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Title:

**The extracellular metaproteome of soils under semiarid climate: a methodological comparison of extraction buffers**

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28 **The extracellular metaproteome of soils under semiarid climate: a**  
29 **methodological comparison of extraction buffers**

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33

34 **Abstract**

35 We compare the protein extraction efficiencies, as well as the phylogenetic and  
36 functional information provided, of two extraction protocols in soils that differ mainly in  
37 their organic matter and clay contents, the main factors limiting protein extraction in  
38 semiarid soils. These protocols utilise extractants commonly used for the assay of  
39 extracellular enzyme activities. The first method was based on the utilisation of the  
40 modified universal buffer (MUB). The second was based on the extraction of humic  
41 substances with sodium pyrophosphate. When compared to the total amount of  
42 proteins in soil, the results indicate a very-low extraction efficiency for both protocols.  
43 Analysis in an Orbitrap Fusion mass spectrometer and further searching against an “*ad*  
44 *hoc*” metagenome evidenced that the phylogenetic and functional information retrieved  
45 from the extracellular soil metaproteome can be biased by the extraction buffer.

46

47 *Keywords: extraction; functionality; protein diversity; extracellular proteins; soil*  
48 *metaproteomics*

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57 The direct identification of soil proteins may augment the information available about  
58 the activity and function of microbial populations, and their connection to soil  
59 ecosystem services (C and N cycles, gas fluxes, plant growth, etc.). In this respect, the  
60 development and accuracy of new mass spectrometers coupled to nano-HPLC  
61 systems, together with improved extraction methods and the implementation of  
62 genomic databases, have fostered recent soil metaproteomics studies [1-6] and have  
63 provided unprecedented insights into soil microbial ecology [7]. However, despite this  
64 progress, a major gap in soil metaproteomics is still the identification of extracellular  
65 proteins that are directly or indirectly related to ecosystem processes such as organic  
66 matter mineralisation and CO<sub>2</sub> efflux [7-8]. These extracellular proteins remain cryptic  
67 and hard to extract due to their physico-chemical interaction with organic matter and  
68 soil mineral particles [9]. An additional flaw in soil metaproteomics is that the yield of  
69 protein extraction is frequently not assessed properly. It is known that colorimetric and  
70 fluorometric reactions do not provide a reliable indication of protein content [10], while  
71 the quantification of amino acids released by acid hydrolysis is a straightforward  
72 approach to the quantification of the proteins extracted [3].

73 We hypothesised that extracellular proteins should be able to be identified in extracts  
74 that are commonly utilised to assay the extracellular enzyme activity, once the cells  
75 have been eliminated by filtering. The removal of the cellular fraction reduces the  
76 complexity of the metaproteome and may enhance the probability of extracellular  
77 protein identification. Here, we critically compare the protein extraction efficiencies, as  
78 well as the phylogenetic and functional information provided, of two extraction protocols  
79 used in soils developed under semiarid climate. .

80 Since the organic C and clay contents are factors that strongly influence the extraction  
81 and identification of proteins [9], we selected soil samples that varied greatly in these  
82 properties. Soil samples were collected in two natural semiarid areas in Southeastern  
83 Spain (Bastida et al. 2016 [6]; Table S1). The first is "Barranco de Gebas", a pre-

84 desertic, badland area developed on a marsh substrate. The soil type is Gypsic xerosol  
85 (FAO, 1998). Here, two soil samples were taken, at locations GEB (37°54'38"N;  
86 1°24'7"W) and GEP (37°54'15"N; 1°24'38"W): GEB had a low plant cover of 5%,  
87 composed mainly of *Rosmarinus officinalis*, and GEP had a plant cover of 40%,  
88 dominated by *Pinus halepensis* and *Stipa tenacissima*. The second area is "Sierra  
89 Espuña", a semiarid forest area. The soil of this area is classified as a Calcaric regosol  
90 (FAO, 1998). Two soil samples were taken in this area, both at locations with nearly  
91 100% plant cover: SE1 (37°51'25"N; 1°28'13"W) was dominated by *P. halepensis* and  
92 SE5 (37°52'4"N; 1°33'56"W) was dominated by *Quercus rotundifolia*.

93 Soil sampling was performed in May 2015, with three replicates (n=3) per sample. For  
94 each replicate, six soil sub-samples were taken at a depth of 0-20 cm, after removal of  
95 litter, and were mixed to obtain one composite sample per replicate. The samples were  
96 sieved (2 mm) and kept at 4°C for chemical and enzymatic analyses, and at -20°C for  
97 proteomic analyses.

98 The GEB and GEP samples had lower organic C concentrations (3.3 and 2.3 g 100 g<sup>-1</sup>,  
99 respectively) than the SE1 and SE5 samples (6.5 and 17.4 g 100 g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). The  
100 SE1 and SE5 samples contained lower percentages of clay (19.9 and 17.3 g 100 g<sup>-1</sup>,  
101 respectively) than the GEB and GEP samples (44.7 and 41.5 g 100 g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively)  
102 (Table S1). A biochemical and microbiological characterisation of the samples is  
103 available in the Supporting Information.

104

105 The total nitrogen (N) and total organic carbon (TOC) concentrations were determined  
106 using an Elemental Analyzer (C/N Flash EA 112 Series-Leco Truspec). Enzyme  
107 activities were analysed as described elsewhere [6] (Supporting Information; Table S1).  
108 The DNA from the soil samples taken in this study, together with that of other semiarid  
109 soils [6], was utilised for the preparation of a semiarid soil metagenome (Supporting  
110 Information).

111 Two protein extraction methods were selected. These methods utilise extractants  
112 commonly used for the assay of extracellular enzyme activities. The first extraction  
113 method was based on the utilisation of modified universal buffer (MUB), composed of  
114 tris (hydroxymethyl) aminomethane, maleic acid, citric acid, boric acid, NaOH, HCl and  
115 distilled water at pH 6.5 [11]. The second extraction protocol was based on the  
116 extraction of humic substances with 0.1 M sodium pyrophosphate, at pH 7.1 [12-13].  
117 Five grams of soil were mixed with 20 ml of extractant and shaken gently for 1 h. No  
118 detergents or ultrasonication were used. Afterwards, the soil suspensions were  
119 centrifuged for 15 min at 13000 rpm and 4°C. Each supernatant was filtered through a  
120 0.22-µm filter, to eliminate cells. In order to pellet the proteins, tri-chloro acetic acid  
121 (TCA) was added to the cell-free suspension, at a final concentration of 25%. The  
122 mixtures were incubated for 10 min at -18°C and then overnight at 4°C. Then, they  
123 were centrifuged for 10 min at 13000 rpm and 4°C. The protein-enriched pellets  
124 obtained were subjected to further purification [1,3]. One millilitre of chilled 100%  
125 acetone was added to the protein pellets, followed by sonication in a bath and  
126 incubation for 30 min at -18°C. Then, a purified protein pellet was obtained by  
127 repeating the centrifugation step; the supernatant was discarded. The acetone washing  
128 was then repeated. Finally, the protein pellets were dried in an oven at 25°C for 15 min  
129 and N-rich air was fluxed to the vials to avoid oxidation of amino acid residues.

130 The analysis of the amino acid contents in the protein pellets and bulk soils was  
131 initiated by acid hydrolysis with 6 N HCl, for 22 h at 110°C, using norleucine as  
132 standard. The amino acids were analysed in a Biochrom 30 series Amino Acid  
133 Analyser, based on continuous flow chromatography, following the manufacturer's  
134 indications.

135 Tryptic digestion of protein pellets, chromatographic separation of peptides and mass  
136 spectrometric analysis were performed as described in Bastida et al. (2016) [6] (see  
137 Supporting Information). The "PROteomics results Pruning & Homology group  
138 ANotation Engine" (PROPHANE) (<http://www.prophane.de>) was applied to assign

139 proteins to their phylogenetic and functional origins. The diversity of the active  
140 microbial community was calculated as the Shannon-Wiener index [14], based on  
141 NSAF values at the genus level. Proteins in the following categories were computed  
142 from the extracellular metaproteome: i) *Transporters* involved in the transport of  
143 carbohydrates, amino acids, peptides, phosphate and cyclic compounds; ii) proteins  
144 involved in redox and *ROS* reactions (catalases and superoxide dismutase, involved in  
145 the oxidation of soil organic matter); and iii) *Hydrolases* involved in the biodegradation  
146 of carbohydrates (cellobiohydrolase, pectate lyase), proteases, peptidases, lipases,  
147 etc. (Table 1; Table S2).

148 The normality and homogeneity of variance of the variables were tested by the  
149 Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Levene tests, respectively. In order to determine pairwise  
150 differences by *post-hoc* tests, the chemical indicators of the bulk soil were subjected to  
151 one-way ANOVA. The protein extraction efficiency and metaproteomic indicators  
152 (diversity, percentage of transporters, percentage of ROS and percentage of  
153 hydrolases) were subjected to a two-way ANOVA. The two factors included in this  
154 experimental design were soil sample and extraction buffer. Differences at  $P < 0.05$   
155 were regarded as statistically significant. The Shannon-Wiener index of diversity was  
156 calculated for the diversity of the microbial community based on the taxonomic analysis  
157 of proteins at the genus level. The structure of the microbial community was analysed  
158 by principal component analysis with the relative abundances at the order level.  
159 PERMANOVA was applied to test the significance of the analysed factors with regard  
160 to the structure of the microbial communities. SPSS v22.0 and R software v.3.1.3 were  
161 used for the statistics.

162

163 The protein concentrations of the GEB and GEP bulk soil samples were similar (Table  
164 S1), while that of SE1 ( $8.3 \pm 1.3$  mg protein  $g^{-1}$  soil) was higher than that of GEB ( $4.2 \pm$   
165  $0.7$  mg protein  $g^{-1}$  soil) and GEP ( $4.4 \pm 0.7$  mg protein  $g^{-1}$  soil). The protein  
166 concentration was highest in soil SE5 ( $16.7 \pm 4.3$  mg protein  $g^{-1}$  soil).

167 To estimate the yield of the protein extraction, the amino acids in the extracted pellets  
 168 were expressed as a percentage (%) of the total amino acid content of the bulk soil  
 169 samples. The extraction efficiency was influenced by both soil sample and extraction  
 170 buffer (Table 1). The protein extraction yield and protein content in the pellets were 10-  
 171 times higher when proteins were extracted with sodium pyrophosphate, relative to  
 172 MUB. The extraction yield was always highest for SE1 and reached a maximum of  
 173 0.28% of the total protein content in bulk soil when sodium pyrophosphate was used as  
 174 the extractant. The total protein content of the pellets was highest for SE5, in  
 175 agreement with the higher protein content of this soil sample.

176 Differences in the relative abundance of microbial orders were observed (Fig. 1A,  
 177 Supporting Information). The PERMANOVA revealed significant effects of both soil  
 178 sample and extraction buffer on the diversity and structure of the microbial community  
 179 ( $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 1B; Table 1). The diversity of proteins extracted with MUB was higher  
 180 than that extracted with sodium pyrophosphate, for each sample. The protein diversity  
 181 was lowest in GEB, for both extraction methods (Table 1).

182  
 183

184 **Table 1.** Protein extraction efficiency, protein diversity and functional protein groups

	GEB		GEP		SE1		SE5		ANOVA		
	Mean	Sd	Mean	Sd	Mean	Sd	Mean	Sd	F	P value	
<b>% Protein extraction</b>									S	11.05	0.003
MUB	<b>0.013</b>	0.004	<b>0.013</b>	0.001	<b>0.020</b>	0.001	<b>0.008</b>	0.001	E	223.50	*
PYR	<b>0.10</b>	0.015	<b>0.17</b>	0.007	<b>0.28</b>	0.060	<b>0.18</b>	0.017	SxE	9.34	0.005
<b>µg prot extr g<sup>-1</sup> soil</b>									S	40.68	*
MUB	<b>0.53</b>	0.18	<b>0.58</b>	0.03	<b>1.66</b>	0.11	<b>1.36</b>	0.19	E	227.94	*
PYR	<b>4.22</b>	0.64	<b>7.64</b>	0.29	<b>22.92</b>	4.92	<b>30.48</b>	2.86	SxE	35.03	*
<b>Diversity</b>									S	56.31	*
MUB	<b>2.37</b>	0.07	<b>3.48</b>	0.26	<b>3.53</b>	0.06	<b>3.74</b>	0.04	E	162.38	*
PYR	<b>1.87</b>	0.03	<b>2.54</b>	0.11	<b>2.82</b>	0.11	<b>2.52</b>	0.33	SxE	5.28	0.01
<b>% Transporters</b>									S	15.81	*
MUB	<b>7.77</b>	1.07	<b>20.74</b>	3.51	<b>16.57</b>	4.75	<b>19.41</b>	1.64	E	93.45	*
PYR	<b>5.22</b>	2.19	<b>9.16</b>	2.69	<b>1.15</b>	0.33	<b>9.01</b>	0.65	SxE	6.83	0.044
<b>% ROS<sup>I</sup></b>									S	29.31	*
MUB	<b>5.06</b>	1.35	<b>1.22</b>	0.48	<b>2.02</b>	0.70	<b>1.20</b>	0.42	E	2.26	<b>0.15</b>
PYR	<b>4.44</b>	1.03	<b>2.82</b>	0.07	<b>4.18</b>	1.11	<b>0.00</b>	0.00	SxE	6.47	0.04
<b>% Hydrolases</b>									S	4.67	0.016
MUB	<b>2.45</b>	0.18	<b>4.76</b>	0.94	<b>3.02</b>	0.89	<b>2.00</b>	0.57	E	31.74	*
PYR	<b>5.86</b>	1.36	<b>4.69</b>	1.31	<b>9.60</b>	2.70	<b>4.85</b>	0.97	SxE	5.79	0.007

185 S (soil sample), E (extractant). MUB (Modified Universal Buffer); PYR (sodium  
186 pyrophosphate pH 7, 0.1 M); F (F ratio); Sd (standard deviation of the mean); \*  
187 indicates  $P < 0.001$

188 The relative abundance of transporters and hydrolases was significantly influenced by  
189 both soil sample and extraction buffer (Table 1). The relative abundance of transporters  
190 was higher in GEP and SE5, the samples with the highest organic C concentrations in  
191 each area (Table 1; Table S2). Indeed, the relative abundance of transporters reached  
192 20% of the proteins in the exo-metaproteome when MUB was used as the extractant.  
193 In contrast, the abundance of transporters peaked at 9% when proteins were extracted  
194 with sodium pyrophosphate, but again the abundance was higher in GEP and SE5.

195

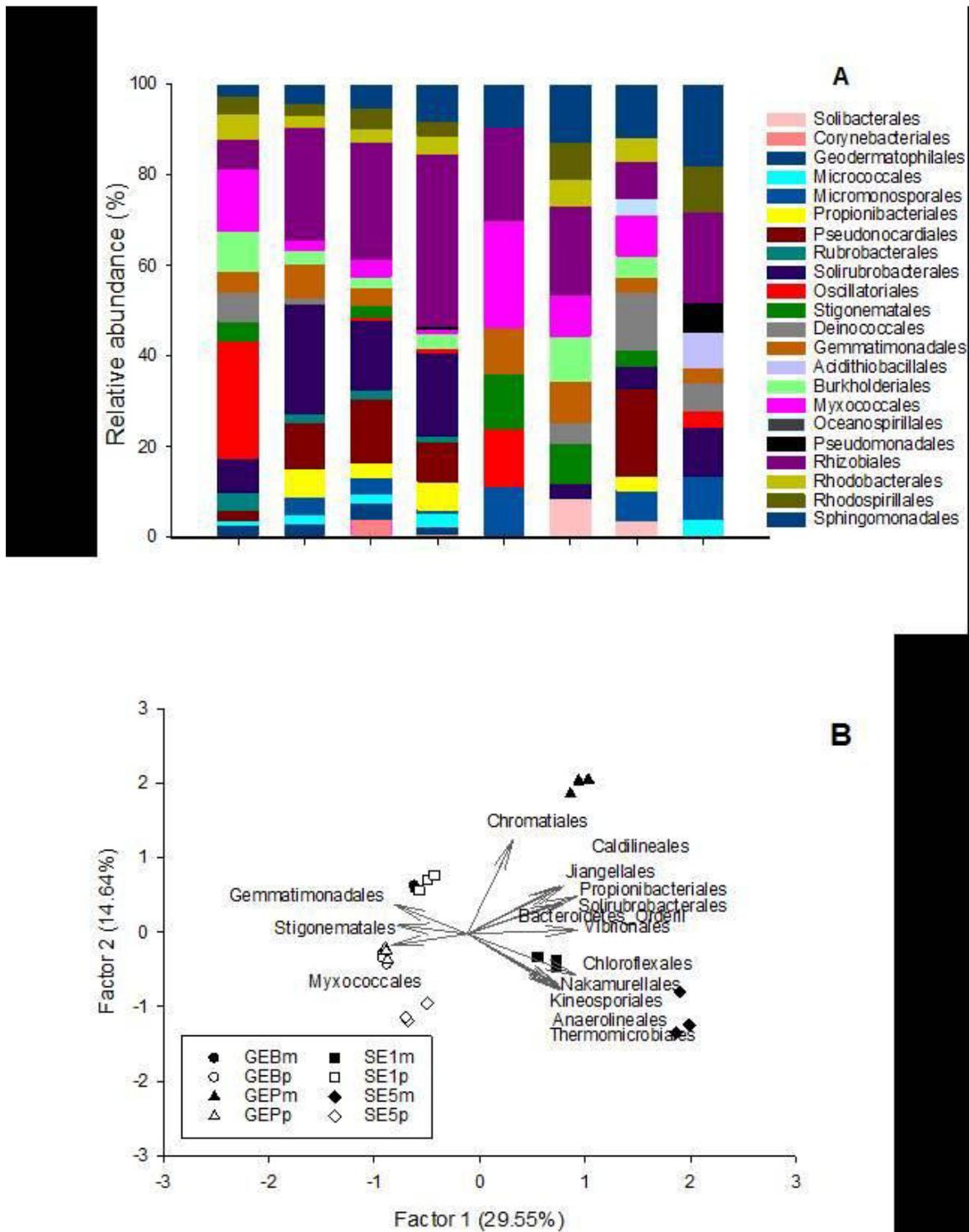
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202 **Figure 1.** The relative abundance of bacterial orders (A) and the principal component  
 203 analysis representing the structure of the microbial community (B), estimated by  
 204 protein-based phylogeny.

205

206 The abundance of proteins involved in ROS transformation was higher in the  
207 pyrophosphate extracts. For both MUB and pyrophosphate, GEB always contained the  
208 highest abundance of proteins involved in ROS transformation. The abundance of  
209 hydrolases was doubled when pyrophosphate was used as the extractant, in  
210 comparison to MUB. The abundance of hydrolases was highest when SE1 was  
211 extracted with pyrophosphate, reaching 9% of the total extracellular metaproteome  
212 (Table 1).

213

214 The percentage of the total soil N present in the microbial biomass averages 4% [15];  
215 hence, 96% of the total N in soil should be extracellular. Considering that a great  
216 majority (95%) of N occurs in the form of organic N compounds and only about 5% is  
217 mineral N [16], and even though N-forms other than proteinaceous N can occur in the  
218 soil extracellular environment (i.e. nucleic acids, amino sugars) [17], our results  
219 indicate a very-low efficiency of the two protein extraction methods, based on common  
220 soil enzyme buffers, used here for extracellular proteins. Indeed, the methods assayed  
221 did not extract even 0.3% of the total protein content. The protein extraction gave a low  
222 yield, both in soil samples with a high organic carbon content (SE1 and SE5) and in  
223 samples with a high clay content but a low organic C content (GEB and GEP),  
224 suggesting that both factors limit the extraction of extracellular proteins from soil. In this  
225 respect, Arenella et al. (2014) [18] indicated that the interaction between proteins and  
226 soil humic substances affects protein identification through decreases in the protein  
227 sequence coverage and in the number of proteins identified after tryptic digestion in  
228 soil-protein-based models. Moreover, clay minerals can interact with proteins released  
229 by cells and this interaction limits also the potential for soil proteomics [19-20].

230 The extraction with sodium pyrophosphate yielded a higher (at least 10-times) amount  
231 of extracted proteins than that with MUB. Sodium pyrophosphate has been used  
232 frequently to evaluate the activity of enzymes immobilised in soil humic substances.  
233 Indeed, several studies have demonstrated the activity of hydrolytic enzymes involved

234 in the cycles of C, N and P in extracellular humic-complexes [13, 21-22]. These  
235 proteins are stabilised in humic substances, protected against denaturing agents (i.e.  
236 other proteases, temperature and moisture shocks), and may persist in soil even after  
237 cell death. Precisely, the amount of proteins per g of soil was higher in SE1 and SE5,  
238 which also contained higher amounts of soil organic matter and humic substances [6].  
239 Interestingly, the diversity of proteins extracted with sodium pyrophosphate was lower  
240 than with MUB. However, sodium pyrophosphate extraction indicated a higher amount  
241 of extracellular hydrolases than MUB extraction. In contrast, the abundance of proteins  
242 involved in the transport of sugars, phosphate and peptides (Table 1, Table S2) was  
243 higher in MUB extracts, which seems logical considering that this buffer probably  
244 extracts a more-soluble and dynamic fraction. Similarly, Johnson-Rollings et al. (2014)  
245 [23] found a high amount of transport proteins involved in phosphate and amino acid  
246 uptake. These authors utilised an extraction procedure based on  $K_2SO_4$  but with an  
247 amount of soil much greater than that utilised here.

248 We have evidenced that the phylogenetic and functional information retrieved from the  
249 extracellular metaproteome can be biased by the extraction buffer. Indeed, the  
250 structure of the microbial community determined according to the extracellular proteins  
251 obtained with sodium pyrophosphate was different from the one based on the MUB  
252 extracts. The extraction of extracellular soil proteins was very limited. The soil sample,  
253 probably through its clay, organic matter and microbial biomass contents, and the  
254 extraction buffer seem to play a key role in determining the protein extraction yield of  
255 semiarid soils. Regardless of the soil characteristics, sodium pyrophosphate extracted  
256 a higher amount of extracellular soil proteins than MUB and, consequently, it could be  
257 potentially utilized for the study of the extracellular soil metaproteome. Nevertheless,  
258 further studies are needed to enhance the yield of extraction and/or combine different  
259 extraction methods. This will improve our understanding of microbial functionality and  
260 its connections to soil functions.

261

262 **Conflict of interest**

263 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

264 **References**

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330

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337

338 **Figure Captions**

339 **Figure 1.** The relative abundance of bacterial orders (A) and the principal component  
340 analysis representing the structure of the microbial community (B), estimated by  
341 protein-based phylogeny.

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