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### RESEARCH LETTER – Professional Development

# Expanding Tiny Earth to genomics: a bioinformatics approach for an undergraduate class to characterize antagonistic strains

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\*Corresponding author: 217 Life Sciences Bowling Green, OH 43403, USA. Tel: +1-419-372-4704; Fax: +1-419-372-4704; E-mail: hansw@bgsu.edu One sentence summary: Students use a bioinformatics approach to characterize antagonistic strains. Editor: Alejandra Bravo

### ABSTRACT

The evolution of multidrug resistant pathogens and the diminishing supply of effective antibiotics are global crisis. Tiny Earth (TE) is undergraduate curriculum that encourage students to pursue science careers by engagement in authentic drug discovery research. Through the TE program, students identify environmental strains that inhibit other bacteria. Although these isolates may produce antibiotics based on the antagonistic phenotype, understanding the activity in regard to genome content remains elusive. Previously, we developed a transposon mutagenesis module for use with TE to identify genes involved in antibiotic production. Here, we extend this approach to a second semester undergraduate course to understand the origin of antagonism and genome diversity. Using a bioinformatics strategy, we identified gene clusters involved in activity, and with annotated genomes in hand, students were able to characterize strain diversity. Genomes were analyzed using different computational tools, including average nucleotide identity for species identification and whole genome comparisons. Because the focus of TE involves the evolution of drug resistance, predicted products in strains were identified and verified using a drug susceptibility assay. An application of this curriculum by TE members would assist in efforts with antibiotic discovery.

Keywords: Pseudomonas; antibiotic discovery; transposon mutagenesis; biosynthetic gene cluster; bioinformatics; citizen science; Tiny Earth

### **INTRODUCTION**

The evolution of antibiotic resistant bacteria is a global crisis (Robinson et al. 2016; CDC 2019), and in February 2017, a list of the top 12 bacteria for which new antibiotics are urgently needed was released by the WHO (Tacconelli et al. 2018). The main concerns included carbapenem-resistant strains of Acinetobacter baumannii, Pseudomonas aeruginosa andEnterobacteriaceae species. These are members of the ESKAPE pathogens (Enterococcus faecium, Staphylococcus aureus, Klebsiella pneumoniae, <u>A</u>. baumannii, <u>P</u>. aeruginosa and <u>Enterobacter</u> species) that are

recognized by the Infectious Disease Society of America as bacteria with the most significant risk to public health (Boucher et al. 2009). These disease-causing bacteria are responsible for the majority of nosocomial infections in the United States, and treatment options are dwindling due to their high levels of antibiotic resistance (Tommasi et al. 2015). Escalating the multidrug resistant (MDR) crisis is the shift of major pharmaceutical companies away from antibiotic discovery and synthesis (Pammolli, Magazzini and Riccaboni 2011; Scannell et al. 2012). As a result, sources of new antibiotics are depleted and bacteria are now resistant to the effects of most common drugs.

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Tiny Earth (TE; https://tinyearth.wisc.edu/) was established to address the antibiotic crisis through a student crowdsourcing research initiative. During a semester-long lab course, students isolate bacteria from soil samples, characterize strains using phylogenetics and Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) analysis, and test for antagonistic activity against safe relatives of the ESKAPE pathogens. TE efforts are well established across the United States and one of the goals of the program is to engage students in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics careers. Because of the success in education, the program has been implemented in high school, college and university curriculums, and as a consequence of this effort, a global collection of strains that exhibit inhibitory activity has been identified. To accommodate such a collection, a TE strain repository was recently developed for the storage of isolates and to archive curated metadata. This database provides an opportunity to further promote education and research through whole genome sequencing and analysis of these strains.

Although thousands of TE strains have been collected based on the antagonistic phenotype, understanding the activity with regard to genotype remains elusive to students. Previously, we developed a molecular approach for TE that utilizes transposon (Tn) mutagenesis and whole genome sequencing to identify genes involved in antagonistic activity (Davis et al. 2017). Here, we extend this strategy to bioinformatics to assist in understanding genome content. The Joint Genome Institute Integrated Microbial Genomes and Microbiomes (JGI IMG) is a computational system that permits bioinformatics analyses of genomes through a convenient and accessible interface (Markowitz et al. 2006, 2014). As of December 2019, IMG contains nearly 60 000 bacterial genomes that together contain 1.1 million biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) that are predicted to produce secondary metabolites such as antibiotics. Our strategy offers an opportunity for education in genomic research and also provides robust bioinformatics analyses for use with antagonistic strains by making use of the tens of thousands of bacterial genomes available through JGI IMG. With the ease of Pseudomonas strain isolation and its effective ability to antagonize strains accomplished in the first semester (Davis et al. 2017), we offer an educational platform that expands to a second semester of bioinformatics to understand genome diversity.

#### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

## Strain isolation, phylogenetics and transposon mutagenesis (first semester)

Soil samples were obtained from topsoil collected from the campus of Bowling Green State University (BGSU), OH, on 27 August 2015 (SWI36<sub>WT</sub>; Davis *et al.* 2017), 30 August 2016 (SWI44<sub>WT</sub>), 24 August 2017 (SWI6<sub>WT</sub>) and 16 January 2018 (SWI7<sub>WT</sub>). For growth conditions, antagonistic assays, 16S rRNA gene phylogenetic analysis and Tn mutagenesis, refer to Davis *et al.* (2017). All 16S rRNA gene sequences were submitted to GenBank under accession numbers MN399206–MN399335.

#### Genome sequencing and annotation

Genomic DNA from SWI36<sub>WT</sub>, SWI44<sub>WT</sub>, SWI6<sub>WT</sub> and SWI7<sub>WT</sub> was extracted using the Wizard Genomic DNA Purification Kit (Promega, Madison, Wisonsin, USA). PacBio sequencing was performed by the University of Delaware DNA Sequencing & Genotyping Center. Genomic DNA was sheared using g-tube to 20 kb fragments (Covaris). The PacBio libraries were prepared using

standard PacBio protocol for 20 kb libraries (20 kb template preparation using BluePippin size-selection system). Each sample library was sequenced on a PacBio RS II instrument with one SMRT cell using P6-C4 chemistry with 6 h movie. Genomes were assembled using PacBio HGAP3 (Hierarchical Genome Assembly Process 3). Reads of inserts were filtered by quality 0.8 and read length 1 kb (Chin *et al.* 2013). All assemblies resolved into a single contig. The genomes may be accessed at JGI IMG under the taxon ID#, 2716884901, 2681813543, 2770939456 and 2791354873; and at GenBank under the accession numbers CP026675, CP026674, CP026676 and CP040930, for SWI36<sub>WT</sub>, SWI44<sub>WT</sub>, SWI6<sub>WT</sub> and SWI7<sub>WT</sub>, respectively. The genomes of the strains were annotated using JGI GOLD (Liolios *et al.* 2010) and GenBank.

#### **Bioinformatics analyses (second semester)**

The JGI IMG portal (https://img.jgi.doe.gov/) was utilized to perform bioinformatics. The species of SWI<sub>WT</sub> strains were identified using an average nucleotide identity (ANI) analysis. The SWI36<sub>WT</sub>, SWI44<sub>WT</sub>, SWI6<sub>WT</sub> and SWI7<sub>WT</sub> genomes were compared in a pairwise fashion to characterized Pseudomonas species available in the JGI database. For analysis of a few selected proteins with putative drug resistance functions, genomes were mined for loci involved in antibiotic resistance using the search function with the key words: lactam, aminoglycoside, chloramphenicol, macrolide, vancomycin and drug efflux pump. Pseudomonas aeruginosa PAO1 (JGI IMG genome ID # 637000218) was included for comparison to an ESKAPE pathogen. For whole genome comparison of SWI44<sub>WT</sub> and SWI6<sub>WT</sub>, the Artemis Comparison Tool was utilized (Carver et al. 2005), which is available through JGI IMG. DNA regions identified in SWI6<sub>WT</sub> that were absent in SWI44<sub>WT</sub> were defined by the presence of three or more adjacent genes present in one strain and not the other. PHASTER was utilized to identify the presence of a prophage (Arndt et al. 2016).

#### Antibiotic susceptibility test

The Kirby–Bauer disk diffusion susceptibility assay was used to test for antibiotic resistance (Hudzicki 2009). SWI36<sub>WT</sub>, SWI44<sub>WT</sub>, SWI6<sub>WT</sub> and SWI7<sub>WT</sub> were spread plated onto Muller Hinton agar (BD; Difco) medium from an overnight culture using a sterile cotton swab. Eight antibiotic disks (BD BBL) were placed over the spread plated strains: colistin (10  $\mu$ g), carbenicillin (100  $\mu$ g), chloramphenicol (30  $\mu$ g), meropenem (10  $\mu$ g), imipenem (10  $\mu$ g), tobramycin (10  $\mu$ g), ciprofloxacin (5  $\mu$ g) and ceftazidime (30  $\mu$ g). The diameters of the zones of inhibition were measured after 20 h of incubation. Strains were defined as resistant by the BD protocol if the zones of inhibition were less than 8 mm for colistin, 13 mm for carbenicillin, 12 mm for chloramphenicol, 13 mm for meropenem, 13 mm for imipenem, 12 mm for tobramycin, 15 mm for ciprofloxacin and 14 mm for ceftazidime.

#### RESULTS

## The first semester: phyogenetics and antagonistic activity

As part of the TE curriculum (Fig. 1), soil-derived strains were isolated on the BGSU campus in August 2015 (Davis et al. 2017), August 2016, August 2017 and January 2018. The 16S rRNA gene of 130 isolates was amplified and sequenced, and a neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree was generated to assess the genetic diversity among the strains (Fig. 2). A NCBI



Figure 1. The expanded year-long TE workflow. The first and second semesters are boxed in light blue. Genome sequencing of the wild-type strains (gray circle) and arbitrary PCR (red line) of the transposon mutant are performed outside of the class. These data are used to expand TE to a second semester involving bioinformatics.

nucleotide BLAST analysis (Mount 2007) identified bacteria at the genus level and confirmed that SWI36<sub>WT</sub>, SWI44<sub>WT</sub>, SWI6<sub>WT</sub> and SWI7<sub>WT</sub> belonged to the Pseudomonas genus. Other isolated strains included members from Citrobacter, Lysinibacillus, Paenibacillus and Serratia (Table S1, Supporting Information). All environmental isolates were tested by undergraduate students for antagonistic activity against non-pathogenic 'safe' relatives (SRs) of the ESKAPE pathogens (Acinetobacter baylyi, Bacillus subtilis, Enterobacter aerogenes and Escherichia coli), and the resulting data were overlaid to the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 2). From the 130 strains that were isolated, 47 exhibited antagonistic activity, of which 33 were Pseudomonas isolates and 13 of these inhibited multiple SRs. Since SWI44 $_{\rm WT}$  and SWI6 $_{\rm WT}$  inhibited all four SRs and SWI7 inhibited all except B. subtilis, graduate students determined their activity, outside of the lab class, against the ESKAPE pathogens and other disease-causing bacteria, including Listeria monocytogens and Bacillus cereus. SWI44<sub>WT</sub> and SWI6<sub>WT</sub> were able to inhibit E. faecium, K. pneumoniae, A. baumannii, E. cloacae and B. cereus. We utilized transposon mutagenesis previously described with SWI36<sub>WT</sub> (Davis et al. 2017) to identify loci in SWI44 $_{WT}$ , SWI6 $_{WT}$  and SWI7 $_{WT}$  whose products may contribute to the inhibitory activity. About 10 000 mutants were screened for each strain and one loss-ofinhibition (LOI) mutant was identified in SWI7, two in SWI6 and six in SWI44. Due to semester constraints, the genomes of the wild-type strains were sequenced, annotated, and arbitrary PCR was performed after the semester end (Fig. 1). These data were used to identify loci involved in antagonistic activity and to characterize genome content.

#### The second semester: bioinformatics

To expand the TE curriculum toward bioinformatics, we developed a second semester that utilizes a user friendly database for computational analyses (Fig. 1). The main goal was to understand antagonistic activity in regard to genome content. JGI IMG is a well-developed and continuously maintained database (Markowitz et al. 2006; Chen et al. 2017) that students can easily navigate and perform bioinformatic functions. All genomes submitted to NCBI are also available through JGI IMG, thus providing a comprehensive analysis of all currently sequenced genomes. Students registered as a user for JGI IMG and all bioinformatics assignments were performed using this computational platform unless otherwise stated. We demonstrate the utility of JGI IMG in an undergraduate lecture class through four assignments: (i) the identification of genes involved in antagonistic activity, (ii) species identification, (iii) genome comparison and (iv) drug resistance. Throughout the second semester, students worked on these tasks and generated a poster that they presented at the Ohio Branch American Society for Microbiology conference.

## Assignment 1: identification of biosynthetic gene clusters

To identify the disrupted gene in SWI44LOL, SWI6LOL and SWI7LOL that were generated by Tn mutagenesis at the end of the first semester, students aligned the arbitrary PCR product to the annotated sequenced genome (Fig. 1) using the NCBI nucleotide BLAST sequence alignment function. Arbitrary PCR is a technique that allows amplification of the genomic sequence that flanks the Tn insert (Das et al. 2005), so alignment to the genome indicates the mutated gene. Locus coordinates were used to identify if the Tn inserted into a BGC. BGCs were computationally identified through JGI IMG annotation for each strain (Tables S2-S4, Supporting Information). These gene regions are predicted to encode secondary metabolites, so a Tn insertion in this region would suggest the encoded product is involved in antagonistic activity. In SWI44 $_{\mbox{\scriptsize LOI}}$  and SWI6 $_{\mbox{\scriptsize LOI}}$  , the Tn was found to disrupt a BGC. In SWI44, six LOI mutants were identified (Table S5, Supporting Information). With three of these mutants, the Tn inserted into a 42.0 kb BGC (JGI cluster 2716925891.Ga0172617 11.region2), which consists of 41 ORFs (Fig. 3A; Figure S8, Supporting Information) and is predicted to encode a thiopeptide. ORFs 10, 12 and 13 were mutated and predicted to encode a potassium-efflux system ancillary protein, an A-factor biosynthesis hotdog domain-containing protein and a NAD(P)-dependent dehydrogenase, respectively. The other three Tn insertions disrupted the gacS gene, which is a twocomponent system histidine kinase and is located 749 kb outside of the designated BGC. With  $SWI6_{WT}$ , two LOI mutants were identified (Table S6, Supporting Information). One Tn disrupted the same BGC as in SWI44 $_{WT}$  (2770957150.Ga0255654 11.region6), but in ORF 15, which is predicted to encode a NAD(P)-dependent dehydrogenase (Fig. 3B; Table S8, Supporting Information). The other mutation also occurred in the gacS gene as observed in SWI44 $_{\text{LOI}}$ . The presence of multiple Tn insertions within a single BGC and gacS gene among two different strains suggests these loci encode the production of a secondary metabolite involved in antagonistic activity. One SWI7<sub>LOI</sub> mutant was identified (Table S7, Supporting Information) and predicted to be a hypothetical protein but was not located within in a BGC. The region around this locus was mined for a metabolite pathway (Fig. 3C), but there was no evidence of secondary metabolite production. This approach allows students to connect the antagonistic activity observed in the first semester to genes involved in the production of the active compound.



Figure 2. 16S rRNA neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree of 130 TE soil-derived strains. Isolates were collected in September 2016, September 2017 and January 2018 and are depicted by light gray, dark gray and black bars, respectively. Among the 130 strains, 47 exhibited antagonistic activity of which 33 were pseudomonads and 13 of these inhibited multiple SRs. Antagonistic activity by the strains is indicated by the colored boxes: Acinetobacter baylyi (purple), Bacillus subtilis (brown), Enterobacter aerogenes (gold) and E. coli (blue). SWI36<sub>WT</sub>, SWI4<sub>WT</sub>, SWI6<sub>WT</sub> and SWI6<sub>WT</sub> are identified by black arrows, and the Bacillus and Pseudomonas clades were shaded pink and blue, respectively. The tree was rooted using the Serratia strain S18 17-2.



Figure 3. Tn mutated genes in SWI44<sub>WT</sub>, SWI6<sub>WT</sub> and SWI7<sub>WT</sub> that contribute to antagonistic activity. Tn mutants were identified in BGCs within (A) SWI44<sub>WT</sub> and (B) SWI6<sub>WT</sub> and were predicted to encode a thiopeptide. (C) The insertion in SWI7<sub>WT</sub> was not in a predicted BGC. The genes surrounding the mutated locus are shown, which differ from SWI44<sub>WT</sub> and SWI6<sub>WT</sub>. ORF numbers correspond to Table S8 (Supporting Information). Homologous ORFs are shaded the same color. Red vertical lines represent location of the Tn insert.

#### Assignment 2: species identification

Without genome sequence, species identification is difficult to perform because this involves technical lab experimentation such as multiple biochemical tests and whole genome hybridization. With sequenced genomes in hand, students performed an ANI analysis using the JGI IMG ANI function to determine species identification. Results showed that  $SWI44_{WT}$  and  $SWI6_{WT}$  were 99% similar to Pseudomonas taiwanensis DSM 21245 strain, suggesting these strains belong to the group P. taiwanensis (Table 1). SWI36<sub>WT</sub> was identified to be >98% similar to P. putida KT2440. Likewise, the ANI of SWI36<sub>WT</sub> to SWI44<sub>WT</sub> and SWI6<sub>WT</sub> was 85%, consistent with their status as different species. SWI7 was not closely related to any other Pseudomonas strain. Since the same BGC was identified in SWI44 $_{\rm WT}$  and SWI6 $_{\rm WT}$  and because the strains were similar based on ANI, a pairwise genome NCBI BLAST alignment was performed to determine genome similarity. Results revealed that  $SWI44_{WT}$  and  $SWI6_{WT}$  were 99% similar based on query coverage of 93% (SWI6<sub>WT</sub> vs SWI44<sub>WT</sub>) and 89% (SWI44<sub>WT</sub> vs SWI6<sub>WT</sub>). Thus, SWI44<sub>WT</sub> and SWI6<sub>WT</sub> strains were closely related based on genome content and of the same species while  $SWI36_{WT}$  and  $SWI7_{WT}$  were from a different group. These results presented a unique opportunity for students to compare closely related strains and to understand species based on genome content.

#### Assignment 3: genome comparison

To investigate genome similarity and differences between  $SWI6_{WT}$  and  $SWI44_{WT}$ , students performed a whole genome analysis using the Artemis Comparison Tool (ACT; Carver et al. 2005), which is also available through JGI IMG. Thirteen chromosomal regions were identified that were present only in SWI6<sub>WT</sub> (Fig. 4A; Table S9, Supporting Information). DNA regions in which three or more adjacent genes were present in one strain and not the other were of interest since these loci may give insight to gene gain or loss among the closely related strains. Seven of the thirteen regions encoded a predicted transposase or integrase suggesting lateral transfer of a gene region. These regions included but were not limited to genes with predicted functions involved in outer member components, transcriptional regulators, restriction enzymes, aminotransferases, efflux pumps and hypothetical proteins (Table S9, Supporting Information). Region 2 was 53 763 bp and PHASTER (Arndt et al. 2016) predicted a 39 193 bp prophage at genome coordinates 666 612–705 805 (Fig. 4B). A nucleotide BLAST analysis was performed using the prophage encoded region and results showed a 67% query coverage and 83% identity to the Pseudomonas putida strain PC2 genome yet only 31% coverage and 74% identity to Pseudomonas phage Phi3, the most similar phage, suggesting the identification of a novel prophage in strain SWI6<sub>WT</sub>. attL, attR and a tRNA were found

Tab	le	<ol> <li>ANI</li> </ol>	analysis	of SWI36 <sub>WT</sub>	, SWI44 <sub>WT</sub> ,	SWI6 <sub>WT</sub>	and SWI7 <sub>WT</sub> .
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Genome ID	Pseudomonas sp.	SWI36	SWI44	SWI6	SWI7
637000218	P. aeruginosa PAO1	77.38	77.46	77.48	76.87
637000219	P. entomophila L48	85.34	85.24	85.22	82.76
637000220	P. protegens Pf-5	79.31	79.44	79.30	78.63
637000221	P. fluorescens Pf0-1	78.63	78.73	78.59	77.92
637000222	P. putida KT2440	98.11	85.15	85.33	83.56
640427131	P. mendocina ymp	77.76	77.81	77.80	77.34
640427133	P. stutzeri A1501	76.69	76.69	76.70	76.32
2508501074	P. syringae pv. tomato DC300	77.39	77.48	77.45	76.83
2523533561	P. taiwanensis DSM 21245	85.17	99.62	99.66	82.62
2681813543	SWI36	100	85.12	85.59	83.68
2716884901	SWI44	85.23	100	99.44	82.59
2770939456	SWI6	85.59	99.44	100	82.63
2791354873	SWI7	83.68	82.59	82.63	100



**Figure 4.** Genome comparison of strains SWI7<sub>WT</sub>, SWI44<sub>WT</sub> and SWI6<sub>WT</sub>. (**A**) ACT was utilized to visualize SWI genome similarity. SWI7<sub>WT</sub>, SWI44<sub>WT</sub> and SWI6<sub>WT</sub> were positioned on the top, middle and bottom of the alignment, respectively. The sequences are joined by colored bands that represent the matching genome regions. Red and blue bands represent DNA matches in the forward and reverse direction, respectively. DNA regions present in only SWI6<sub>WT</sub> compared to SWI44<sub>WT</sub> are numbered 1–13 on the SWI6 genome. (**B**) The prophage identified in SWI6<sub>WT</sub> is in region 2 and consists of 39 193 bp. Colored arrows pointing left or right represent ORFs transcribed in the forward or reverse direction, respectively. GRFs that were not predicted to be prophage associated. Colored ORFs were predicted to have prophage associated functions: red, site specific integrase; green, tail assembly; dark blue; lysis; light blue, DNA packaging; brown, capsid assembly; yellow, replication; purple, tRNA; and cream, unknown function. Numbers 1–41 correspond to ORFs in Table S10 (Supporting Information).

near the phage boundary sites (Table S10, Supporting Information) and genes with functional similarity were grouped together suggesting a modular genome composition. Thus, the similarity between SWI44<sub>WT</sub> and SWI6<sub>WT</sub> provided a unique opportunity for students to identify differences likely due to lateral gene transfer among closely related strains.

#### Assignment 4: drug resistance

Because the focus of TE involves the evolution of antibiotic resistance, we performed a search for genes predicted to be involved in drug resistance. We identified numerous loci with putative functions involved in enzymes that provide resistance to  $\beta$ -lactams, aminoglycosides, chloramphenicol, macrolides and vancomycin, and possibly other drugs through drug efflux pumps. In total, 34, 28, 28 and 26 putative genes involved in resistance were identified in SWI36<sub>WT</sub>, SWI44<sub>WT</sub>, SWI6<sub>WT</sub> and SWI7<sub>WT</sub>, respectively (Table S11, Supporting Information). Compared to an ESKAPE pathogen, *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 was found to encode 22 putative resistance genes, surprisingly less than the environmental strains. Based on these results, students predicted that the environmental SWI<sub>WT</sub> strains would exhibit MDR resistance. We tested eight antibiotics that differed based on compound classification and mode of action (Table 2).  $\beta$ -lactams and an aminoglycoside antibiotic were included since multiple genes were identified that conferred

	Classification	Inhibits	Resistance			
Antibiotic			SWI36	SWI44	SWI6	SWI7
Carbenicillin	$\beta$ -lactam	Cell wall synthesis	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Ceftazidime	$\beta$ -lactam	Cell wall synthesis	No	No	No	No
Imipenem	$\beta$ -lactam	Cell wall synthesis	No	No	No	No
Meropenem	$\beta$ -lactam	Cell wall synthesis	No	No	No	Yes
Chloramphenicol	Amphenicol	Protein synthesis	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Tobramycin	Aminoglycoside	Protein synthesis	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Ciprofloxacin	Quinolone	DNA replication	No	No	No	No
Colistin	Polypeptide	Membrane integrity	Yes	Yes	Yes	No

#### Table 2. Antibiotic resistance of $SWI_{WT}$ strains.

resistance to these drugs, in addition to chloramphenicol and ciprofloxacin; we also included the 'last resort' drug colistin. SWI36<sub>WT</sub>, SWI44<sub>WT</sub> and SWI6<sub>WT</sub> were resistant to the  $\beta$ -lactam carbenicillin, the aminoglycoside tobramycin, chloramphenicol and colistin. SWI7<sub>WT</sub> was resistant to carbenicillin, meropenem and chloramphenicol. These results show that environmental strains exhibit a MDR phenotype and have evolved mechanisms to combat a variety of antibiotics.

#### DISCUSSION

Engaging undergraduate students in authentic research provokes interest in scientific careers and develops troubleshooting and critical thinking skills. Unfortunately, many students fulfil their undergraduate degree without the opportunity to engage in experiential learning. TE has been defined as inclusive Research Education Community (iREC)—a format that addresses a common scientific problem that is performed by multiple institutions and is supported by a centralized scientific structure (Hanauer et al. 2017). A similar education-research-based program is SEA-PHAGE, a well-defined iREC, which utilizes Mycobacterium bacteriophage for its research purpose and has been shown to be effective in science education (Anderson et al. 2011; Pope and Hatfull 2015). Recently, bacteriophage isolated from students in the SEA-PHAGE program was utilized to treat a Mycobacterium abscessus infection in a cystic fibrosis patient who did not respond to antibiotics (Dedrick et al. 2019). Thus, iREC programs are of importance in scientific discovery and education. The workflow presented here parallels that of SEA-PHAGE by integrating genome analysis into the research project. Due to semester constraints at most universities, the workflow was designed to span two semesters. The first semester involves utilizing Tn mutagenesis for the identification of LOI mutants (Davis et al. 2017). Required data linking the first and second semesters together involve arbitrary PCR of the mutant strains and whole genome sequencing of the respective wild-type isolate (Fig. 1). Both tasks can be performed by the Tiny Earth Genome Laboratory, which was developed to assist in the global application of this research endeavor (https://blogs.bgsu.edu/s wigenomes/). The second semester involves using these data for the identification of genes involved in antagonistic activity and genome analyses.

For a proof of concept using our approach, strains from soil samples were isolated from the campus of BGSU and the proposed TE workflow was performed (Fig. 1). Students demonstrated that  $SWI_{WT}$  strains were able to inhibit different SRs and pathogens (Fig. 2). Tn mutagenesis was performed on  $SWI44_{WT}$ ,  $SWI6_{WT}$  and  $SWI7_{WT}$  and their genomes were sequenced. For

 $SWI44_{WT}$  and  $SWI6_{WT}$ , an identical BGC was identified and predicted to encode a thiopeptide (Fig. 3). Tn insertions were also found in a gene predicted to encode histidine sensor kinase (gacS gene), which is part of a two-component regulatory system involved in gene regulation. In Pseudomonas, the GacS sensor kinase has been shown to be involved in the regulation of secondary metabolites in Pseudomonas protegens Pf-5 (Corbell and Loper 1995) and the production of antagonistic factors by Pseudomonas fluorescens strains that inhibit plant (Laville et al. 1992) and fungal (Gaffney et al. 1994) pathogens. Given that the SWI44 $_{WT}$  and SWI6 $_{WT}$  had identical BGCs (Fig. 3), and were closely related based on the 16S rRNA gene (Fig. 2), students investigated if the strains were clonal. Bioinformatics analyses demonstrated that  $SWI44_{WT}$  and  $SWI6_{WT}$  were similar, but not identical in genome content based on ANI and ACT analyses while SWI7<sub>WT</sub> differed (Table 1 and Fig. 4), which provided students with an understanding of genetic diversity among similar and different strains. Because the evolution of antibiotic resistance is a main concept in SWI/TE, students sought to determine drug resistant profiles, so genomes were mined for resistance genes (Table S11, Supporting Information) and verified experimentally (Table 2). These results demonstrate that even among non-pathogenic strains, isolates have evolved a MDR phenotype; unfortunately, SWI36 $_{WT}$ , SWI44 $_{WT}$  and SWI6 $_{WT}$  were resistant to colistin, a drug of last resort. Thus, the sequenced genomes provided a genetic understanding by establishing a link between phenotype and genotype both with antagonistic activity (and the identification of BGCs) and drug resistance (and the identification of resistance genes).

To culminate the second semester, students presented their work, in groups of two, at the Ohio Branch American Society for Microbiology conference. Posters were judged by faculty members and they scored the presentation on content, delivery, response and overall impression. The average poster presentation score from one (poor) to seven (outstanding) was a five (excellent), which reflected their engagement in the project considering this was the first authentic poster presentation at a scientific conference. This activity compiled a year-long course involving strain isolation, antagonistic activity, Tn mutagenesis and bioinformatics. In addition to educational purposes, the workflow presented here also provides important scientific data. For instance, the genes involved in antagonistic activity were identified, which can give valuable insight to compound prediction. Moreover, wild-type and respective LOI strains can be utilized by the Tiny Earth Chemical Hub (https://tinyearth.wisc.edu/chemistry-hub/) to extract the active compound using techniques such as high-performance liquid chromatography with prospects of antibiotic discovery. Furthermore, an implementation of this approach by SWI/TE members would provide a large collection of pseudomonads genomes that can be utilized for education and research purposes. Access to such a large genome collection would give a global insight to strain diversity within a bacterial group, the spread of drug resistance, and more importantly, the identification of diverse BGCs that would facilitate drug discovery by undergraduate students.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available at FEMSLE online.

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Conflicts of interest. None declared.

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