Main Manuscript for

Sterol side chain alkylation by sponge and bacterial methyltransferases

Malory O. Brown[a] and Babatunde O. Olagunju[b], José-Luis Giner[b], and Paula V. Welander[a]

[a]Department of Earth System Science, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305

[b]Department of Chemistry, State University of New York-Environmental Science and Forestry, Syracuse, NY 13210

*Paula V. Welander

Email: welander@stanford.edu

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Abstract

Fossilized sterols, or steranes, are broadly interpreted as biomarkers for past eukaryotic life. Steranes with side chain methylations can act as more specific eukaryotic biomarkers given the limited taxonomic distribution of their sterol precursors in extant eukaryotes. One side chain methylated sterane, 24-isopropylcholestane, has been interpreted as a biomarker for marine sponges of the Demospongiae class as they are the only organisms known to produce 24-isopropyl sterols as their major sterols. The presence of 24-isopropylcholestane in late Neoproterozoic rocks may therefore represent some of the earliest evidence for animals on Earth. However, the use of 24-isopropylcholestane as a sponge biomarker has been questioned for a variety of reasons including the potential for alternative sources and a lack of information on the biochemical mechanism behind the formation of its sterol precursors. Specifically, enzymes capable of methylating sterols to give the 24-isopropyl side chain have not been identified, and the function of putative sponge sterol 24-C-methyltransferases has not been demonstrated experimentally. In this study, we verified the functionality of sponge sterol methyltransferases and explored the potential for bacterial sterol side chain methylation through in vitro protein expression and lipid analyses. We identified three bacterial sterol methyltransferases each capable of sequential methylations resulting in the 24-isopropyl side chain structure of the 24-isopropylcholestane biomarker. Two of these side chain propylating enzymes were identified in a metagenome from a demosponge microbiome, suggesting bacterial symbionts may play a role in 24-isopropyl sterol biosynthesis in the demosponge holobiont.

Significance Statement

According to the sponge biomarker hypothesis, geologic 24-isopropylcholestane can act as an indicator for ancient demosponges and may represent some of the first evidence for animal life on Earth. However, enzymes capable of methylating sterols to give the 24-isopropyl sterol side chain have not been identified. We investigated the functionality of sponge sterol methyltransferases, enzymes known to alkylate the sterol side chain, through in vitro protein expression. We also analyzed the function of several putative bacterial sterol methyltransferases,

28   three of which produced 24-isopropyl sterols. Our results indicate uncultured bacteria, including

29   demosponge symbionts, have the genomic capacity to synthesize side chain alkylated sterols and

30   should therefore be considered when interpreting ergostane, stigmastane, and 24-

31   isopropylcholestane biomarkers in the geologic record.

Main Text

Introduction

Sterols are polycyclic triterpenoid lipids required by most eukaryotes for many critical

cellular functions, such as maintaining membrane integrity, phagocytosis, stress tolerance,

embryogenesis, and cellular signaling (1–6). In addition, sterols are quite recalcitrant and are

preserved as sterane hydrocarbons in sedimentary rocks up to 1.6 billion years old (7). Given their

persistence in the geologic record and wide distribution amongst extant eukaryotes, steranes are

broadly interpreted as biomarkers for ancient eukaryotic life (8, 9). But particular modifications to

the sterol side chain, such as alkylation at the C-24 and C-26 positions, remain unique to certain

eukaryotic lineages and can therefore function as more specific biomarkers (10). Two side chain

alkylated steranes, 24-isopropylcholestane (24-ipc) and 26-methylstigmastane (26-mes), have

been used as biomarkers for demosponges (11, 12) as they are the only extant organisms known

to contain sterols with the 24-ipc and 26-mes side chain structures as their major sterols (12–18).

The co-occurrence of 24-ipc and 26-mes in certain late Neoproterozoic rocks (660-540 Ma)

predates the earliest sponge macrofossils by ~100 million years (19), potentially representing the

first evidence of animals in the geologic record.

However, the use of 24-ipc and 26-mes as biomarkers for demosponges has been

controversial and continues to be debated for several reasons (19–26). For example, 24-isopropyl

sterols have been identified in pelagophyte algae which produce the structurally related compound

24-*n*-propylcholesterol as their major sterol (27–30). Trace amounts of 24-ipc and 26-mes have

also been reported in hydrogenated lipid extracts from Rhizaria (31), although attempts to replicate

these results have not been successful (23). Subsequent studies demonstrated 24-ipc and 26-mes

form abiotically from certain C_{29} sterols during laboratory pyrolysis under conditions that may mimic

diagenesis (26, 32). These studies suggest that the previously observed Rhizarian 24-isopropyl

and 26-methyl steranes may have been generated through laboratory pyrolysis rather than by in

vivo synthesis and that Neoproterozoic 24-ipc and 26-mes may have formed abiotically from algal

sterols. Further, microbial symbionts can constitute up to 60% of sponge biomass (33, 34) and

diverse bacteria are known to produce sterols (35). Bacterial symbionts may therefore contribute to

24-isopropyl and 26-methyl sterol biosynthesis in the sponge holobiont – defined as the sponge

host and the various microbes and viruses that reside within it (36). However, bacteria with the

genomic capacity to alkylate the sterol side chain have not previously been identified.

One approach to constrain these uncertainties in the sponge biomarker hypothesis is to

better understand the biochemical mechanism underpinning these distinct alkylations at C-24 and

C-26. Sterol 24-C-methyltransferases (SMTs), which alkylate the C-24 position of the sterol side

chain at an isolated double bond through an *S*-adenosylmethionine (SAM) dependent mechanism

(37), are the only enzymes known to methylate the sterol side chain. These proteins have been

characterized extensively from fungal and plant sources but only recently has an attempt been

made to address this biochemical reaction in sponges. Phylogenetic analyses performed to

understand how sponges could be synthesizing 24-propyl sterols suggested that the number of

SMT copies in a eukaryotic genome corresponds to the number of carbons added at C-24 in all

analyzed lineages except sponges, which contain one less SMT in their genome or transcriptome

than expected based on their sterol profile (38). This prompted the hypotheses that at least two

SMT copies in a genome are required to produce 24-propyl sterols and that sponge SMTs are

capable of multiple methylations at C-24. However, no experimental evidence demonstrating this

activity by any sponge SMT currently exists, and SMTs capable of alkylating the sterol side chain

to produce 24-propyl sterols have not been identified in any extant organism.

Here, we characterize a variety of putative SMTs from sponge and bacterial sources to

better understand the biochemical requirements for generating propylated sterols. We demonstrate

that sponge sterol 24-C-methyltransferase homologs are bona fide SMTs that can perform multiple

rounds of alkylation to produce sterols methylated and ethylated at the C-24 position. In addition,

we show that putative bacterial SMTs identified in metagenomic datasets, including those from

demosponge microbial symbiont communities, are capable of alkylating at the C-24 position.

Surprisingly, 3 SMTs of bacterial origin can each perform all 3 of the methylation steps required to

produce the 24-isopropyl side chain. This is the first in vitro demonstration of propylation of a sterol

side chain by an SMT and the first demonstration that bacteria have the potential to alkylate sterols

at C-24. Taken together, these data suggest alternative sources of 24-ipc are plausible and

demonstrate the utility of understanding the biochemistry of lipid biosynthesis to allow for more

robust biomarker interpretations.

Results

90   **Identification of functional sponge sterol methyltransferases.** Previous studies

identified SMT homologs in a variety of sponge genomes and transcriptomes (38). However, there

is currently no experimental evidence demonstrating that these putative SMTs alkylate the sterol

side chain much less methylate multiple times to generate 24-propyl sterols. Our first goal was to

heterologously express these putative SMTs from sponge sources and show methylation activity.

We tested 8 SMT homologs identified in the genomes and transcriptomes of 8 sponges of the

classes Demospongiae, Homoscleromorpha, and Calcarea which have each been shown to

contain 24-ethyl sterols at the species (39–42) or genus (43, 44) level. SMTs were codon-optimized

and artificially synthesized for expression in *Escherichia coli*. Cell extracts were generated from *E.*

coli overexpressing each sponge SMT and incubated with two potential SMT substrates,

desmosterol or 24-methylenecholesterol, and resulting sterol products were analyzed using GC-

MS. All 8 of the analyzed sponge SMTs were functional in our system and alkylated desmosterol

to produce 24-methyl sterols including 24-methylenecholesterol and codisterol (Table 1, Fig. 1*B*).

Six of the sponge SMTs also alkylated 24-methylenecholesterol to 24-ethyl sterols including

fucosterol, isofucosterol, and (epi)clerosterol demonstrating that some sponge SMTs can perform

two sequential side chain methylations. None of the analyzed sponge SMTs produced 24-propyl

sterols in our expression system.

Bacterial SMTs are functional and produce 24-isopropyl sterols. Although we

demonstrated sponge SMT homologs are true sterol methyltransferases, none of the proteins we

tested produced 24-isopropyl sterols–the diagenetic precursors to the 24-ipc biomarker. Our

analyses of sponge microbiomes, however, revealed several potential sterol biosynthesis proteins,

including SMT homologs, from bacterial symbionts. We hypothesized that these bacterial SMTs

may contribute to side chain alkylation in the sponge holobiont. However, no putative bacterial

SMTs, from either free-living or host-associated sources, have been experimentally shown to

alkylate the sterol side chain.

We chose 10 putative bacterial SMTs identified in the microbiome of 4 demosponge

species for in vitro expression and lipid analyses as previously performed with the sponge SMTs.

Of these 10 symbiont SMTs, 8 methylated desmosterol to 24-methyl sterols including codisterol,

24-methylenecholesterol, and 24-methyldesmosterol (Table 1, Fig. 1). Of the 8 SMTs that

methylated desmosterol, 3 also methylated 24-methylenecholesterol to 24-ethyl sterols including

fucosterol, isofucosterol, and (epi)clerosterol. Two SMTs, both identified in a metagenome from the

demosponge *Aplysina aerophoba*, also methylated 24-methylenecholesterol to two distinct C_{30}

sterols. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) analysis (see Methods) confirmed the first symbiont

SMT produced 24-isopropenylcholesterol while the second produced 24-isopropylidenecholesterol

(Table S1). Both *A. aerophoba* metagenome SMTs were capable of all three methylation steps

required to synthesize the 24-ipc side chain. One propylating SMT was identified in a gene cluster

with several other homologs of sterol biosynthesis genes, including squalene monooxygenase,

oxidosqualene cyclase, sterol 14α-demethylase, delta(14)-sterol reductase, and the bacterial C-4

demethylation genes *sdmA* and *sdmB*, suggesting an unknown bacterial sponge symbiont has the

genomic capacity to synthesize 24-isopropyl sterols de novo (Fig. 2).

Identification of bacterial symbiont SMTs capable of producing side chain alkylated sterols,

including 24-isopropyl sterols, led us to question if bacteria from environments outside a sponge

host have the potential to alkylate the sterol side chain. Through additional searches, we identified

potential bacterial SMTs from a variety of publicly available environmental metagenomes and

metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs). We tested the function of 14 of these SMT homologs

from marine, freshwater, thermal spring, and coral reef metagenomes and MAGs. Twelve of these

SMTs alkylated the sterol side chain to produce 24-methyl and/or 24-ethyl sterols (Table 1). One

SMT, identified in a drinking water filter MAG assigned to the phylum Chlamydiae, was capable of

alkylating desmosterol to both 24-isopropenylcholesterol and 24-isopropylidenecholesterol (Fig.

1*A*).

Structural confirmation of C$_{30}$ sterols produced by propylating bacterial SMTs. It was

surprising to observe that one SMT was capable of propylating the sterol side chain on its own as

it has been hypothesized that at least two SMTs would be required for this reaction (38). To better

understand this unexpected biosynthetic pathway to 24-isopropyl sterols, we performed additional

in vitro reactions with one of the *A. aerophoba* metagenome SMTs and the Chlamydiae MAG SMT

with labeled substrates including [28-^{13}C] 24-methylenecholesterol, [29-^{13}C] isofucosterol, and [29-

^{13}C] fucosterol. These ^{13}C-labeling experiments were used to assist the identification of the

biosynthetic products by 2D-NMR (heteronuclear single quantum coherence (HSQC) and

heteronuclear multiple bond correlation (HMBC)) by increasing the amount of ^{13}C at a specific

position by two orders of magnitude compared to natural abundance. The two terminal isopropyl

groups of 24-isopropyl sterols come from biosynthetically disparate origins, the isoprenoid pathway

and SAM methylation (Fig. S1A). Because of the possibilities of hydride-shifts and different

positions of deprotonation, each of the four terminal methyl groups can have multiple different

origins within the product (17). In addition to enhanced sensitivity, ^{13}C-labeling elucidated

mechanistic details of a pathway which, because of the intrinsic symmetry of 24-isopropyl sterols,

would be otherwise hidden.

In experiments using [28-^{13}C] 24-methylenecholesterol with the *A. aerophoba* symbiont

SMT, isofucosterol was found to be the major C$_{29}$ sterol as shown by a ^{1}H-^{13}C cross peak

corresponding to C-28 at 5.108 and 116.48 ppm (Fig. S1B). The presence of fucosterol was shown

by an HSQC cross peak at 5.183 and 115.58 ppm. Comparison of the integral ratios of the cross

peaks (45) for these two isomers showed them to be present in a 7:1 ratio. An additional minor C$_{29}$

sterol was detected and shown to be epiclerosterol but not clerosterol by cross peaks for C-28 at 1.290/1.380 and 26.01 ppm (Table S1). Long-range HMBC correlations from the 29-methyl group confirmed these identifications. Thus, isofucosterol showed an HMBC cross peak for H-29 and C-28 at 1.59 and 115.58 ppm; fucosterol and epiclerosterol showed HMBC cross peaks at 1.57 and 116.48 ppm and 0.799 and 26.01 ppm, respectively. The major product of triple side chain methylation was *24S*-24-isopropylcholesta-5,25-dienol (24-isopropenylcholesterol). The label was not detected at C-28 by HSQC but was found exclusively at C-25 by HMBC from the 27-methyl group (cross peak between 1.570 and 147.38 ppm). Moreover, its *24R* isomer was absent as shown by the lack of HSQC and HMBC signals.

Further characterization of the *A. aerophoba* symbiont methylation pathway was carried out with [29-^{13}C] fucosterol and [29-^{13}C] isofucosterol. Fucosterol was not a substrate for the SMT, but isofucosterol yielded *24S*-24-isopropylcholesta-5,25-dienol (Fig. S3C) with the label distributed in a 4:1 label ratio between C-27 and C-26, respectively, as shown by integration of the HSQC signals for C-27 (1.570 and 18.95 ppm), and C-30 (4.602/4.740, and 111.85). This outcome shows that interconversion of the C-28 and C-25 cations by hydride-shifts is not involved in the biosynthesis of this compound and that deprotonation of the initially formed cation is not specific.

The same set of reactions with the propylating Chlamydiae MAG SMT gave similar results - fucosterol was not a substrate and epiclerosterol, but not clerosterol, was detected. However, minor differences were measured between the two bacterial SMTs tested. In the Chlamydiae MAG SMT reaction, the ratio of isofucosterol and fucosterol was 30:1, and the ratio of label at C-27/C-26 of *24S*-24-isopropylcholesta-5,25-dienol was 5:1. Also, the C_{30} Δ^{23} and Δ^{24} isomers were detected in the Chlamydiae MAG SMT. In the experiment with [28-^{13}C] 24-methylenecholesterol, HMBC showed two adjacent cross peaks correlating the C-26 and C-27 methyls with C-25 of 24-isopropylcholesta-5,24-dienol (24-isopropylidenecholesterol, the Δ^{24} isomer) at 1.633/1.651 and 123.1 ppm. In this case, the label from [29-^{13}C] isofucosterol was detected only on the Z-vinylic methyl by HSQC (1.651 and 19.73 ppm). 24-Isopropylcholesta-5,23-dienol (the Δ^{23} isomer) was detected by label at 20.96 ppm exclusively, which is one of the two methyls of the Z-isopropyl group. These results provide evidence for one hydride-shift to generate the C-24 cation. The ratio

of *24S*-24-isopropylcholesta-5,25-dienol and its Δ^{24} and Δ^{23} isomers was estimated by integration

of the HSQC to be 20:4:1.

Phylogenetic analyses of bacterial SMTs. The identification of functional SMTs in

metagenomes and MAGs assigned to the bacterial domain, including the three SMTs that propylate

the sterol side chain, is quite significant given that no bacterial proteins have ever been confirmed

to alkylate the sterol side chain. To provide further evidence that these SMTs are truly of bacterial

origin, we first performed phylogenetic analyses of 10 sponge SMTs and the 24 metagenomic

SMTs tested in our in vitro system. We added these SMTs and additional eukaryotic SMT homologs

identified in GenBank to a previously published SMT dataset (38) and repeated their analysis to

generate a maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree from a concatenated alignment of conserved

methyltransferase and C-terminal domains as identified in Pfam. Through this analysis, we see that

23 out of the 24 putative bacterial SMTs, including those from sponge symbionts, form two clades

separate from the sponge SMT clade suggesting bacterial symbionts did not acquire their SMTs

from their sponge host via horizontal gene transfer. While the observed bootstrap values are not

robust enough to draw any meaningful evolutionary conclusions, the observed clustering suggests

that the majority of the metagenomic SMTs we tested are distinct and more closely related to each

other than to the SMTs of eukaryotes known to produce side chain alkylated sterols (Fig. 3).

The genomic context of the putative bacterial SMTs we tested can also provide evidence

of their bacterial origins. Of the 24 metagenomic SMTs tested here, 9 were in gene clusters or

MAGs with a homolog of oxidosqualene cyclase (OSC), a key enzyme in sterol biosynthesis

responsible for cyclizing oxidosqualene to lanosterol (35). Previous work has demonstrated that

OSCs cluster into robust phylogenetic clades with high bootstrap support (46). In addition,

phylogenetic analyses of environmental metagenomic OSCs from unknown sources can provide

insight into the types of uncultured organisms that may be producing sterols (35, 47). Thus,

phylogenetic analyses of OSCs associated with the SMTs we tested could provide more context of

the bacterial origins of these proteins. To generate the OSC tree, we identified 485 OSC sequences

from bacterial and eukaryotic genomes and MAGs using the OSC from the γ-proteobacterium

Methylococcus capsulatus BATH as a search query against the JGI IMG database. These OSC

protein sequences were aligned and used to generate a maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree

using the squalene-hopene cyclase (SHC) protein as an outgroup. Seven of the OSCs, including 4

from demosponge metagenomes, fell into the Group 1 clade which contains only bacterial OSCs

(Fig. S2). The remaining 2 OSCs, from soil and hot spring sediment metagenomes, fell into

bacterial Group 2. The position of these metagenomic OSCs, which are associated with SMTs we

tested, provides additional evidence that these SMTs originate from a bacterial source.

To further demonstrate these SMTs originate from a bacterial source, we used the recently

developed classifier Whokaryote (48), which predicts whether a metagenomic contig is likely

eukaryotic or prokaryotic based on intergenic distance, gene density, gene length, and k-mer

frequencies. Whokaryote predicts all 19 of the contigs containing the metagenomic and MAG SMTs

tested here to be of prokaryotic origin (Table S4).

Discussion

The sponge biomarker hypothesis proposes that demosponges are the predominant

source of 24-isopropylcholestane biomarkers preserved in the sedimentary rock record. Support

for this hypothesis was put forth through phylogenetic and molecular clock analyses of putative

sponge sterol methyltransferases (SMTs) thought to catalyze the formation of propylated sterols

(38). These studies concluded that sponge SMTs are not only bona fide sterol methyltransferases

but that they are capable of multiple rounds of methylation. However, no experimental evidence

has been provided to confirm that sponge-derived SMTs methylate at the C-24 position much less

methylate multiple times.

The results presented here experimentally demonstrate that sponge genomes and

transcriptomes do indeed contain functional SMTs capable of sequentially methylating desmosterol

to 24-methylenecholesterol to 24-ethyl sterols, similarly to recently reported SMTs found in annelid

worms (49). However, as with annelid SMTs (50), we did not observe this activity across all sponge

SMTs analyzed in this study. Sterol profiles from *Oscarella carmela* (Homoscleromorpha) and

Sycon ciliatum (Calcarea) have not been reported, but 24-ethyl sterols have been identified in other

members of *Oscarella* and *Sycon* (43, 51). Yet, the *O. carmela* and *S. ciliatum* SMTs tested here

did not produce 24-ethyl sterols. SMTs capable of multiple rounds of methylation may therefore be

restricted to certain sponge species, although we recognize that these SMTs may be more selective

and require a different substrate than we have provided in our assays to produce 24-ethyl sterols.

Further, we did not observe the production of 24-propyl sterols by any sponge SMT, although this

was not surprising given that 24-propyl sterols have not been identified in any of the sponge species

analyzed here. One of the difficulties in trying to ascertain the potential for propylation by sponge-

derived SMTs is a lack of genomic data from demosponges that have been confirmed to produce

24-ipc. Future sequencing of genomes or transcriptomes from demosponges known to contain

sterols with the 24-ipc carbon skeleton may reveal sponge-derived SMTs sufficient for the

biosynthesis of 24-propyl sterols.

While we were unable to demonstrate the production of propylated sterols through the

expression of sponge SMTs, we did show that bacterial symbionts have the genomic capacity to

synthesize these lipids and may therefore contribute to the 24-isopropyl sterol pool in the

demosponge holobiont. Studies performed prior to the development of 16S community sequencing

attempted to demonstrate de novo sterol biosynthesis in demosponges. However, these

experiments were performed using cell-free sponge extracts or on whole sponge tissue from which

the presence of symbiont-derived enzymes cannot be excluded (52–54). Without confirmation that

the bacterial symbionts in these samples do not contain functional SMTs, the possibility remains

that bacterial symbionts contribute to sterol biosynthesis in demosponges. Further, holo-

transcriptomic sequencing of the demosponge *Vaceletia* sp. found that several key sterol

biosynthesis transcripts, including those for squalene synthase, squalene monooxygenase, and

oxidosqualene cyclase, were bacterially-derived (55). Both sponge and bacterial symbiont proteins

may therefore be required to produce 24-isopropyl sterols in vivo. However, the metagenomic gene

clusters containing functional SMTs and several other key genes for sterol biosynthesis identified

here, as well as steroid gene clusters containing SMT homologs previously identified in bacterial

MAGs associated with demosponges of the *Ircinia* genus (56), suggest bacterial demosponge

symbionts may produce sterols de novo without demosponge input. The 2 symbiont SMTs sufficient

for side chain propylation were both identified in metagenomes from the demosponge *A.*

aerophoba, which appears to contain only trace amounts of 24-isopropyl sterols (18). Our work

highlights the need for robust sequencing of both the sponge host and its microbiome coupled to

sterol analysis in demosponge species that produce 24-isopropyls as their major sterols.

From a biomarker perspective, our demonstration that a single bacterial SMT is sufficient

for propylating a sterol side chain is quite significant. Previous molecular clock analyses suggested

demosponges were the most likely source of Cryogenian 24-ipc biomarkers given that

demosponges acquired a second SMT copy prior to their deposition, while pelagophyte algae did

not acquire a third SMT copy until the Phanerozoic (38). Further, researchers have argued against

Rhizaria as a source of 24-isopropyl sterols given that *Bigelowiella natans* contains only 2 SMT

copies in its genome and is thus unlikely to synthesize 24-propyl sterols (23). These interpretations

rely on the hypothesis that multiple SMT copies are required to produce 24-isopropyl sterols.

However, we identified 3 SMTs each capable of producing the 24-isopropyl side chain via a single

protein. SMT copy number may therefore be an unreliable predictor of an organism's ability to

produce 24-propyl sterols. Now that propylating SMTs have been identified, site-directed

mutagenesis studies like those performed with yeast (57–59), algal (60), and plant (61) SMTs may

reveal specific amino acid changes that allow an SMT protein to perform a third methylation. If such

key residues are identified, they could act as a more reliable predictor of 24-isopropyl sterol

biosynthesis directly from sequencing data than SMT copy number alone.

In addition to its use as a demosponge biomarker, 24-ipc has also been used to indicate

marine input into terrestrial systems (62–64) given that 24-ipc precursor sterols have not been

identified in freshwater demosponges or algae. However, the production of 24-isopropyl sterols by

an SMT identified in a freshwater Chlamydiae MAG suggests the occurrence of these sterols may

not be limited to marine environments. Members of the phylum Chlamydiae have not been shown

to produce sterols, and homologs of other sterol biosynthesis genes were not present in the

Chlamydiae MAG. It is therefore unlikely that this organism synthesizes 24-isopropyl sterols de

novo. However, some endosymbiotic Chlamydiae are known to recruit sterols from their eukaryotic

host into their membranes (65). The possibility therefore remains that certain freshwater

Chlamydiae alkylate the side chain of host-acquired sterols to give the 24-isopropyl side chain via

their SMTs for reasons yet unknown. If this is the case, it may explain the presence of 22-dehydro-

24-isopropylcholestanol throughout a freshwater sediment core from Motte Lake, France (66). We

would therefore exercise caution when, for example, interpreting the presence of 24-ipc as

evidence for seawater incursion events.

Finally, although we identified SMTs capable of 24-isopropyl sterol biosynthesis, proteins

capable of methylating sterols to give other geologically important side chain structures remain

undiscovered. Identification of enzymes capable of methylating sterols at the C-26 position to give

the 26-mes side chain structure remains especially important when considering the biomarker

evidence for Precambrian sponges. Studies in which radiolabeled sterol precursors were fed to

whole sponges or sponge extracts have demonstrated codisterol or epicodisterol are the preferred

substrates for methylation at C-26 via a hypothetical 26-SMT protein (52, 67, 68). We identified

(epi)codisterol as a product of several SMTs, from both sponges and bacteria, suggesting both

groups have the genomic capacity to produce these potential 26-SMT substrates. However, it

remains to be seen if sponges and/or bacteria, sponge-associated and otherwise, encode SMTs

capable of methylation at C-26. Once enzymes with this functionality are identified, in-depth kinetics

studies with purified SMT proteins and multiple sterol substrates may reveal if SMTs from sponges

and/or bacteria are likely to produce 24-ipc and 26-mes sterol precursors in ratios that correspond

to the C_{30} sterane distributions observed in the Cryogenian. Similarly, confirmed side chain

alkylated sterol biosynthesis in a bacterial isolate along with identification of any unique isotopic

signatures resulting from the alkylation of sterol side chains by bacteria could help determine if

bacteria may have been a potential source of Cryogenian 24-ipc. Until then, the co-occurrence of

24-ipc and 26-mes in high ratios relative to other steranes continues to provide strong evidence for

derived sponges in the Precambrian, consistent with molecular clock analyses (69–71). However,

sterol side chain alkylation by symbiotic and free-living bacteria should now be considered both

when analyzing the sterols of extant eukaryotes and when interpreting the presence of geologic

steranes including ergostane, stigmastane, and 24-isopropylcholestane.

Materials and Methods

Bioinformatics Analysis. SMT homologs were identified in the Joint Genome Institute

Integrated Microbial Genomes & Microbiomes (JGI IMG), GenBank, and Compagen

(http://www.compagen.org) databases using the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* S299C SMT amino

acid sequence as the BLASTP search query (locus tag: YML008C, maximum e-value: $1e^{-50}$,

minimum percent identity: 30%). Additional demosponge SMT sequences from *C. nucula*, *S.

fasciculatas*, and *P. ficiformis* transcriptomes were provided by Prof. David A. Gold (38). Identifying

sequence information is available in Table S2. Conserved sterol methyltransferase C-terminal and

methyltransferase 11 domains were identified using the HmmerWeb tool (version 2.41.1).

Oxidosqualene cyclase homologs were identified through BLASTP searches of the

metagenome scaffolds and MAGs containing the SMTs analyzed in this study and all bacterial and

eukaryotic genomes available in JGI IMG as of October 2019 using the *Methylococcus capsulatus*

Bath OSC protein sequence (locus tag: MCA2873, maximum e-value: $1e^{-50}$, minimum percent

identity: 20%, minimum sequence length: 350 aa). Redundancy was decreased through manual

removal of OSC homologs with 100% similarity at the amino acid level. The N-termini of fused

SMO/OSC homologs were trimmed out of the dataset to begin the sequences at the squalene-

hopene cyclase N-terminal domain as identified using HmmerWeb.

All sequence datasets were aligned via MUSCLE. Conserved SMT domains were aligned

separately, then concatenated using Geneious. Maximum-likelihood trees were generated using

IQ-Tree on XSEDE with 1,000 ultra-fast bootstrap replicates using the best amino acid substitution

models, gamma shape parameters, and invariable sites proportions under the Bayesian

Information Criterion and Akaike Information Criterion using ModelTest-NG on XSEDE (Table S3).

Resulting phylogenetic trees were visualized in iTOL (72).

All contigs containing metagenomic SMTs were retrieved from JGI IMG or GenBank and

analyzed with Whokaryote using the default inputs with the minimum contig size decreased to 2,000

base pairs. Calculated features and predictions are shown in Table S4.

Gene Synthesis and Molecular Cloning. SMT DNA sequences were codon-optimized

for expression in *E. coli* and artificially synthesized by GeneArt (ThermoFisher Scientific) or through

the Department of Energy Joint Genome Institute (DOE JGI) DNA Synthesis Science Program.

SMT sequences from DOE JGI were obtained in the IPTG-inducible plasmid pSRKGm-*lac*UV5-

rbs5 in *E. coli* TOP10. SMT sequences from GeneArt were subcloned into pSRKGm-*lac*UV5-rbs5

by sequence and ligase independent cloning (SLIC) (73) and transformed into *E. coli* DH10B as

described in *SI Appendix*.

Bacterial Culture and Heterologous Expression. *E. coli* expression strains were

cultured in 50 mL terrific broth (TB) supplemented with gentamycin (15 µg/mL) at 37 °C while

shaking at 225 rpm. Cultures were induced with 500 µM isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside

(IPTG) at an OD_{600} of ~0.6, then incubated an additional 4 hours at 30 °C while shaking at 225 rpm.

Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4,500 × *g* for 10 minutes at 4 °C. Cell pellets were stored

at -80 °C until sonication.

Sterol Methyltransferase Assay. Cells pellets were resuspended in 5 mL buffer

containing the following: 50 mM Tris-HCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 20% glycerol (v/v), and 0.1% β-

mercaptoethanol (v/v), pH 7.5. Cells were then lysed on ice via a Qsonica Sonicator Q500 equipped

with a 3.2 mm probe at 30% amplitude pulsing at 5 seconds on, 15 seconds off for 8 minutes of

total on time. Lysates were then partially clarified by centrifugation at 4,500 × *g* for 20 minutes at 4

°C. Total protein concentration in the resulting supernatant was quantified using a Coomassie

(Bradford) Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific) according to the manufacturer's Standard

Microplate Protocol and a BioTek Synergy HT Microplate Reader. SMT assays were then

immediately prepared using enough supernatant to give 4500 µg total protein. Other reaction

components included 100 µM desmosterol (Sigma-Aldrich), 24-methylenecholesterol (Avanti Polar

Lipids, Inc.), [28-^{13}C] 24-methylenecholesterol (Avanti Polar Lipids, Inc.), or synthesized [29-^{13}C]

fucosterol or isofucosterol (see *SI Appendix*), 100 µM *S*-(5′-sdenosyl)-*L*-methionine chloride

dihydrochloride (Sigma-Aldrich), and 0.1% Tween-80 (v/v) to a total reaction volume of 400 µL.

Reactions were held at 30 °C for 20 hours and then stored at -20 °C until lipid extraction.

Lipid Extraction. Lipids were extracted using a modified Bligh-Dyer method (74, 75) with

the completed in vitro reactions as the water phase. Reactions were sonicated in 10:5:4 (vol:vol:vol)

methanol:dichloromethane:water for 1 hour. The organic phase was then separated with twice the

volume of 1:1 (vol:vol) dichloromethane:water followed by storage at -20 °C for >1 hr. Following

centrifugation at 2,800 x g for 10 min at 4 °C, the organic phase was transferred and evaporated

under N_2 to give total lipid extracts (TLEs). TLEs were derivatized to trimethylsilyl ethers in 1:1

(vol:vol) pyridine:Bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide for 1 hr at 70 °C prior to GC-MS analysis.

GC-MS Analysis. Lipids were separated with an Agilent 7890B Series GC equipped with

two Agilent DB-17HT columns (30 m x 0.25 mm i.d. x 0.15 µm film thickness) in tandem with helium

as the carrier gas at a constant flow of 1.1 ml/min and programmed as follows: 100°C for 2 min,

then 12°C/min to 250°C and held for 10 min, then 10°C/min to 330°C and held for 17.5 min. 2 uL

of each sample was injected in splitless mode at 250°C. The GC was coupled to an Agilent 5977A

Series MSD with the ion source at 230°C and operated at 70 eV in EI mode scanning from 50 to

850 Da in 0.5 s. Sterols were identified based on retention time and comparison to previously

published spectra and laboratory standards and NMR analysis.

Structure confirmation of sterol products by NMR. In addition to GC-MS analysis,

structures of sterol products formed by the metagenomic sterol methyltransferases referred to as

"Aplysina aerophoba JGIcombinedJ30088_10000835 1 of 2", "Petrosia ficiformis LXNJ01000389",

and "Chlamydiae sp., drinking water 1 of 2" were confirmed by NMR. Briefly, total lipid extracts from

pooled in vitro reactions were fractionated using small silica pipet columns (1 mL) eluting with 5 mL

each of Hexane/EtOAc 9:1, 2:1, and 1:1. Steroidal constituents were found in the 2:1 solvent

fraction and concentrated with a stream of N_2 prior to further purification by preparative TLC

(Hexane/EtOAc 4:1). Sterols were separated by HPLC and the fractions were analyzed by 800

MHz NMR (45). Sterols were identified by comparison of the HSQC-DEPT and HMBC spectra with

reference compounds.

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 Figures and Tables

Figure 1. Sterol methyltransferases from sponges and bacteria perform multiple side chain

methylations. (*A*) Representative extracted ion chromatograms (*m/z* 456, 470, 484, 498) of total

lipid extracts from in vitro reactions performed with *E. coli* lysates containing an empty plasmid

(*Upper*), a sterol methyltransferase (SMT) identified in a freshwater metagenome-assembled

genome assigned to the phylum Chlamydiae (*Middle*), and an SMT identified in a metagenome

from the microbiome of the demosponge *Aplysina aerophoba* (*Lower*) with desmosterol as the

substrate. The Chlamydiae MAG SMT produces codisterol, 24-methylenecholesterol, 24-

methyldesmosterol, epiclerosterol, fucosterol, isofucosterol, 24-isopropenylcholesterol, and 24-

isopropylidenecholesterol. The *A. aerophoba* metagenome SMT produces codisterol, 24-

methylenecholesterol, epiclerosterol, fucosterol, isofucosterol, and 24-isopropenylcholesterol from

desmosterol. (*B*) Representative extracted ion chromatograms (*m/z* 456, 470, 484, 498) of total

lipid extracts from in vitro reactions performed with *E. coli* lysates containing an empty plasmid

(*Upper*), an SMT identified in a transcriptome of the demosponge *Chondrilla nucula* (*Middle*), and

the same SMT identified in the *A. aerophoba* metagenome as in (A) (*Lower*) with 24-

methylenecholesterol as the substrate. The *C. nucula* SMT produces (epi)clerosterol, and the *A.*

aerophoba metagenome SMT produces the same sterols as in (A). (*C*) Side chain structures of

sterols identified in (A) and (B). All lipids were derivatized to trimethylsilyls. Mass spectra of

identified sterols are shown in *SI Appendix*, Fig. S1.

Figure 2. Sterol gene clusters in demosponge metagenomes suggest de novo biosynthesis by bacterial symbionts. (*A*) Putative sterol biosynthesis gene clusters identified in metagenomes from the microbiomes of the demosponge species *Aplysina aerophoba, Petrosia ficiformis*, and *Theonella swinhoei*, each containing a sterol methyltransferase (gray arrows). Each gene cluster contains homologs of a fused squalene monooxygenase/oxidosqualene cyclase (red arrows),

sterol 14-alpha demethylase (green arrows), delta(14)-sterol reductase (blue arrows), and the

bacterial sterol demethylases *sdmA* and *sdmB* (purple arrows)*. (B)* Schematic of the bacterial sterol

biosynthesis pathway from squalene to 4-methylcholesta-8,24,-dien-3-ol. Arrow colors at each step

correspond to the putative homologs identifiied in (A). Detailed information on the source of each

metagenomic locus is available in *SI Appendix*, Table S2.

Figure 3. Maximum likelihood tree of sterol methyltransferases. The majority (23 out of 24) of the

putative bacterial SMTs tested here (blue) form two clades distinct from sponge SMTs (red) and

other eukaryotic SMTs (black), although bootstrap support is low. The numbers in parentheses

indicate the number of proteins in collapsed clades. Bolded labels indicate SMTs tested in this

study.

Table 1. Sterols identified as products of sponge and bacterial sterol methyltransferases.

	C28			C29			C30	
	codisterol (II)	24-methylenecholesterol (III)	24-methyldesmosterol (V)	(epi)clerosterol (IV)*	fucosterol (VI)	isofucosterol (VII)	24-isopropenylcholesterol (VIII)	24-isopropylidenecholesterol (IX)
DEMOSPONGIAE								
Amphimedon queenslandica		+			+			
Chondrilla nucula	+	+		+				
Sarcotragus fasciculatus	+	+			+			
Haliclona amboinensis	+	+		+	+	+		
Haliclona tubifera	+	+		+				
HOMOSCLEROMORPHA								
Oscarella pearsei	+	+		+	+	+		
Oscarella carmela	+	+						
CALCAREA								
Sycon ciliatum	+	+						
DEMOSPONGE METAGENOME								
Aplysina aerophoba JGIcombinedJ30088_10000835 1 of 2	+	+		+	+	+	+	
Aplysina aerophoba JGIcombinedJ30088_10000835 2 of 2								
Aplysina aerophoba Ga0209021_1000146	+	+	+		+	+		+
Petrosia ficiformis LXNJ01014139		+						
Petrosia ficiformis LXNJ01003202		+						
Petrosia ficiformis LXNJ01000389	+	+	+		+			
Petrosia ficiformis LXNJ01004423								
Sarcotragus foetidus		+						
DEMOSPONGE METAGENOME-ASSEMBLED GENOME								
Theonella swinhoei associated Chromatiales sp. 1 of 2		+						
Theonella swinhoei associated Chromatiales sp. 2 of 2								
OTHER METAGENOME								
Marine sediment, Gulf of Thailand		+						
Marine sediment, Helgoland, North Sea		+						
Western Arctic Ocean	+	+		+	+	+		
Freshwater, Lake Fryxell, Antarctica	+	+			+	+		
Lake sediment, Walker Lake, Nevada		+						
Hot spring, Beatty, Nevada								
Hot spring sediment, Dewer Creek, British Columbia		+						
OTHER METAGENOME-ASSEMBLED GENOME								
Chlamydiae sp., drinking water 1 of 2**	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Chlamydiae sp., drinking water 2 of 2	+		+					
Nitrospira sp., coral reef 1 of 2	+	+		+				
Nitrospira sp., coral reef 2 of 2								
Sandaracinus sp., marine 1 of 2	+	+						
Sandaracinus sp., marine 2 of 2	+	+		+	+	+		
Spirochaetes sp., soil		+						

649 *NMR confirmed epiclerosterol and not clerosterol as products of the "*Aplysina aerophoba*

650 JGIcombinedJ30088_10000835 1 of 2" and "Chlamydiae sp., drinking water 1 of 2" sterol

651 methyltransferases.

652 **24-isopropylcholesta-5,23-dienol was also detected as a product of the "Chlamydiae sp., drinking

653 water 1 of 2" sterol methyltransferase by NMR, but was not detected by GC-MS.