

## Functional Genes Profile of Atmospheric Dust in the East Mediterranean Suggests Widespread Anthropogenic Influence on Aerobiome Composition

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### Key Points:

- Atmospheric particles collected in Israel and in Saudi Arabia show resemblance in their bacterial composition and functional genes profile
- Airborne microorganisms show greater abundance of biodegradation genes than soils, sea and leaves
- Functional genes profile suggests anthropogenic impact on the atmospheric microbiome by way of pollution-associated bacteria

### Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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**Abstract** The microbiome of atmospheric dust events has raised increasing interest in the last decade, resulting in numerous studies that characterized the different parameters affecting the composition of the atmospheric microbiome, that is, the aerobiome. However, less is known about the functional profile of the aerobiome and how it compares with other environments. Here, we describe the results of shotgun metagenome analysis conducted on a representative set of particulate matter (PM) samples taken in Israel under dusty and nondusty conditions. We compared the functional profiles of these samples to local metagenomes collected from soils, sea, and leaf surfaces and to PM collected in Saudi Arabia, in order to link between the sampled aerosols and potential sources that contribute to the aerobiome. We found that PM samples collected in Israel most resembled Saudi Arabian dust and Israeli soils in both community composition and functional genes profile. In addition, we found significant differences in the abundances of genes associated with anthropogenic activity. Specifically, the examined dust exhibited a significantly higher abundance of genes associated with the biodegradation of organic contaminants, mostly benzoate and aminobenzoate, compared with all other examined environments. These preliminary results suggest that an anthropogenic impact on the aerobiome composition and functional profile is widespread, and pave the path to understanding the role of dust storms in disseminating microorganisms in various environments, spreading various traits, and affecting humans, livestock, plants, and ecosystem health.

**Plain Language Summary** Microscopic particles such as dust and microorganisms are carried by winds and can travel great distances, crossing oceans and continents. The sources of airborne bacteria include soils, water bodies, plants, landfills, and livestock farms, among others. Different bacterial functions are associated with these different environments. Thus, examining the functional genes of airborne bacteria and comparing them to the surrounding environments can provide knowledge on the possible sources of the airborne bacteria and their potential functioning upon deposition. We compared the functional genes profile of atmospheric particles collected in Israel to those found in the surrounding seas, soils, leaf surfaces, and to dust collected in Saudi Arabia. We found that dust collected in Israel most resembled dust collected in Saudi Arabia, ~1,000 km away. We also identified bacteria and functional genes that were more abundant in Israeli and Saudi Arabian dust than in the examined environments. These included genes that allow the degradation of contaminants. These functional genes are usually found in association with human activity. We suggest that their presence in atmospheric particles collected in two distant locations indicates another aspect of human influence on the atmosphere that has to be further explored.

## 1. Introduction

For the past decade, data on global airborne microbial communities have been slowly accumulating (Bowers et al., 2011, 2013; Delort et al., 2010; Griffin, 2007; Kutra et al., 2014; Lang-Yona et al., 2022; Mazar et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2013). A significant effort was invested in studying the taxonomic profiles of the atmospheric microbiome, that is, the aerobiome, by applying Next-Generation sequencing to atmospheric particulate matter (PM) samples. Low atmospheric DNA quantities have limited these efforts mainly to amplicon sequencing of a taxonomic proxy, such as the gene encoding the ribosome's small subunit (SSU), that is, 16S rRNA and 18S rRNA for prokaryotes and eukaryotes, respectively. This approach provided an important insight into the

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microbial community structure and composition. It also offered some hints about the possible functionality of these microorganisms.

Fewer studies on the aerobiome have collected sufficient material to obtain the DNA concentrations required for metagenomic and metatranscriptomic sequencing. These studies explored different anthropogenic environments, such as farms and cities (Be et al., 2014; Cao et al., 2014; Tringe et al., 2008; Yooseph et al., 2013), natural environments in various geographic locations (Tignat-Perrier, Dommergue, Thollot, Magand, Vogel, et al., 2020), and different aerosol types, for example, cloud-condensation droplets (Amato et al., 2019) and atmospheric dust (Aalismaïl et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2021). The studies provided preliminary insights into the aerobiome's potential functions. Both studies by Aalismaïl et al. (2019) and Tignat-Perrier, Dommergue, Thollot, Magand, Vogel, et al. (2020) attempted to determine the potential survival of airborne microorganisms by looking at the abundance of specific functional genes that would render microorganisms adapted to atmospheric transport; these functions included resistance to UV radiation, oxidative stress, and sporulation. These genes were found in all air samples described in these studies yet were not always significantly more abundant in the aerobiome than in other microbiomes (Tignat-Perrier, Dommergue, Thollot, Magand, Vogel, et al., 2020). Once deposited, airborne bacteria were suggested to affect the functioning of local microbiomes (Rahav et al., 2020; Rahav, Ovidia, et al., 2016; Rahav, Paytan, et al., 2016) or affect local biota through the introduction of pathogens (Gonzalez-Martin et al., 2014; Maldonado-Ramirez et al., 2005; Prussin et al., 2015; Sharoni et al., 2015). However, studies describing these phenomena remain scarce.

Dust storms are a significant vector of microbial transport in the atmosphere, including the transport of potential plant and human pathogens (Griffin, 2007; Schmale & Ross, 2015). In the Eastern Mediterranean, the composition of microbial communities carried by dust differs from those found under no-dust conditions, with significant differences between the different dust sources, such as the Sahara desert and the Arabian Peninsula (Gat et al., 2017; Mazar et al., 2016). It was also shown that dust storms were characterized by an increased presence of soil bacteria and extremophiles (Gat et al., 2017; Mazar et al., 2016).

Israel is situated in the Eastern Mediterranean, at a crossroads of air masses from the Sahara, Arabian, and the Syrian deserts (Lelieveld et al., 2002). As such, it experiences dust plumes originating from all these sources. Its atmosphere exhibits a relatively high daily average loading of particulate matter under an aerodynamic diameter of 10  $\mu\text{m}$  ( $\text{PM}_{10}$ ), averaging approximately 30–50  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  and comprised of mineral dust (Krasnov et al., 2016), resulting in diverse dust-borne microbiome communities (Gat et al., 2017; Katra et al., 2014). This constant contribution of allochthonous microorganisms from the surrounding deserts into Israel's soils and the marine environment is interesting, especially if the imported microorganisms exhibit functions not commonly found in the local microbiomes. The rising frequency and intensity of dust events in the Eastern Mediterranean increase the imported microorganisms' chances of affecting the composition and function of local microbiomes.

To better define the differences in functional genes' profiles between dust and destination environments, that is, soils, the phyllosphere, and the sea, a comprehensive comparison of metagenomes was conducted. We applied shotgun metagenome sequencing to atmospheric  $\text{PM}_{10}$  sampled in Israel under different atmospheric  $\text{PM}_{10}$  concentrations and wind trajectories, representing various dust intensities and sources. These samples were compared to publicly available data sets of Israeli soils, the Mediterranean and the Red Seas, leaf surfaces of Athel trees (*Tamarix aphylla*) in Israel, and dust samples collected in Saudi Arabia. We compared the microbial community compositions and the functional genes profiles to find genes significantly more abundant in dust, thus providing the first clues for determining the possible effect of dust-admitted microorganisms on local microbiomes.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1. $\text{PM}_{10}$ Sampling

Particulate matter was collected on the roof of a four-story building at the Weizmann Institute campus in Israel (31.9070°N, 34.8102°E) using a high-volume sampler (Ecotech, model: HiVol 3000,  $\text{PM}_{10}$  inlet, flow rate: 67.8  $\text{m}^3 \text{h}^{-1}$ ) onto prebaked quartz fiber filters (Whatman, 203  $\times$  254 mm) for 6–48 hr at a time, depending on the load of particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter under 10  $\mu\text{m}$  ( $\text{PM}_{10}$ ). The filters were then wrapped in sterile aluminum foil and kept at  $-20^\circ\text{C}$  until DNA was extracted. The samples are described in Table 1. The source of each sample was determined using the hybrid single-particle Lagrangian integrated trajectory model (HYSPLIT) via a web-based interface (READY, [http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT\\_traj.php](http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT_traj.php)). The dust sources

**Table 1**  
*Dust Samples Collected in Israel*

Sample	DNA concentration (pg $\mu\text{L}^{-1}$ )	Source	Sampling date	PM <sub>10</sub> ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	Total air volume sampled (m <sup>3</sup> )	Sampling duration (hr)
<i>Dust_2</i>	3,390	Local	18 July 2016	33	3,254	48
		North Africa	6 June 2016	35	3,254	48
		North Africa	15 August 2016	35	1,627	24
		Mix	31 August 2016	37	3,254	48
		Arabia	26 August 2016	40	2,983	44
<i>Dust_3</i>	1,390	North Africa	17 January 2017	75	3,254	48
		North Africa	9 May 2017	84	1,627	24
		North Africa	7 January 2017	96	3,254	48
		North Africa	20 November 2016	109	1,627	24
<i>Dust_4</i>	5,770	Mix (North Africa and Arabia)	25 November 2016	121	1,627	24
		North Africa	9 January 2017	144	3,254	48
		North Africa	12 March 2017	150	1,898	28
		Mix (North Africa and Arabia)	24 November 2016	186	3,254	48
<i>Dust_5</i>	3,270	North Africa	28 February 2016	209	2,034	30
		Mix (Sinai Peninsula and Jordan)	23 November 2016	232	1,424	21
		North Africa	12 April 2017	118	3,254	48
<i>Dust_6</i>	7,130	Syria	8 September 2015	844	949	14
<i>Dust_7</i>	10,200	Syria	9 September 2015	1859	983	14.5
<i>Dust_8</i>	3,490	Syria	10 September 2015	928	1,305	19.25
<i>Dust_9</i>	10,500	Arabia	3 November 2015	422	1,627	24
<i>Dust_10</i>	10,200	Arabia	4 November 2015	810	1,627	24

Note. Samples *Dust\_2* to *Dust\_5* were obtained by pooling DNA from several sampling events (after Peng et al. (2021)).

were also verified using the Giovanni online data system, developed and maintained by the NASA GES DISC (Acker & Leptoukh, 2007). Back trajectories for all sampling events detailed in Table 1 are presented in Table S1 in Supporting Information S1.

## 2.2. DNA Extraction

DNA was extracted using a DNA PowerSoil Kit (Qiagen, Germany), with modifications to the manufacturer's protocol as follows: four strips, 30 cm<sup>2</sup> each, were cut from each filter using a surgical scalpel, and the upper layer of each strip was scratched off and inserted into a single PowerSoil bead tube, to which 250  $\mu\text{L}$  of PBS and 150  $\mu\text{L}$  of a phenol:chloroform:isoamyl solution (ratio 25:24:1) were added. Next, the tubes were shaken in a Mini-Beadbeater-16 (Biospec, USA) for 2 min, removed and placed on ice for 15 s, and then shaken for an additional 2 min. Extraction continued according to the protocol up to the membrane-binding step. In this step, the contents of the four tubes were loaded onto two spin filter tubes. Next, the samples were washed twice with a C5 solution to rid the DNA of all traces of phenol and chloroform. Elution was conducted by loading 50  $\mu\text{L}$  of solution C6 on one tube, leaving it for 5 min at room temperature, centrifuging for 1 min at 16,000 $\times$  g, loading the eluent onto the second spin filter and repeating the described elution step. A blank filter used as a negative control was processed along with the samples.

Following extraction, samples with similar characteristics (PM<sub>10</sub> concentration and source according to back-trajectories and satellite images) were pooled together (see Table 1), and DNA was precipitated using 100% ethanol and a 5 M NaCl solution. The precipitated DNA was resuspended in 25  $\mu\text{L}$  of TE buffer. We thus created a set of nine samples, five representing two major dust events originating in Syria and in the Arabian Desert, three composite samples representing minor to moderate dust events from the Sahara, Sinai, and Jordanian deserts, and

**Table 2**

*Metagenomes Used for Comparison With the Dust Collected in This Study*

Metagenome data set	Description	Environment type	Reference and accession no.
<i>Dust IL</i>	Nine dust samples, Weizmann Institute, Israel	Dust	This study, mgp87645
<i>Dust Red Sea</i>	Eight dust samples, Red Sea, off the shore of Saudi Arabia	Dust	ENA, PRJEB31563 (Aalismail et al., 2019)
<i>IL Soils</i>	Twelve soil samples, different locations in Israel	Soil	mgp14608 (Tripathi et al., 2017)
<i>Negev Soils</i>	Five soil crust samples from the Negev desert, Israel	Soil	ENA, PRJEB36534 (Meier et al., 2021)
<i>Red Sea</i>	Four Red Sea water samples, different locations	Sea	mgp20413 (Sunagawa et al., 2015)
<i>Med Sea</i>	Six Mediterranean Sea water samples, different locations	Sea	mgp20252 (Kopf et al., 2015)
<i>Leaves</i>	Five samples of leaf-surface microbiome of <i>Tamarix aphylla</i> , from different locations in Israel	Leaf surface	mgp5802 (Finkel et al., 2016)

a single composite sample representing days with low PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations. The pooling of samples was necessary due to low DNA yields.

### 2.3. Shotgun Metagenome Sequencing

Sequencing was conducted at the Genome Research Core of the University of Illinois, Chicago, as follows: DNA quantity and quality were assessed using a High Sensitivity D1000 ScreenTape (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA); results are presented in Table 1. Blank control showed no DNA presence and was therefore omitted from further processing. After acoustic shearing, library preparation was performed using Accel-NGS 1S Kit (Swift Biosciences, Anne Arbor, MI, USA). The libraries were pooled, followed by Pippin-prep (Sage Science, Beverly, MA, USA) size selection (375–425 bp insert size). MiniSeq Q/C was performed to ensure an even distribution of sequencing output. The samples were repooled, followed by repeating the Pippin-prep size selection. The samples were subsequently sequenced by a HiSeq2500 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) with 2 × 250 cycles using a single lane.

### 2.4. Metagenome Data Set Composition and Analysis

Following sequencing, adaptors and low-quality bases were removed from the raw reads using cutadapt v1.1 (Martin, 2011), reads shorter than 25 bases were removed. The trimmed reads were assembled independently using IDBA\_UD (Peng et al., 2012), parameters set to default, contigs under 1,000 bases were discarded. We compared our PM<sub>10</sub> samples to publicly available metagenomes representing Israeli soils, the Mediterranean and the Red Seas, and leaf surfaces of *Tamarix aphylla* collected at various locations in Israel, as well as to PM<sub>10</sub> samples collected in Saudi Arabia, at the coast of the Red Sea. All data sets and environment types are described in Table 2. Raw and assembled reads of all described data sets were uploaded to the MG-RAST metagenomics analysis server (Keegan et al., 2016) and analyzed using the default parameters for shotgun metagenomic sequencing, for both taxonomy and functional genes annotation. Taxonomic data were acquired by comparison to the RefSeq database (NCBI (Brister et al., 2015; O'Leary et al., 2016; Tatusova et al., 2016)), and functional genes were annotated against the KO database (KEGG, Kanehisa & Goto, 2000; Minoru Kanehisa, 2019; Minoru Kanehisa et al., 2019), both available on the MG-RAST server. Taxonomic data were filtered to exclude multicellular organisms and viruses. Functional annotation data were filtered to exclude organismal systems and human disease categories. To account for possible contamination in samples with low DNA concentrations, we excluded all genera listed in Glassing et al. (2016) from the taxonomic analysis as suspected contaminants originating in DNA extraction kits and protocols. However, for functional genes, no such list was available; we thus assumed that PM<sub>10</sub> samples collected under low atmospheric concentrations are more likely to be affected by such contamination. Accordingly, we correlated functional genes in Israeli Dust samples to PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations. All genes that negatively correlated to PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations were excluded from further analysis over the entire data set. Comparing PCA analysis of filtered taxa and gene lists with unfiltered lists revealed no differences between results; thus, all results presented were based on the filtered data sets.

Statistical analysis was conducted using R v.4.0.3 (R Core Team, 2020) and the R packages Vegan (Oksanen et al., 2007), tidyverse (Robinson et al., 2020), ggpubr (Kassambara, 2020), and ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016). To reduce matrix sparsity, we filtered out species and genes with a maximal count of 10 or lower per sample and a total of 30 or lower over the entire data set. To account for the compositionality of the data (Gloor et al., 2017; Gloor, Wu, et al., 2016; Quinn et al., 2018), taxa counts at the species level and gene counts were additive log-ratio transformed (alr, Greenacre et al., 2021) using the Compositions package (van den Boogaart, 2020) after handling zero counts by Geometric Bayesian multiplicative transformation, using the zCompositions package (Palarea-Albaladejo & Martín-Fernández, 2015). As a reference for alr-transformation, we used the counts of the *asd* (aspartate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase, EC: 1.2.1.11, K00133) gene, known as a universal single-copy gene with a mean length of ~1kb (Manor & Borenstein, 2015). Thus, alr-transformation also served as a normalization, allowing comparison between the different data sets (Quinn et al., 2019).

To identify differentially abundant genes and taxa, we applied the ALDEx2 package, using an interquartile log-ratio correction to account for a slight asymmetry between the data sets (Fernandes et al., 2013, 2014; Gloor, Macklaim, & Fernandes, 2016). Significance was defined as an absolute effect size greater than 1 and a Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted *p* value under 0.05 in both Welch's *t* test and Wilcoxon nonparametric test.

PCA, AMOVA, and PERMANOVA analyses were based on Euclidean distances. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) (Excoffier et al., 1992) was conducted using the *amova* command in *mothur* v.1.45.3 (Schloss et al., 2009); NMDS ordinations were created in *mothur*, and were based on Bray-Curtis distances, calculated by repeated subsampling using Vegan package function *avg.dist()*; fitting of functional categories, taxa and PCA or NMDS axes were conducted using the *corr.axes* command in *mothur* with the method set to Spearman, all features presented in PCA and NMDS represent vectors with a relative length of over 80% and a *p* value under 0.05 for either one of the relevant ordination axes.

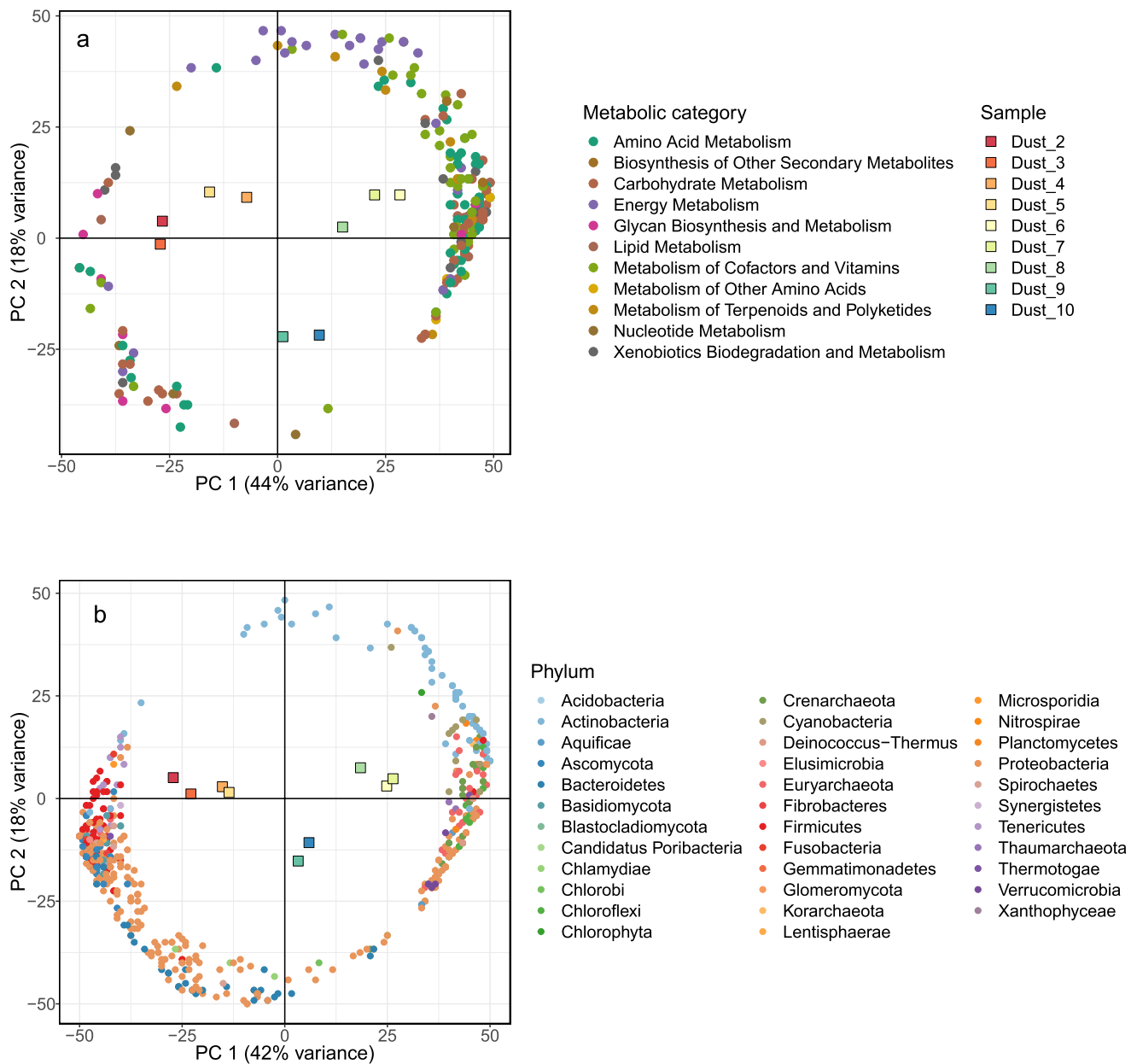
To assess the source apportionment of each environmental microbiome to the aerobiome we applied SourceTracker (Knights et al., 2011), using a biome file created by *mothur* based on unnormalized taxa count-tables, all parameters were set to default.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Israeli Dust Community Composition and Functional Genes Profile

A biplot of principal component analysis (PCA) and significantly correlated functional genes and taxa in the *Dust\_IL* samples is presented in Figure 1. Both PCAs showed a similar tendency to form three clusters: samples with low to medium PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations, that is, *Dust\_2* to *Dust\_5*; Syrian dust storm *Dust\_6* to *Dust\_8*; and Arabian dust storm *Dust\_9* and *Dust\_10*. The similarity in clustering between community composition and functional gene profiles corroborates our previously raised hypothesis that differences in community composition between different dust sources suggest different functional gene profiles (Gat et al., 2017). Correlating KEGG annotations of metabolic activities to the PCA axes showed that more genes associated with metabolic activities correlated with the two sampled dust storms than with low PM<sub>10</sub> samples, 185 versus Fifty-four genes, respectively. This is expected since we manually removed many functional genes that correlated with decreasing PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations. The distribution of the different metabolic categories was generally similar for both dust storms and low PM<sub>10</sub>, with the most of the genes related to amino acid metabolism (28% and 26%, respectively), followed by carbohydrate metabolism (21% and 22%, respectively). Yet, the metabolism of cofactors and vitamins was more dominant in genes associated with the Syrian dust storm than with low PM<sub>10</sub> (18 versus 7%, respectively).

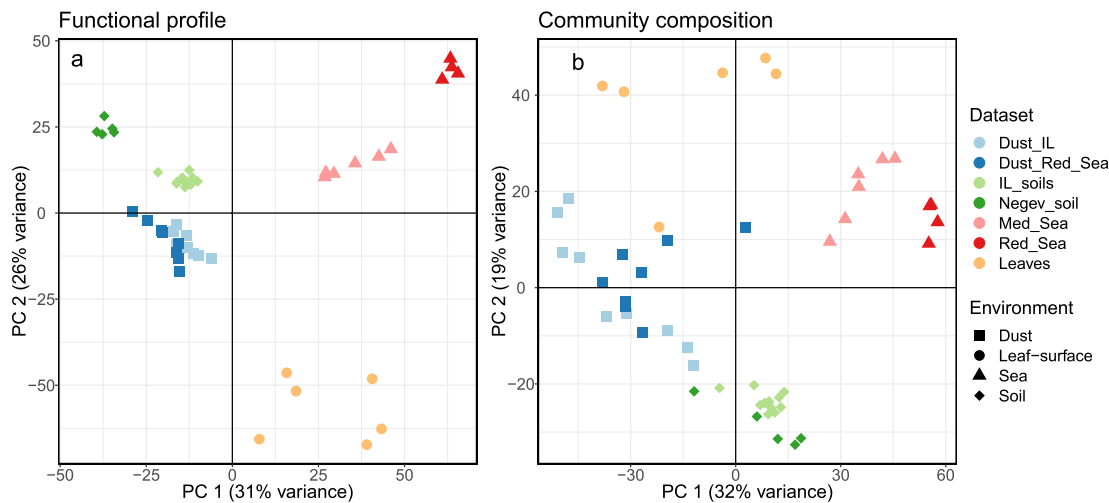
According to our results, mixed-source samples *Dust\_2* to *Dust\_5*, which represent lower PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations and are primarily from western and southern trajectories, were associated with a higher abundance of Proteobacteria (gamma) and Firmicutes, along with the fungal phyla, Ascomycota and Basidiomycota. Dust samples collected in storms from the Syrian and Arabian deserts were primarily associated with Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria (alpha and delta), and the Archean phylum Euryarchaeota. Applying NMDS ordination on Bray-Curtis distances for the same data set produced similar results (Figure S2 in Supporting Information S1). These results are in agreement with Gat et al. (2017, 2021).



**Figure 1.** PCA biplot of PM<sub>10</sub> samples collected in this study, based on their functional genes profile (a) and on their taxonomic composition (b).

### 3.2. Comparing PM<sub>10</sub> Samples to Their Surrounding Environments

PM<sub>10</sub> samples collected in Israel were compared to publicly available metagenomes collected from the Mediterranean and Red Seas, soils across Israel, leaf surfaces across Israel, and PM<sub>10</sub> sampled in Saudi Arabia on the Red Sea shore (Table 1). Figure 2 shows principal component analyses of all data sets based on functional genes profile and community composition. In general, samples representing similar environments, for example, seas or soils, were clustered more closely, with the differences between data sets more pronounced in the functional profile than in the community composition. According to AMOVA tests, the community compositions and functional profiles of all examined environments significantly differed (Bonferroni pair-wise error rate under 0.001; Table S2 in Supporting Information S1). When reviewing the pair-wise differences between *Dust\_IL* and the different data sets, all data sets' communities, except for *Dust\_Red\_Sea*, significantly differed from *Dust\_IL* (Bonferroni pair-wise error rate over 0.001; Table S3 in Supporting Information S1), and all functional genes

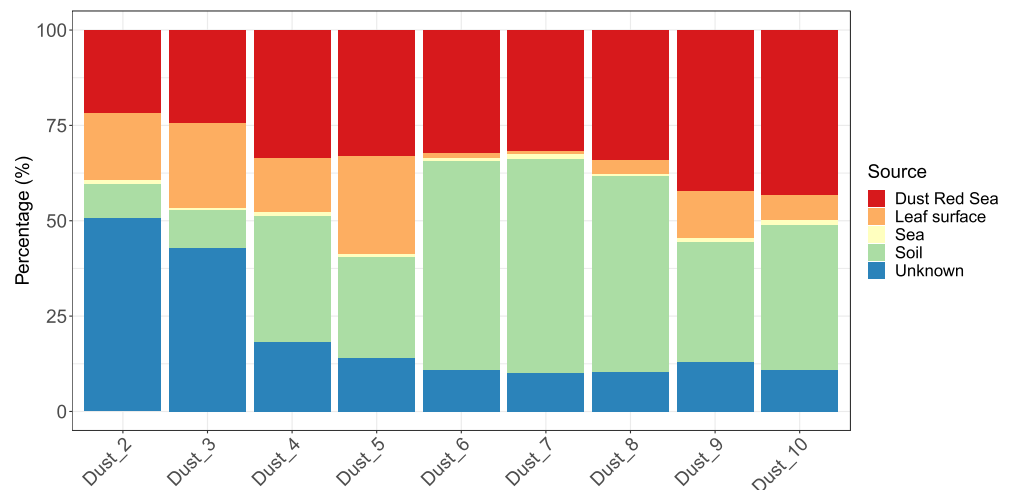


**Figure 2.** PCA of samples representing dust, leaf surfaces, sea, and soil, based on functional genes profile (a), and microbial community composition (b).

profiles differed from *Dust\_IL* without exception (Bonferroni pair-wise error rate under 0.001; Table S3 in Supporting Information S1).

A PERMANOVA analysis confirmed these results, with significant differences between samples from the different environments and different studies ( $p = 0.001$ ); in the functional profile, 49.5% of the variance was attributed to the environment and 27.3% to the different data sets, compared with 31.8% and 15.0%, respectively, in the community composition. Since the different studies sampled different locations and varied in their sampling procedures, DNA extraction, and sequencing methods, differences are expected.

We also looked for the potential contribution of each environment's community composition to the  $PM_{10}$  sampled in Israel by applying the SourceTracker algorithm to the taxonomic data set. The results are displayed in Figure 3. According to the results, Israeli soils, comprised of *IL\_soils* and *Negev\_soil*, and *Dust\_Red\_Sea* showed the largest potential contribution to *Dust\_IL* samples, with a mean contribution of  $34 \pm 17\%$  and  $33 \pm 7\%$ , for soils and *Red\_Sea\_Dust*, respectively, followed by unknown sources (average of  $20 \pm 14\%$ ), leaf surface (average  $11 \pm 8\%$ ), and the sea (average  $0.9 \pm 0.3\%$ ). A  $PM_{10}$  increase in the Israeli data set was accompanied by an increase in the relative contribution of soils' microbiome to the community composition, for example,  $\sim 54\%$  in all samples of the Syrian dust storm (*Dust\_6* to *Dust\_8*). The Arabian dust storm samples, *Dust\_9* and *Dust\_10*, were most influenced by *Dust\_Red\_Sea* ( $\sim 43\%$ ), dust samples collected in Saudi Arabia. The relative contribution of



**Figure 3.** Putative contribution of the different environments to the *Dust\_IL* microbiome, based on SourceTracker analysis. Samples *Dust\_6* to *Dust\_10* represent consecutive days on two major dust events.

the Mediterranean and Red Sea microbiomes to *Dust\_IL* was generally very low, with a max of 1.3% contribution to *Dust\_10*. Leaf surfaces were previously suggested as possible contributors to the aerobiome (Šantl-Temkiv et al., 2022; Tignat-Perrier et al., 2019). We found that the leaf surfaces most resembled the samples representing southern and western trajectories (*Dust\_2* to *Dust\_5*) with a maximal resemblance of 26%. This can also be attributed to the sampling period described in Finkel et al. (2016), which overlapped with some of the sampling events included in *Dust\_IL* and may have included dust deposited on the sampled leaves.

### 3.3. Differential Abundance of Functional Genes in Dust Samples

*Dust\_IL* samples were compared with the different environments, that is, sea, soil, and leaf surface, to detect the potential contribution of dust storms to local microbial functional genes profile. We also compared *Dust\_IL* samples to *Dust\_Red\_Sea* samples collected by Aalismail et al. (2019) to better define how the two similar data sets differ. The differentially abundant genes were assigned to environmentally relevant functional categories (Table S4) (Escalas et al., 2019; Fierer et al., 2014). Figure 4 shows all genes that were significantly more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in the other examined data sets; full results are found in Table S5.

In total, 424 genes differed significantly between *Dust\_IL* and *Dust\_Red\_Sea*, and 774 genes differed significantly between *Dust\_IL* and soils. A greater number of genes differed significantly between *Dust\_IL* and leaf surfaces and sea samples, 1,005 and 1,320, respectively (Table S5). Assigning functional traits to the different genes revealed that many of the significantly more abundant genes in *Dust\_IL* were associated with biodegradation of organic compounds, such as benzoate, aminobenzoate, xylene, etc. Looking at the pair-wise comparisons between *Dust\_IL* and the different environments, we found 55 and 56 genes of bioremediation to be more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in leaf-surface and sea samples, respectively. When compared with soils, 23 bioremediation-related genes were significantly more abundant in *Dust\_IL*, compared with 16 genes that were more abundant in the soil microbiome. Only five genes associated with bioremediation of organic compounds were significantly more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in *Dust\_Red\_Sea*.

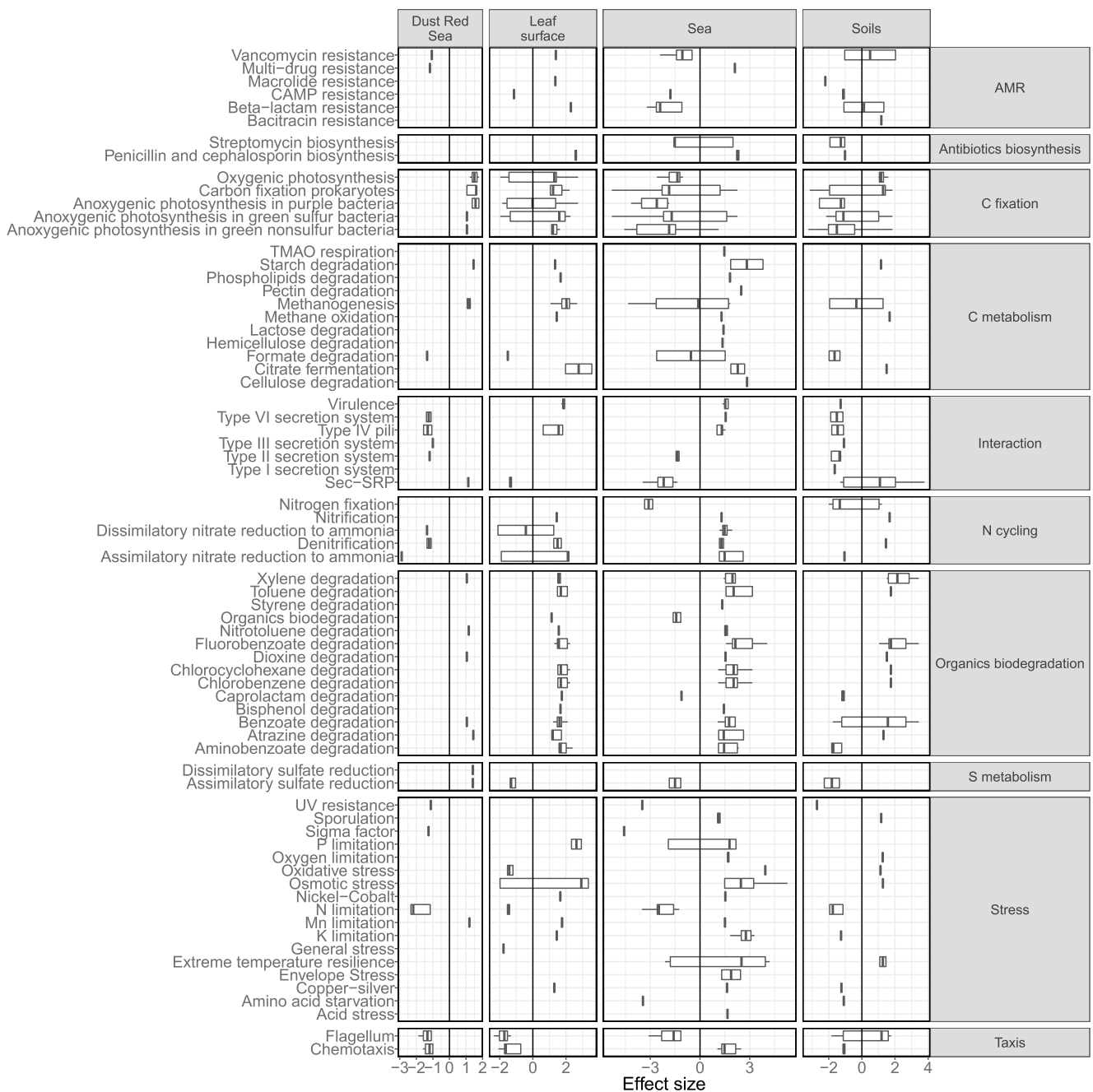
Genes associated with antimicrobial resistance (AMR) did not show a clear pattern of differential abundance between environments; different types of antibiotic resistance genes were either more or less abundant in dust, depending on the compared environment (Figure 4). Thus, *ampC*, associated with resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics, was more abundant in dust samples than in sea and leaf surface samples, but was not significantly more abundant compared with soils. In contrast, *pbpA*, also associated with beta-lactam resistance, was more abundant in dust samples than in soils, but not compared to leaf surfaces and seas. A total of seven AMR associated genes were significantly more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in any other environment, while a total of 12 AMR associated genes were significantly less abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in the examined environments. Only two AMR associated genes were found to be differentially abundant between *Dust\_IL* and *Dust\_Red\_Sea*.

Some carbon fixation genes, associated with different mechanisms, such as oxygenic photosynthesis or anoxygenic photosynthesis in purple bacteria, were also more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in the other environments. When comparing the number of genes significantly more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in other environments, we found that 27, 17, 10, and 9 carbon fixation genes were more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than leaf surfaces, soils, the sea, and *Dust\_Red\_Sea* samples, respectively.

We found several stress resistance genes to be more common in dust samples in general and in *Dust\_IL* in particular. Specifically, genes associated with oxidative stress were significantly more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in sea and soil samples; genes associated with osmotic stress were more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in all other data sets, except for *Dust\_Red\_Sea*. Genes associated with resilience to UV radiation were less abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in all data sets but leaf surfaces. Finally, sporulation and extreme temperature resilience genes were more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in soils and the sea.

The *Dust\_IL* samples exhibited significantly higher abundances of virulence-associated genes than sea and leaf-surface samples but lower than in soil samples. Among these genes were *devS* and *devR*, a two-component system related to the virulence of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Dasgupta et al., 2000; Saini et al., 2004), and *rpfC*, *rpfG*, and *rpfF*, which are found in the phytopathogens of the genus *Xanthomonas* (An et al., 2013; Barber et al., 1997; Dow et al., 2003). Accordingly, we found that *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* were significantly more abundant in *Dust\_IL* samples than in sea samples and on leaf surfaces (Table S6). No significant differences in virulence-associated gene abundance were found between *Dust\_IL* and *Dust\_Red\_Sea* samples.





**Figure 4.** Genes exhibiting significantly different abundances in *Dust\_IL* compared to other examined environments, presented by functional categories. Categories with a positive effect size are more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in other environments.

#### 4. Discussion

Molecular-based studies of atmospheric samples are characterized by low DNA concentrations and are therefore prone to biases due to sample contamination (Salter et al., 2014). In this study, we used a blank filter extraction to identify contaminant species. However, the DNA concentration in the blank filter was too low to allow sequencing. Thus, we used published data on common contaminant taxa and excluded those from the taxonomic analysis. In addition, we assumed that low PM<sub>10</sub> samples were richer in contaminant DNA and therefore correlated gene abundance to PM<sub>10</sub> concentration and excluded all genes that negatively correlated significantly with the PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations from the analysis. PCA analyses performed before and after removing potential contaminants did

not vary. While we presume these measures did not remove all contaminant DNA, we assume that they mitigated the expected bias.

The low biomass yield in some of the samples, which compelled us to group different samples prior to sequencing, limited our ability to compare the different air-mass sources and added a confounding effect to the comparison between low and high PM<sub>10</sub> samples within the *Dust\_IL* data set. In addition, variance in sampling duration might also affect the results to an unknown extent. Nonetheless, the measures we took to exclude any potential contaminant taxa and genes should mitigate the effect of these confounding variables. We thus examined the analysis of *Dust\_IL* data set as a “sanity check,” providing an assurance that these samples indeed resemble similar studies conducted in the same location, under similar conditions, and can therefore be reliably used to compare with other environmental samples.

Previous studies on atmospheric metagenome tried to determine whether a preselected set of genes were significantly enriched in atmospheric samples compared with other environments. The genes of choice were mainly associated with stress resistance (Aalismail et al., 2019; Tignat-Perrier, Dommergue, Thollot, Magand, Vogel, et al., 2020) and metabolism of compounds present in the atmosphere (Amato et al., 2019). Thus, the relative abundance of each gene was tested individually and, in some cases, compared to other environments. However, we could not find in the literature a comprehensive screening of atmospheric metagenomes and comparison with other environments using tools specifically designed for analysis of compositional data with corrections for multiple testing. Using this approach, we can now shed light on a greater variety of genes and functions transported during dust events in the Eastern Mediterranean.

We compared shotgun sequences of dust samples with sequences from other research groups representing different environments. These results are likely affected by different handling and sequencing methods and other batch effects. Nonetheless, we found significant clustering according to the environment in both community compositions and functional gene profiles. The variance between the different environments was significant, enabling us to detect genes and taxa significantly more abundant in dust samples than in the other environments.

#### 4.1. Source-Sink Relationships and Similarity Between Dust and Other Environments' Microbiome

We compared the *Dust\_IL* microbiome to soils from various locations in Israel and to the Mediterranean and Red Seas to find the possible contributions of dust to the microbiomes of the soils and seas in Israel and vice versa. Comparing dust samples collected in Saudi Arabia was designed to understand how the microbiome composition and functional genes profile of PM<sub>10</sub> collected in Israel resemble other PM<sub>10</sub> samples in the region. We first examined how different the dust was from these environments. According to PCA, AMOVA, and SourceTracker results, the microbiome identified in *Dust\_IL* most resembled *Dust\_Red\_Sea*, sampled on different events over 1,000 km away from our sampling location, in both community composition and functional genes profile. Thus, fewer genes showed significantly differential abundance between the two PM<sub>10</sub> data sets. Previous studies suggested that local land cover, that is, soil, vegetation, etc., is a dominant factor in determining the aerobiome composition (Bowers et al., 2011, 2013; Cáliz et al., 2018; Docherty et al., 2018; Els et al., 2019; Tignat-Perrier, Dommergue, Thollot, Magand, Amato, et al., 2020). Yet, the ability of dust storms to transfer particulate matter, mostly soil particles, from one location to another, on regional and global scales, leads to a greater contribution of the air-mass source to the aerobiome composition. Our results show a close link between different dust events in the East Mediterranean, further supporting the hypothesis that the air-mass source significantly affects this region's airborne microbial community composition.

Another environment that exhibited similarity to *Dust\_IL* was local soil, as was shown previously in numerous studies sampling aerosols from different environments (Cao et al., 2014; Gat et al., 2017; Mazar et al., 2016; Tignat-Perrier, Dommergue, Thollot, Magand, Vogel, et al., 2020). The soils selected for comparison in this study were desert crusts from the Israeli Negev desert (*Negev\_soil*) and various soils from different sites in Israel (*IL\_soils*). It was previously shown that during a dust event, the most significant change in community composition compared with nondusty conditions is observed in the coarse particulate fraction, that is, >3 μm, representing particles and bacterial aggregates (Gat et al., 2021). Thus, the increasing similarity between soils and dust events with increasing PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations is expected and further demonstrates the role of dust events in injecting soil microorganisms into the atmosphere, thereby affecting the aerobiome diversity and richness. In addition, we suggest an interplay between sources and sinks for soils and dust. The observed contribution of Israeli soils to

*Dust\_IL* can result from the suspension of the local soil microbiome during dust events or the constant contributions of the dust-borne microbiome to the local soils via deposition. It can also result from the similarity between the soils at the origin of the dust event, that is, Syrian or Arabian Peninsula deserts, and local soils.

Another environment examined in this study was the marine environment, represented by two seas: the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea. Both seas are in the path of some of the air masses sampled in this study. Nonetheless, we found a very small contribution of the marine microbiome to the sampled aerobiomes. This result is in accordance with the results presented by Lang-Yona et al. (2022). An implication of the small overlap between the marine microbiome and the aerobiome is the contribution of dust deposition to aquatic environments. Dust can be considered a source for various microorganisms in the marine microbiome (Rahav, Ovadia, et al., 2016). Many of these microorganisms may not prevail after deposition due to incompatibility, predation, or a general inability to compete with the indigenous microbiome. Nonetheless, previous studies showed that aerosol deposition negatively affects *Prochlorococcus* communities in the Mediterranean Sea (Paytan et al., 2009; Rahav et al., 2020). In a changing climate, it is expected that the intensity and frequency of dust storms will increase, expanding the geographical range of the airborne bacteria, resulting in the introduction of dust-borne bacteria to previously pristine habitats, terrestrial and marine alike. It may increase the survival chances of the allochthonous bacteria in sink environments, specifically aquatic environments.

Leaf-top microbiomes showed a significant contribution to the composition of *Dust\_IL* samples, according to SourceTracker results, and to the relatively lower number of differentially abundant genes between the two data sets. As in the case of soil and dust similarity, we could not determine whether this similarity results from a contribution of leaf microbiome to the aerobiome or vice versa.

#### 4.2. Dust-Associated Functions

The majority of functional genes displaying differential abundance between *Dust\_IL* and all other data sets were related to the biodegradation of various organic contaminants. Genes associated with the degradation of chlorocyclohexane, chlorobenzene, fluorobenzoate, toluene, and aminobenzoate, were significantly more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in sea, soil, and leaf surfaces metagenomes but not compared to *Dust\_Red\_Sea*, suggesting that the source of these genes is regional rather than local. Genes associated with benzoate, xylene, and atrazine degradation were significantly more abundant in *Dust\_IL* than in all other examined data sets. We did not find a similar comparison made by any other metagenomic studies of atmospheric samples (Aalismail et al., 2019; Amato et al., 2019; Be et al., 2014; Cao et al., 2014; Tignat-Perrier, Dommergue, Thollot, Magand, Vogel, et al., 2020; Tringe et al., 2008; Yooseph et al., 2013), with the exception of Yooseph et al. (2013) that found some abundance of genes associated with xenobiotic biodegradation in air samples from urban aerosols. Some differentially abundant genes were found on bacterial plasmids, rendering them eligible for horizontal gene transfer (Leahy & Colwell, 1990; Perkins et al., 1990). Many of these genes were previously detected in contaminated soils and aquatic environments (Thelusmond et al., 2019), landfills, and bioreactors (Gupta et al., 2022; Yuan et al., 2017). Their abundance in dust samples from Israel and Saudi Arabia suggests that they are either enriched in the soils that contributed to the sampled dust events or that the anthropogenic impact on the aerobiome via aerosolization from landfills, wastewater treatment plants, or contaminated soils and water bodies, is ubiquitous in the East Mediterranean. Another possible explanation is that these genes provide their carrying microorganisms with an adaptation to the atmospheric habitat and are therefore relatively enriched, yet there is still insufficient data to support this hypothesis.

*Dust\_IL* exhibited a higher abundance of some genes associated with antibiotic and antimicrobial resistance, yet comparing to different environments revealed a different pattern. Previous studies showed that antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) are found in bioaerosols from various sources in different locations (Gat et al., 2017; Mazar et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2021). Specifically, resistance to vancomycin and beta-lactam often co-occurred, and ARGs in the atmosphere positively correlated with air pollution (Wang et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2021). This observation agrees with an ARGs survey in various environmental samples that showed that beta-lactam and, to a lesser extent, vancomycin resistance were ubiquitous yet more abundant in anthropogenic-related environments, such as livestock farms and human feces, than in natural soils, rivers, and sediments, by up to three orders of magnitude (Li et al., 2015). Suggested sources for ARGs in the atmosphere are wastewater treatment plants, livestock, and landfills (Wang et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2021).

Previous studies investigated whether the aerobiome is enriched in genes associated with resistance to UV radiation, extreme temperatures, oxidative stress, and sporulation-associated genes (Aalismail et al., 2019; Tignat-Perrier, Dommergue, Thollot, Magand, Vogel, et al., 2020). These traits were explicitly investigated as they are associated with microbial survival in harsh atmospheric conditions. Our results showed that *Dust\_IL* samples displayed a significantly higher abundance of genes associated with sporulation, resistance to extreme temperatures, and oxidative stress than the examined soils and sea but not compared to leaf-surface metagenomes. Moreover, the examined soils and sea samples exhibited a significantly higher abundance of genes associated with resistance to UV radiation than the *Dust\_IL*.

Intense dust plumes can protect transported microorganisms from atmospheric conditions, such as high UV radiation, and allow them to aggregate (Archer & Pointing, 2020; Meola et al., 2015; Šantl-Temkiv et al., 2022). Thus, dust-associated bacteria are more likely to survive their atmospheric transport and remain viable upon deposition.

## 5. Conclusions

Aerobiome composition is an important and understudied aspect of the anthropogenic impact on the atmosphere. As there is still very little knowledge on the role of the aerobiome in the planet's ecology, it is difficult to estimate how changes in its composition would affect environmental functioning. Thus, it is essential to continue the efforts to describe, record, and analyze the composition, functional profile, viability, and activity of the aerobiome. In this study we illustrate the important contribution of dust storms to the aerobiome composition. We suggest that this contribution can mask local effects caused by land cover. We found evidence to widespread anthropogenic effects on the aerobiome composition and functional profile, mostly in the form of significantly abundant genes associated with contaminants' biodegradation. We also show a great similarity between dust storms sampled at distant locations over different times, also suggesting that the anthropogenic impact on the aerobiome is of a regional scale. The global dispersion of dust and the accumulating evidence on its contribution to the viability of bacteria during atmospheric transport and data collected on the aerobiome's composition and functional profile highlights the possible impact of airborne bacteria on the destination environments.

## Data Availability Statement

The sequencing data obtained in this study from sampled PM<sub>10</sub> are available at MG-RAST server, project mgp87645: <https://www.mg-rast.org/linkin.cgi?project=mgp87645>.

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