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3 **Exploration and Exploitation of the Environment for novel Specialized Metabolites**

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 Microorganisms are Nature's little engineers of a remarkable array of bioactive small molecules that represent
12 most of our new drugs. The wealth of genomic and metagenomic sequence data generated in the last decade
13 has shown that the majority of novel biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) is identified from cultivation-
14 independent studies, which has led to a strong expansion of the number of microbial taxa known to harbour
15 BGCs. The large size and repeat sequences of BGCs remain a bioinformatic challenge, but newly developed
16 software tools have been created to overcome these issues and are paramount to identify and select the most
17 promising BGCs for further research and exploitation. While heterologous expression of BGCs has been the
18 greatest challenge until now, a growing number of polyketide synthase (PKS) and non-ribosomal peptide
19 synthetase (NRPS)-encoding gene clusters have been cloned and expressed in bacteria and fungi based on
20 techniques that mostly rely on homologous recombination. Finally, combining ecological insights with state-
21 of-the-art computation and molecular methodologies will allow for further comprehension and exploitation of
22 microbial specialized metabolites.

23

24 **Introduction**

25 Microorganisms are unparalleled with respect to the chemical diversity of specialized metabolites they
26 produce. These encompass many chemical classes including polyketides (PKs), non-ribosomal peptides
27 (NRPs), ribosomally synthesized and post translationally modified peptides (RiPPs), terpenes, saccharides and
28 alkaloids [1]. Until the 1950s the majority of microbial metabolites were overlooked or merely regarded as
29 waste products from primary metabolism. In contrast to a general set of primary metabolites, specialized
30 metabolites are often specific to a restricted taxonomic range where they facilitate dedicated physiological,
31 social or predatory functions [2]. Moreover, such metabolites have been found to possess a wide range of
32 biological activities, making them useful for the development of antimicrobials, anticancer agents and
33 immunosuppressants for pharmaceutical, agricultural and food manufacturing applications [3–6].

34 The majority of specialized metabolites result from metabolic pathways, each of which encoded by a
35 suite of genes at the same chromosomal locus, generally known as biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs). These
36 BGCs are frequently "silent" in common laboratory media, whereas their expression is triggered by specific
37 environmental cues [7–9]. Recent developments in genomics and computational biology, hand in hand with a
38 vastly increasing number of sequenced metagenomes and metatranscriptomes, have led to the discovery of
39 thousands of BGCs [10,11].

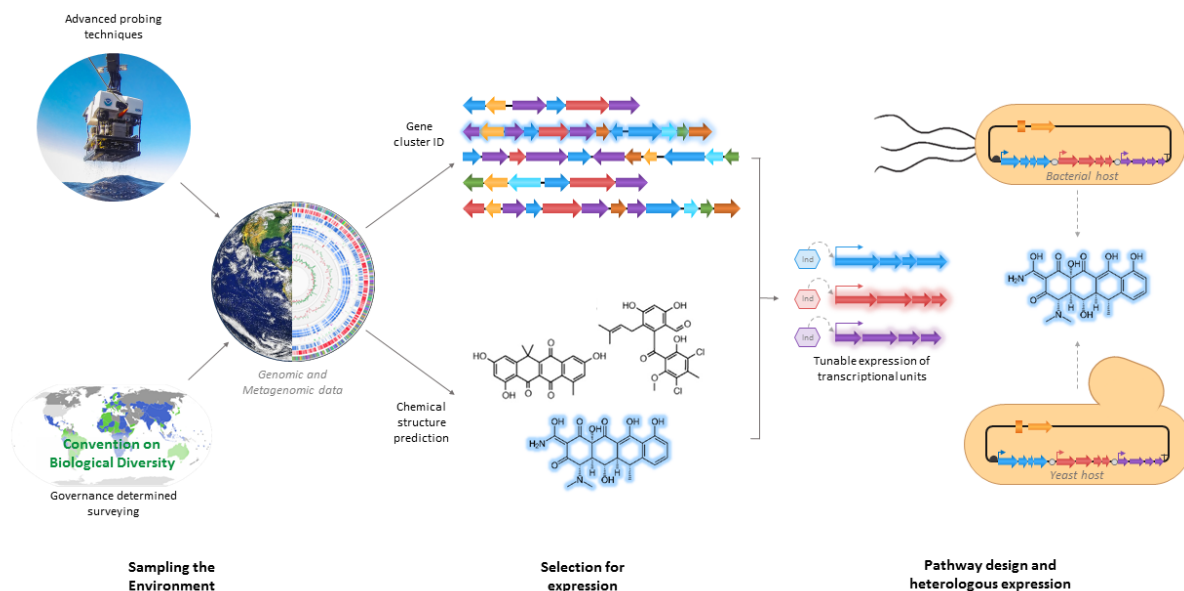
40 Modular assembly lines such as PK synthases (PKS) and NRP synthetases (NRPS) constitute two of
41 the most important and diverse classes of specialized metabolites that can theoretically code for a near infinite
42 diversity of unique molecular architectures [12–14]. Recent analyses based on retro-biosynthesis, i.e. the
43 computational breakdown of PK and NRP chemical molecules and reversal of their assembly lines to predict
44 their parent PKS/NRPS BGCs, allow linking BGCs from publicly available databases to known natural products
45 and define clusters encoding new products. Such efforts have shown that thousands of BGCs are likely to be
46 responsible for the production of novel molecules [10].

47 To prevent replication of previous research and yet discover specialized metabolites from microbes
48 with novel applicable biological activities, it is important to shift attention to environments and microbial phyla
49 that have so far been largely neglected. Moreover, advanced bioinformatics analyses must be applied that can

50 quickly assess the novelty of the gene clusters found and link them to predicted chemical structures and
51 biological activities.

52 In this opinion paper, we highlight state-of-the-art developments regarding discovery,
53 characterization and exploitation of microbial specialized metabolites, with a focus on PKS and NRPS. In
54 addition, we identify environments, bioinformatics approaches and expression strategies that we consider
55 most promising for future development of the field [Figure 1].

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59

60 **Figure 1. Approach for specialized metabolite discovery.**

61 Microbial specialized metabolites are of great value, and in order to boost their discovery, exploration of scarcely
62 screened environments is key. Technological advances in sampling tools and techniques play an important role in
63 allowing researchers to access such locations. At the same time, governmental constraints also dictate which regions
64 will be favoured for exploration and exploitation of microbial bioactives.

65 Newly developed computational methodologies enable mining of genomic and metagenomic data for detection of
66 potentially new classes of biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs). These algorithms are optimized to conduct identification
67 of BGCs and predict their chemical structures, and are crucial to identify and select the most promising BGCs for
68 further research and exploitation.

69 The next step in unlocking and systematically exploiting these BGCs involves their controlled expression. Large DNA
70 molecule manipulation involves assembly and cloning methods often based on homologous recombination
71 mechanisms in both yeast and bacteria. Furthermore, advances in synthetic biology allowing customisation of
72 transcriptional units' expression stoichiometry for production of complex chemicals, play an important role in the
73 creation of automated production platforms.

74
75

76 Environmental sources of specialized metabolites

77 Nature has provided mankind with numerous bioactive compounds for medical purposes for thousands
78 of years, and even in modern times most drugs are derived from natural sources [15]. Bacteria and fungi that
79 are responsible for the production of small bioactive molecules have been found in widely diverse
80 environmental niches, such as soil, sediment and aquatic environments, either as free-living microorganisms
81 or in symbiosis with plants and animals [15,16]. Soil-dwelling cultivable Actinobacteria, and members of the
82 genus *Streptomyces* in particular, have been in the limelight as prolific sources of specialized bioactive
83 metabolites, as witnessed by the discoveries of the antibiotics actinomycin, streptomycin and chloramphenicol
84 in the 1940s, and the antiparasitic agent ivermectin [17–19]. Also soil-derived isolates from other bacterial
85 genera, such as *Bacillus* [20] and *Pseudomonas* [12,21] are traditionally rich sources of specialized

86 metabolites. Interestingly, there appear to be important differences in biosynthetic potential between
87 taxonomic groups within these genera, according to their ecological specializations [5,22]. Fungi, historically
88 also mainly isolated from soils, represent a sometimes overlooked, but prolific source of bioactive molecules
89 (e.g. antibiotics such as penicillin) [5,23]. A recently published study explored the environmental factors that
90 drive changes in PKS and NRPS encoding BGC diversity across geographically distinct soil environments, and
91 found changes in biosynthetic domain composition to correlate most consistently with variations in
92 latitude[24].

93 However, cultivation-independent methods have shown that the uncultivated majority of the
94 microorganisms encode many more BGCs (quantitatively and qualitatively) than the ones we know from
95 isolates, a terra incognita with major potential for applications [4,5]. In addition, the use of these cultivation-
96 independent methods shows that the traditional focus on Actinobacteria needs a shift towards other
97 microorganisms such as marine fungi [25], Cyanobacteria[26,27], Proteobacteria[28] and the novel candidate
98 phylum Tectomicrobia [29,30]. For example, the latter, represented by a newly discovered uncultivated
99 marine sponge symbiont genus *Candidatus Entotheonella* which has the genetic capacity to produce over 40
100 natural compounds and is widely distributed in taxonomically diverse sponges [30]. Other microbial taxa
101 including *Clostridium*, *Planctomycetes*, *Burkholderia* and *Xenorhabdus/Photorhabdus* are also emerging
102 important targets with high biosynthetic potential [5,22].

103 While the terrestrial environment is by no means exhausted of novel bioactive molecules, a recent
104 large metagenomics study of the ocean water revealed that a stunning 90% of the genes detected at a depth
105 of 600 m did not have a match in public databases [31]. Although the ocean metagenome appeared to be rich
106 in BGCs, we propose that the majority of BGCs in ocean water remains undetected as only the fraction <3 µm
107 was considered in the aforementioned study, excluding small particles that are colonised by a community of
108 microorganisms. These in turn are more likely to produce specialized metabolites of interest required for short-
109 range molecular interactions. The same may be expected for marine sediments and biofilms (e.g., on
110 macroalgae) that have been poorly investigated for their potential to produce specialized metabolites [32,33].
111 In addition, marine invertebrates display species-specific symbioses with microorganisms facilitated by unique
112 metabolites, some of which may be valuable bioactive small molecules [34]. Particularly sponges, the biomass
113 of which may be almost equally divided between host and symbionts, have been identified as one of the most
114 promising natural source for future antibiotics [35,36].

115 In addition to differences in the resource potential of particular natural environments, the
116 governmental situation may dictate which regions will be favoured for exploration and exploitation of microbial
117 bioactives. Compliance with the Nagoya Protocol requires the explorer to legally acquire any genetic resource,
118 prove due diligence through traceability, risk assessment and risk mitigation procedures, and enable
119 inspections by national authorities. Each signatory state may either determine its own access policy, or provide
120 free access to its genetic resources and associated traditional knowledge (www.cbd.int/abs). However,
121 concepts of biological diversity that are the foundation of the Nagoya Protocol are not directly applicable for
122 microorganisms that do not abide the same patterns of endemism as plants and animals [37]. For example,
123 *Streptomyces carpaticus* strains isolated from coastal habitats in four different continents all produced the
124 same cytotoxic specialized metabolite (Ikarugamycin)[38]; to a large degree, 'everything is everywhere'
125 where the environment selects for the same molecular functions [39]. In addition, structurally very similar
126 polyketides have been obtained from bacterial symbionts from either insects or sponges [40]. Therefore,
127 countries that have a more open attitude and lower administrative burden towards scientific exploration and
128 commercial application of microbial specialized metabolites will likely be more attractive for scientists and
129 industries.

130

131 **Rapid identification and prioritizing specialized metabolites**

132 In recent years, genome mining for BGCs has become a key approach for identification of new
133 molecules and corresponding novel products. For compounds produced by PKSs and NRPSs, their biosynthetic
134 pathways and product structures can be predicted using a range of computational tools and approaches [Table
135 1] [41–47].

136 The ability to detect potentially new classes of BGCs, including those prevailing in the uncultured
137 majority of microorganisms, is a valuable endeavour as these will most likely code for molecules with new
138 chemical scaffolds [51,52]. Tools such as ClusterFinder [11,53] and EvoMining [48] have been developed for
139 this purpose. The former queries genome sequences for BGC-like regions based on the presence of broad

140 Pfam protein domains associated with enzyme families commonly recycled in diverse specialized metabolic
 141 pathways. The latter exploits the notion that enzymes involved in specialized metabolism are paralogs of
 142 primary ones, which have undergone sequence and functional divergence, and utilizes phylogenetic analyses
 143 to detect these outliers [47,54]. Recent developments in high-throughput, single cell and long-read next-
 144 generation sequencing technologies are leading us to an era of fast, affordable sequencing and assembly of
 145 genomes from microbial isolates/consortia. Thus, it is becoming increasingly feasible to access culturable
 146 bacterial taxa and obtain high-quality genomes from these strains, despite the presence of repetitive genomic
 147 regions such as those including BGCs encoding NRPS and PKS enzymes [22,47,54–57].

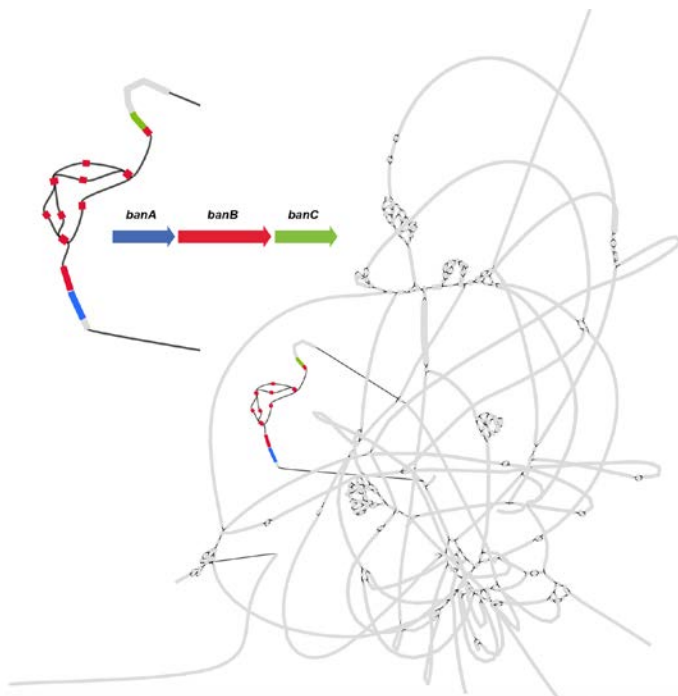
148
 149 **Table 1. Tools for identification of BGCs**

Tool	Approach	Reference
antiSMASH		[46]
SMURF	Identification or signature genomic and protein domains that are hallmarks of biosynthetic pathways. Usually making use of profile Hidden Markov Models (HMM), BLAST and both general databases like Pfam and specialized PKS/NRPS databases for annotation and protein identification.	[41]
PRISM		[43]
NP.searcher		[45]
CLUSEAN		[44]
EvoMining	Exploits the notion that enzymes involved in specialized metabolism are paralogs of primary ones, which have undergone sequence and functional divergence to acquire functions in specialized metabolism. Utilizes phylogenetic mining to detect these outliers.	[48]
ClusterFinder	Queries genome sequences for BGC-like regions based on the presence of Pfam protein domain frequencies associated with enzyme families that are indicative of diverse specialized metabolic pathways.	[11]
GRAPE	Retro-biosynthesis, i.e. computational deconstruction of PK and NRP chemical structures to predict their parent PKS/NRPS, producing assembly line monomers and tailoring enzymes.	[49]
Bandage	Tool for visualizing de Bruijn assembly graphs, allows for a deeper analysis of <i>de novo</i> assemblies which is not accessible through study of individual contigs.	[50]

150
 151 Moreover, through direct capture of environmental DNA from microbiomes of macroorganisms,
 152 metagenomics allows efficiently moving biosynthetic diversity from the environment into the drug discovery
 153 space [57]. PCR-based sequence tag approaches that screen metagenomic libraries for biosynthetic novelty
 154 are considered well established technologies [4,57,58]. However, despite being plagued by issues related to
 155 acquiring highly contiguous assemblies of BGCs, sequencing and assembly of environmental DNA by shotgun
 156 metagenomics constitutes a much more unbiased approach to profile biosynthetic diversity [22]. Whereas
 157 artificial long-read technologies offer valuable improvements in assembly quality [59–61], PK and NRP BGCs
 158 are usually still hard to assemble and often remain fragmented across multiple contigs. Nevertheless, contigs
 159 generated by De Bruijn Graph assembly algorithms are not islands on their own, but in fact are connected to
 160 other contigs in an assembly graph. Although information contained in the assembly graph is lost in the way
 161 sequence assemblies are usually studied, the assembly graph files themselves can be analyzed with
 162 visualization software tools like Bandage[50]. By performing BLAST similarity searches on such a graph, one
 163 can often derive which BGC fragments belong to the same gene cluster. Based on this, clusters can potentially
 164 be reconstructed by finding the most plausible path through the assembly graph based on homology inference
 165 (as recently done for the bananamide BGC in a fragmented draft genome of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* BW11P2
 166 [62] [Figure 2] [21]) or otherwise by designing primers to amplify and Sanger-sequence the gaps between
 167 the contigs. Alternatively, long read nanopore sequencing can also be used[63]. Additionally, binning
 168 metagenomes into metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) based on differential coverage and
 169 oligonucleotide frequencies, and subsequently re-assembling/finishing of high-quality MAGs allows increasing
 170 the contiguity of the assembly for particular organisms within a microbial community [64].

171 These and other computational methodologies are now making it possible to assemble many complete
 172 biosynthetic gene clusters from relatively complex metagenomes. The prediction of natural product structures
 173 from gene clusters is still challenging as deviations in gene order and enzyme modularity occur frequently
 174 [49], and predicting the regioselectivity of tailoring reactions is very complicated. Nevertheless, computational
 175 dereplication strategies based on sequence similarity [1] or retro-biosynthesis [49] make it possible to reliably
 176 identify BGCs that are likely to be involved in the production of novel chemical scaffolds. Moreover, target-

177 based genome mining based on the detection of resistance genes within BGCs [65] makes it possible to
178 pinpoint 'low-hanging fruits' that are likely to be responsible for the production of molecules that bind to
179 cellular targets of interest, as the resistance genes often constitute paralogous copies of these molecular
180 targets that are insensitive to the product of the BGC. Based on such and other criteria, at least a sub-set of
181 BGCs can be intelligently shortlisted for expression studies.
182



183
184
185 **Figure 2. Assembly graph of a fragmented draft genome of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* BW11P2[54],**
186 **assembled by SPAdes, containing the reconstructed bananamide BGC.** In the graph, the grey lines represent
187 nodes (contigs) and black lines paths that represent possible connections between contigs. The upper left corner of
188 the panel depicts a zoom-in visualization for the BLAST result of the genes in this BGC, blue, red and green represent
189 the BLAST hits for gene *banA*, *banB* and *banC* correspondingly. Co-localization on the same node of *banA* and part
190 of *banB* indicates proximity of these genes on the genome.

191
192 **Heterologous expression strategies for specialized metabolites**

193 Biodiversity profiling of different environmental niches provides an outline of the phylogenetic
194 composition of the corresponding communities, and demonstrates that uncultured species outnumber their
195 cultured counterparts. Therefore, the quest to functionally express BGCs is currently the most urgent issue to
196 unlock and exploit these gene clusters. However, this is not a straightforward undertaking. Firstly, because
197 many BGCs are found in non-model organisms, often with rather distinct codon usage to general production
198 hosts such as *E. coli*. Secondly, they are often encoded by clusters that can span over 100 kb of DNA, possibly
199 including complex regulatory mechanisms [66]. Nevertheless, several methods have been developed allowing
200 PKS and NRPS gene clusters to be successfully cloned and expressed in bacteria and fungi [67–74].

201 DNA assembly methods, such as transformation-associated recombination (TAR) cloning are powerful
202 tools for manipulating large DNA molecules. TAR makes use of homologous recombination in yeast and it has
203 been successfully applied to clone and express the 73kb gene cluster encoding the antibiotic taromycin A,
204 originating from a marine actinomycete [72]. Furthermore, a number of direct cloning methods allow
205 integration of gene clusters at specific sites in the production host's chromosome, mainly via standard
206 recombination methods. Direct cloning via Red/ET recombineering is based on *E. coli* linear plus linear
207 homologous recombination [75], and has been successfully used to express large biosynthetic pathways such
208 as the NRPS clusters coding for edeine (48.3kb) and bacillomycin (37.3kb) [70].

209 Advances in synthetic biology (including DNA construction tools, synthetic regulatory circuits and
210 multiplexed genome engineering) enable the harnessing of metagenomic data for high-throughput molecular
211 discovery, as well as pathway design for the production of complex chemicals [66,74,76]. In at least one
212 instance, using a plug-and-play DNA assembly strategy to achieve full gene cluster refactoring in a single step
213 manner has proved more effective than direct cloning and promoter insertion. This also made it possible to
214 construct an automated platform with a high degree of flexibility for generating gene deletions or additions
215 [77]. As a proof of principle for this approach, Luo and colleagues succeeded in expressing and characterizing
216 a cryptic BGC encoding for the production of a polycyclic tretamate macrolactam PKS-NRPS hybrid [77]. With
217 the continuous decrease in DNA synthesis cost, synthetic (codon-optimized) versions of many BGCs can be
218 reconstructed in high-throughput using this technology.

219 One key issue that is difficult to address, especially for gene clusters for which the real molecular
220 product is unknown beforehand, is that of cross-talk between the heterologously expressed pathway and the
221 native pathways. A recent study by Zhang et al. showed that heterologous expression of the lyngbyatoxin
222 gene cluster in three different streptomycete hosts lead to the generation of different natural product
223 derivatives [78]. Because small variations in chemical structure can have a major impact on biological activity,
224 expression studies in multiple hosts (or multiple versions of the same hosts with different native BGCs knocked
225 out using e.g. CRISPR/Cas) are required to ascertain the true product of a synthetically reconstructed BGC for
226 which the native product is unknown. In the more distant future, it might be worth considering to design
227 'orthogonal' heterologous expression strategies that isolate the heterologous pathway from native metabolism,
228 e.g. through compartmentalization [79,80].
229

230 Outlook

231 Microbial specialized metabolites are a vast and exceptional resource that may contribute to solving the current
232 antibiotic resistance crisis [19,81,82]. Based on several technological advances, it is now possible to reach
233 and sample the most difficult-to-access places on Earth. Exploration of scarcely touched environments in
234 combination with the revolutionary developments in metagenomics and computational biology has already led
235 to an explosion in the number of known BGC sequences. Our greatest current challenge is to systematically
236 use these sequences for the production of specialized metabolites and the discovery of their biological
237 functions. Notwithstanding, we have witnessed a growing number of success cases in the past decade,
238 including the activation or heterologous expression of cognate BGCs from non-model organisms leading to the
239 successful production of several previously unknown secondary metabolites. Ultimately, the implementation
240 of multi-omics approaches that combine ecological insights with state-of-the-art computational and molecular
241 genomics developments will lead to deep understanding and more efficient exploitation of microbial specialized
242 metabolism.

243 Conflict of interest

244 None

245

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252

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