperature 222 and results were recorded after washing the x-ray films under running water. Unprocessed X-223 ray films contain a layer of gelatine on their surface, which acts as a substrate for various

proteolytic enzymes. Degradation of gelatine gives a clear zone at the site of activity. Thus, upon action of the proteases, clear zones were seen on unprocessed x-ray films, at the site of inoculation, whereas, if the gelatine layer remains intact, no clearance is observed. No clearance on the films indicated presence of protease inhibitors.

228 ACE acts on a specific substrate N-Hyppuryl-His-Leu (HHL) to liberate hippuric acid 229 and His-Leu. Liberated hippuric acid was detected spectrophotometrically. Upon reaction of 230 the enzyme with ACE inhibitors, the enzyme becomes inactive and this is measured in terms 231 of lower levels of hippuric acid released. Protocol suggested by Cushman and Cheung (1971) 232 was used with certain modifications and hippuric acid liberated was checked using method 233 suggested by Ng et al. (2008). Equal amount of ACE and cell free supernatants (10 µl each) 234 were allowed to react at 37°C. After 10 minutes 20 µl of HHL was added to the reaction 235 mixture and reaction was continued for 30 mins at 37°C. The reaction was stopped by 236 addition of 40 µl of 1 N HCl. Blank was prepared by addition of HCl before addition of the 237 substrate. Positive enzyme control was prepared by incubating enzyme with un-inoculated 238 broth. Liberated hippuric acid was extracted in 90 μ l ethyl acetate by vigorous shaking. Ethyl 239 acetate layer was collected in a fresh vial and allowed to dry in water bath of 50° C. The 240 liberated hippuric acid was diluted in 150 µl distilled water and absorbance was checked at 241 228 nm. Zero was adjusted using distilled water. Test vials with more than 15% inhibition of 242 ACE were considered as positive for ACE inhibitor.

243

244 **RESULTS**

245 Actinobacterial phylogenetic diversity in sponge and associated environment

Actinobacteria from sponges and associated environments showed a rich phylogenetic diversity (Figure 1). We obtained 237 actinobacterial isolates, from sponge and associated environments, belonging to 19 families and 28 genera (Supplementary Table S1). Species delimitation based on mPTP suggested that these isolates belong to 95 putative species, while bPTP suggested 100 putative species. The two species delimitation methods, mPTP and bPTP, differed in the groups of species under genera *Micrococcus*, *Rhodococcus* and *Streptomyces* (Supplementary Table S1). Air was generally devoid of actinobacteria and we recovered only three isolates from air, belonging to genera *Brachybacterium*, *Brevibacterium* and *Rhodococcus*, as compared to 39 isolates from water, 105 isolates from sediment and 90 isolates from sponge.

From sponges, 18 genera under 14 families belonging to 56 putative species (Table 1). From the sponge-associated environment, 22 genera under 15 families were recorded belonging to 64 putative species as per mPTP and 65 putative species as per bPTP. A total of 12 genera under 9 families and 28 putative species based on mPTP and 25 putative species based on bPTP were common to both sponge and associated environment.

261 Six genera, namely Gordonia, Jonesia, Mycolicibacterium, Pseudonocardia, Rothia 262 and Serinicoccus were isolated only from sponges (Table 1), which could be identified to 263 species Gordonia terrae (MCC 6452), Jonesia denitrificans (MCC 7852), Mycolicibacterium 264 poriferae (MCC 6242), Pseudonocardia kongjuensis (MCC 7930) and Rothia terrae (MCC 265 7823), Serinicoccus marinus (MCC 7935) respectively. Although 12 genera, namely 266 Agrococcus, Arthrobacter, Brachybacterium, Brevibacterium, Klenkia, Kocuria, 267 Micrococcus, Micromonospora, Nocardiopsis, Microbacterium, Rhodococcus and 268 Streptomyces, were isolated from both sponges and associated habitats, most of these genera 269 had some putative species that were either exclusive to sponges or associated environments. 270 In particular, 7 species, Brachybacterium muris (MCC 7614), Brevibacterium casei (MCC 271 6140, MCC 6152, MCC 6176), Kocuria rhizophila (MCC 8384), Nocardiopsis salina (MCC 272 7931), Rhodococcus zopfii (MCC 7934), Streptomyces smyrnaeus (MCC 7924) and 273 Streptomyces viridobrunneus (MCC 7990), were recorded only from sponges.

With respect to both, the number of isolates and number of putative species, *Streptomyces* was the most dominant genus, which was found in both sponges and associated environments. *Nocardiopsis* was the second most common genus with two dominant species *Nocardiopsis alba* (MCC 8385) followed by *N. dassonvillei* (MCC 7845). Among the genera and species that were recorded only from the environment, we provide first record of species such as *Aeromicrobium massiliense* (MCC 6739) and *Glutamicibacter mysorens* (MCC 7825) from marine waters.

281

282 Non-obligate epibiotic predatory activity

283 Out of the total 50 actinobacterial isolates screened for non-obligate epibiotic predatory 284 activity, 26 isolates showed predation on at least one of the 14 target organisms 285 (Supplementary Table S2). Of the 26 isolates with predatory behavior, 17 preyed on Gram-286 negative prey, 21 preyed on Gram-positive prey, while 12 preyed on both Gram- negative and 287 Gram-positive prey. There was no significant difference (Mann-Whitney U = 15, P = 0.2601) 288 in the frequency of actinobacterial predators on Gram-negative and Gram-positive prey 289 (Table 2). Most actinobacterial predators (n = 14) preved on a single prev species while only 290 a few predators preyed on multiple prey species. A single predator of the genus *Streptomyces* 291 tpreyed on 8 prey species. There was a significant association between the source of isolation (sponge or associated environment) and predatory behavior ($\chi^2 = 5265$, P = 0.0218), where 292 293 the isolates from sponge showed proportionately more predatory behavior (Figure 2).

All eight isolates of *Streptomyces* used for screening showed predatory behavior and preyed on both Gram-negative and Gram-positive prey (Supplementary Table S2). Out of 25 isolates of *Nocardiopsis*, 12 showed predatory behavior, out of which 5 preyed on Gramnegative bacteria while 11 preyed on Gram-positive bacteria. Both the isolates of *Micromonospora* preyed on Gram-positive prey while only one preyed on Gram-negative

299 prey. Isolates belonging to genera *Brevibacterium*, *Glutamicibacter* and *Rhodococcus* preyed

300 only on Gram-negative prey while *Rothia* preyed only on Gram-positive prey.

301

302 Antibiosis, antibacterial activity and growth inhibition

303 Of the 50 actinobacterial isolates screened for antibacterial activity, 25 showed antibiosis 304 against at least one target organism (Supplementary Table S2). Of these 25 isolates, all 305 showed antibiosis against at least one of the Gram-positive target species, while only five 306 showed antibiosis against at least one of the Gram-negative organisms. The frequency of 307 antibacterial activity against Gram-positive organisms was significantly higher (Mann-308 Whitney U = 1.5, P = 0.003) than those against Gram-negative organisms (Table 2). Most 309 antibacterial activities were broad spectrum with respect to the target organisms that they 310 affected. There were 10 actinobacterial isolates that showed antibiosis against two target 311 organisms, 6 isolates that affected 4 target species and 2 isolates that affected 6 target species. 312 There was no association between antibacterial activity and the source (sponge or associated environment) of the isolation ($\chi^2 = 2.0129$, P = 0.1560). 313

314 Out of eight isolates of *Streptomyces* that were screened for antibacterial activity, five 315 showed antibiosis, of which two showed antibiosis against Gram-negative target species, 316 while all showed antibiosis against Gram-positive organisms. In the case of *Nocardiopsis*, of 317 the 25 isolates used for screening 17 showed antibiosis, of which all affected growth of 318 Gram-positive organisms, while only two affected growth of Gram-negative organisms. 319 Genus Kytococcus showed antibiosis that affected both Gram-positive as well as Gram-320 negative organisms, while Glutamicibacter and Rothia showed antibiosis against Gram-321 positive organisms only.

322

323 Enzyme inhibition

324 Out of 50 actinobacterial isolates screened for inhibition of four enzymes, 30 isolates 325 inhibited at least one of the enzyme (Supplementary Table S2). Of these 30 isolates, 28 326 inhibited trypsin, 24 inhibited chymotrypsin, three inhibited angiotensin converting enzyme 327 (ACE) and only two inhibited subtilisin. Venn diagram of frequency of isolates inhibiting 328 different enzymes (Figure 3) suggested that five isolates inhibited only trypsin and one isolate 329 each inhibited chymotrypsin and ACE, while subtilisin inhibition was accompanied by 330 inhibition of other enzymes. No isolate inhibited all four enzymes. Out of 30 actinobacteria 331 that produced enzyme inhibitors, 19 produced two inhibitors, four produced three inhibitors 332 while seven produced only one of the four inhibitors. There was no association between the enzyme inhibition and source of the actinobacterial isolate ($\chi^2 = 2.3386$, P = 0.1262). 333

Out of eight isolates of *Streptomyces* seven produced enzyme inhibitors against proteases, while 12 out of 25 isolates of *Nocardiopsis* produced enzyme inhibitors of which 11 produced against proteases and two produced against ACE (Table 3). One isolate of *Actinomycetospora* inhibited activity of ACE.

338

339 Associations between different activities

Out of 50 actinobacterial isolates that were screened for activities, 39 showed at least one of the three activities. Of these 39 isolates, 15 showed all three activities, while nine showed predation as well as enzyme inhibition (Figure 4). There were only seven isolates that showed predation and antibiotic production against the same target organism (Table 2) and all these isolates belonged to genera *Streptomyces* and *Nocardiopsis*.

Antibiotic production showed no significant association with predation ($\chi^2 = 2.8846$, P = 0.0894) or any of the four enzyme inhibition ($\chi^2 = 2.0525$, P = 0.1520). However, there were significant associations between predation and protease inhibitors (Figure 5). There were 24 isolates that showed both predation as well as inhibition of at least one enzyme and

there was a significant association between the two activities ($\chi^2 = 26.172$, P < 0.0001), 349 350 where predators proportionately produced more enzyme inhibitors than non-predators (Figure 351 5a). There were 23 actinobacterial isolates that showed predation as well as trypsin inhibition and there was a significant association between the two ($\chi^2 = 23.165$, P < 0.0001) with 352 353 predators more likely to produce trypsin inhibitors than non-predators (Figure 5b). Similarly, 354 24 actinobacteria were predators as well as inhibited chymotrypsin activity and there was a significant association between the two ($\chi^2 = 42.604$, P < 0.0001) with predators more likely 355 356 to produce chymotrypsin inhibitors than non-predators (Figure 5c).

357

358 **DISCUSSION**

359 Sponges and associated environment in northern parts of western coast of India are rich in 360 actinobacterial diversity with about 95 putative species under 19 families and 28 genera. We 361 recorded 13 species of actinobacteria only from sponges. Out of these, Mycobacterium 362 *poriferae* was originally described from marine sponge (Padgitt and Moshier, 1987), while 363 three species, Gordonia terrae (Elfalah et al., 2013; Santos et al., 2019; Montalvo et al., 364 2005), Brevibacterium casei (Kiran et al., 2010) and Koc uria rhizophila (Palomo et al., 365 2013), have been previously reported from sponges. To our knowledge, we provide first 366 report of nine species, namely Brachybacterium murisi, Jonesia denitrificans, Nocardiopsis 367 salina, Pseudonocardia kongjuensis, Rhodococcus zopfii, Rothia terrae, Serinicoccus 368 marinus, Streptomyces smyrnaeus and Streptomyces viridobrunneus, from marine sponges, 369 although some of them are known from marine habitats (Stach et al., 2003; Satheeja and 370 Jebakumar, 2011; Yi et al., 2004; Shinde et al., 2018).

Streptomyces was the most dominant genus among the isolates, which agrees with the
findings of Zhang et al. (2008). Genus *Nocardiposis*, with its two species *N. alba* and *N. dassonvillei*, has been suggested (Bennur et al., 2015) as the second common genus after

Streptomyces and that too agrees with our findings. Further, report of most genera, including *Agrococcus, Arthrobacter, Brevibacterium, Kocuria, Microbacterium* and *Micrococcus*, from sponges in our study are consistent with previous reports from other study areas including South China Sea (Li et al., 2015), Yellow Sea (Zhang et al., 2008), Mediterranean Sea (Cheng et al., 2015), coast of Florida in USA (Montalvo, 2005) and northern coast of Brazil (Menezes et al., 2010) indicating that there are common trends in the discovery of actinobacteria from sponges.

Among the first reports from marine environment from our study, *Aeromicrobium massiliense* and *Glutamicibacter mysorens* are known from human fecal microbiota (Ramasamy et al., 2012) and sewage (Nand and Rao, 1972) respectively. Presence of these two species in the sediments along the collection site Harne (17.81°N, 73.09°E) likely suggests fecal pollution in this area.

386 Although predation is a widespread behavior in bacterial kingdom, δ -proteobacteria 387 of the orders *Myxococcales* and *Bdellovibrionales* have received more attention (Jurkevitch, 388 2007) as compared to other taxa, especially the Gram-positive bacteria such as actinobacteria. 389 actinobacteria only three genera, namely Agromyces, Streptomyces Among and 390 Streptoverticillium, are known to have predatory behavior against other bacterial species 391 (Casida, 1980; 1983; 1988; Kumbhar et al., 2014; Zeph and Casida, 1986; Ibrahimi et al., 392 2020). In the current study, for the first time, we show predation in six other genera of 393 actinobacteria, namely Brevibacterium, Glutamicibacter, Micromonospora, Nocardiopsis, 394 *Rhodococcus* and *Rothia*. Kumbhar et al. (2014) argued that predatory behavior is widespread 395 in genus Streptomyces and even in the current study we observed that all the isolates of 396 Streptomyces used for screening showed predation on Gram-positive as well as Gram-397 negative prey.

398 Since sponges are sessile and lack other anti-predator defenses, it has been suggested 399 that secondary metabolites of bacteria can provide sponges with chemical defense (Lee et al., 400 2001; Kumbhar and Watve, 2013). However, we did not observe any significant association 401 between the source of actinobacterial isolation and antibiotic production, suggesting that 402 isolates even from environment were equally likely to produce antimicrobials as that of the 403 isolates recovered from sponges. However, there was a significant association between the 404 source of isolation and predatory activity, with proportionately more predators among the 405 isolates recovered from sponge. Ecologically this makes sense. As the sponges are filter 406 feeders and have regular intake of environmental bacteria, sponge associated actinobacteria 407 will have better predation opportunities. It is also possible that the predatory activity of 408 sponge associated actinobacteria, could have evolved as a mutualistic activity as it can defend 409 sponges from pathogenic bacterial invasions.

410 Actinobacteria are known to produce several enzyme inhibitors (Manivasagan et al., 411 2015; Imada, 2005). However, for the first time we show a strong association between 412 predation and enzyme inhibition, specifically inhibition of trypsin and chymotrypsin, where 413 predators produced proportionality more enzyme inhibitors as compared to non predators. 414 Predators themselves are known to produce a variety of hydrolytic enzymes for degrading the 415 prey (Pérez et al., 2016). Therefore, it is possible that the production of enzyme inhibitors 416 safeguards their own cells from being target of the enzyme. It is also possible that enzyme 417 inhibitors also protect the actinobacteria from hydrolytic enzymes produced from the sponge 418 host and other microbiota.

An interesting observation that we made, when comparing the predation and antibiotic production by actinobacteria, was that, while predation was equally effective against Grampositive as well as Gram-negative target species, antibiotic production was mainly effective against Gram-positive bacteria. Recently, Ibrahimi et al. (2020) suggested that there are some

423 bio-active secondary metabolites that co-cultured actinobacteria produce in the presence of 424 prey cells. It is therefore possible that studying the predatory behavior of actinobacteria and 425 predation specific metabolites could lead to discovery of novel therapeutic agents that are 426 more broad-spectrum.

Although actinobacteria are known to be rich in secondary metabolites, extracellular enzymes and enzyme inhibitors, the ecological role of these extracellular bioactive molecules is little known. We suggest that studying the ecological correlates of bioactivity and the intercorrelation patterns of different types of bioactivity can be a useful tool in understanding the ecological origins of bioactivity and testing alternative ecological hypotheses.

432

433 CONCLUSION

434 Sponges and associated environments of intertidal zones, along the northern parts of west 435 coast of India, are rich in actinobacterial diversity with 19 families and 28 genera, which 436 could be attributed to 95 putative species using mPTP and 100 putative species based on 437 bPTP methods. Although, at the genus level, the trends in the discovery of actinobacteria 438 isolated from sponges was consistent with previous studies from different study areas, we 439 provide first report of nine species, namely Brachybacterium murisi, Jonesia denitrificans, 440 Nocardiopsis salina, Pseudonocardia kongjuensis, Rhodococcus zopfii, Rothia terrae, 441 Serinicoccus marinus, Streptomyces smyrnaeus and Streptomyces viridobrunneus. Non-442 obligate epibiotic predatory behavior was widespread among actinobacterial genera and we 443 provide first report of predatory activity in Brevibacterium, Glutamicibacter, 444 Micromonospora, Nocardiopsis, Rhodococcus and Rothia. Sponges associated actinobacteria 445 showed significantly more predatory behavior than environmental isolates, and we 446 hypothesize that predatory actinobacteria might provide sponges with defense against 447 pathogenic bacteria. While antibiotic produced from actinobacterial isolates affected Gram448 positive target bacteria with little to no effect on Gram-negative bacteria, predation targeted 449 both Gram-positive and Gram-negative prey with equal propensity, suggesting that study of 450 predation specific metabolites might provide novel therapeutic agents with broad-spectrum. 451 Actinobacterial isolates from both sponge and associated environment produced inhibitors of 452 serine proteases and angiotensin converting enzyme. Predatory behavior was strongly 453 associated with inhibition of trypsin and chymotrypsin, which might be helpful for the 454 actinobacteria for overcoming effects of proteolytic enzymes produced by sponge host and 455 other microbiota. Understanding diversity and associations among various actinobacterial 456 activities, with each other and the source of isolation, can provide new insights in marine 457 microbial ecology and provide opportunities to isolate novel therapeutic agents.

459 DATA AVAILABILITY

Sequences of 16S rRNA gene of studied isolates are submitted to GenBank NCBI under the accession numbers MN339687–MN339897 and MT598037–MT598065. Actinobacterial cultures are deposited in the Microbial Culture Collection (MCC) of National Centre for Microbial Resource, National Center for Cell Sciences, Pune, India (accession numbers are provided in the Supplementary Table S1). All the data used for analysis is provided in supplementary information (Supplementary Table S1 and Table S2).

466

467 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

468 This work was funded by Maharashtra Gene Bank Programme (RGSTC/File-2007/DPP-

469 054/CR-28) of Rajiv Gandhi Science and Technology Commission, Government of

470 Maharashtra, India. We thank the Director and Chair of Biology, Indian Institute of Science

471 Education and Research (IISER), Pune, and Principle, M.E.S. Abasaheb Garware College,

472 Pune for providing infrastructural facilities. We are thankful to V. S. Rao, IISER Pune, for473 support an encouragement.

474

475 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

476 M.W., U.B. and N. Deshpande conceived and designed the study. U.B., N.S., K.H., A.P.,

477 U.L., T.G., K.P., A.J., R.S., H.V and V.T. performed the study. N. Dahanukar and M.W.

478 analyzed the data. N. Dahanukar, U.B. and M.W. wrote the manuscript with inputs from

479 other authors. All authors contributed to the proofreading of the manuscript.

480

481 Supplementary information: Supplementary Table S1 and Table S2 accompanies the online
482 version of the paper.

483 **Competing Interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

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- 688 Table 1. Putative number of species of actinobacterial genera based on PTP and bPTP
- 689 methods isolated from sponge, associate environment and both sources.

690

Family	Genus	Sponge		Environment		Both	
		mPTP	bPTP	mPTP	bPTP	mPTP	bPTP
Actinomycetaceae	Streptomyces	23	23	24	25	12	11
Brevibacteriaceae Brevibacterium		5	5	2	2	1	1
Cellulomonadaceae	Cellulomonas	0	0	1	1	0	0
Dermabacteraceae	Brachybacterium	1	1	2	2	0	0
Dietziaceae	Dietzia	0	0	1	1	0	0
Geodermatophilaceae	aceae Klenkia		1	1	1	1	1
Gordoniaceae	Gordonia	1	1	0	0	0	0
Intrasporangiaceae	Janibacter	0	0	2	2	0	0
	Knoellia	0	0	1	1	0	0
	Terrabacter	0	0	1	1	0	0
Jonesiaceae	Jonesia	1	1	0	0	0	0
Kytococcaceae	Kytococcus	0	0	1	1	0	0
Microbacteriaceae	Agrococcus	1	1	1	1	1	0
	Curtobacterium	0	0	1	1	0	0
	Microbacterium	1	1	1	1	1	1
Micrococcaceae	Arthrobacter	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Glutamicibacter	0	0	2	2	0	0
	Kocuria	4	4	6	6	2	2
	Micrococcus	6	6	8	8	4	4
	Rothia	1	1	0	0	0	0
Micromonosporaceae	Micromonospora	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mycobacteriaceae	Mycolicibacterium	1	1	0	0	0	0
Nocardiaceae	Rhodococcus	2	2	2	2	2	1
Nocardioidaceae	Aeromicrobium	0	0	1	1	0	0
Nocardiopsaceae	Nocardiopsis	4	4	3	3	2	2
Ornithinimicrobiaceae	Serinicoccus	1	1	0	0	0	0
Pseudonocardiaceae	Actinomycetospora	0	0	1	1	0	0
	Pseudonocardia	1	1	0	0	0	0
	Total	56	56	64	65	28	25

691

692

694 **Table 2.** Predation and antibiotic production by actinobacteria against the Gram positive and

695 Gram negative target species.

696

Target species	Predation	Antibiotic	Predation and Antibiotic by same actinobacterial isolate
Gram positive			
Mycobacterium smegmatis	3	12	0
Micrococcus luteus	8	5	0
Bacillus subtilis	1	24	1
Staphylococcus aureus	17	9	4
Salinicoccus roseus	9	3	0
Enterococcus faecalis	3	20	1
Gram negative			
Acetobacter pasterianus	7	0	0
Alcaligenes faecalis	3	1	1
Escherichia coli	2	5	0
Klebsiella pneumoniae	3	0	0
Proteus vulgaris	8	0	0
Salmonella enterica	2	0	0
Serratia marcescens	3	0	0
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	1	0	0

697

Table 3. Frequency of actinobacterial isolates producing four different enzyme inhibitors.

	Number of isolates	Freq	Isolates with at least one			
Genus		Subtilisin	Trypsin	Chymotrypsin	ACE	inhibition activity
Actinomycetospora	2	0	1	0	1	2
Agrococcus	1	0	0	0	0	0
Brevibacterium	1	0	1	1	0	1
Glutamicibacter	1	0	1	1	0	1
Jonesia	1	0	0	0	0	0
Kocuria	1	0	0	0	0	0
Kytococcus	1	0	1	0	0	1
Micrococcus	1	0	1	0	0	1
Micromonospora	2	0	2	2	0	2
Nocardiopsis	25	0	11	11	2	12
Pseudonocardia	1	0	0	0	0	0
Rhodococcus	4	0	2	1	0	2
Rothia	1	0	1	1	0	1
Streptomyces	8	2	7	7	0	7

703 FIGURE CAPTIONS

704

705 Figure 1. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of actinobacterial isolates based on

- 706 TIM3+F+I+G4 nucleotide substitution model (lnL of consensus tree: -18684.58). Firmicutes
- 707 belonging to genus *Bacillus* were used as outgroups.
- 708

709 Figure 2. Association between source of actinobacterial isolation on their predatory behavior.

710 There was a significant association between the source (sponge or associated environment) of

711 actinobacterial isolation and predation ($\chi^2 = 5.265$, P = 0.0218).

712

Figure 3. Venn diagrams combination of enzyme inhibitors produced by actinobacterial
isolates. Venn diagrams is not to scale.

715

Figure 4. Venn diagrams of predation, antibiotic production and enzyme inhibition byactinobacterial isolates. Venn diagrams is not to scale.

718

719 Figure 5. Association between enzyme inhibition and predation in actinobacterial isolates.

720 Predation was significantly associated with (a) inhibition of any one of the four enzymes

721 tested ($\chi^2 = 26.172$, P < 0.0001), (b) inhibition of trypsin ($\chi^2 = 23.165$, P < 0.0001) and (c)

- 722 inhibition of chymotrypsin ($\chi^2 = 42.604$, P < 0.0001).
- 723









