Comparative genomics: Dominant coral-bacterium *Endozoicomonas acroporae*

metabolizes dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP)

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Abstract

Dominant coral-associated *Endozoicomonas* bacteria species are hypothesized to play a role in

the coral-sulfur cycle by metabolizing Dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP) into Dimethylsulfide

(DMS); however, no sequenced genome to date harbors genes for this process. In this study, we

assembled high-quality (>95% complete) genomes of strains of a recently added species

Endozoicomonas acroporae (Acr-14^{T}, Acr-1 and Acr-5) isolated from the coral *Acropora*

muricata and performed comparative genomic analysis on genus *Endozoicomonas*. We

identified the first DMSP CoA-transferase/lyase—a *dddD* gene homolog found in all *E.*

acroporae strains—and functionally characterized bacteria capable of metabolizing DMSP into

DMS via the DddD cleavage pathway using RT-qPCR and gas chromatography (GC).

Furthermore, we demonstrated that *E. acroporae* strains can use DMSP as the sole carbon

source and have genes arranged in an operon-like manner to link DMSP metabolism to the

central carbon cycle. This study confirms the role of *Endozoicomonas* in the coral sulfur cycle.

Introduction

Coral reefs are one of the most diverse ecosystems on Earth, with over 800 different coral

species known to date. Of these, corals in the genus *Acropora* are some of the most abundant

reef-building corals across the Indo-Pacific region [1]. These corals are also some of the

significant producers of dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP) [2, 3]. DMSP is an organic sulfur

compound present in significant amounts in animals that harbor symbiotic algae such as

scleratinian corals and giant clams [2]. DMSP is present in coral tissues, mucus and

endosymbiotic dinoflagellates (Symbiodiniaceae) [4, 5]. In marine algae, DMSP acts as a

protectant from various stresses such as oxidative and osmotic stress [6]. Moreover, DMSP also

acts as an attractant for specific bacterial groups that have been reported to be part of coral-

associated bacterial communities and underpin coral health [7].

Once released from marine planktonic dinoflagellates, most of the DMSP is emanated to

surrounding water where it is readily available for microbial catabolic conversion as a source of

reduced carbon and sulfur [8, 9]. DMSP is a central molecule for marine sulfur cycling and is

degraded by bacteria via two pathways, a cleavage pathway and a demethylation pathway [9,

10]. The majority (~75%) of the DMSP is metabolized via the demethylation/demethiolation

pathway, producing methylmercaptopropionate [11, 12, 13]. The cleavage pathway, which

accounts for the remaining ~25%, produces dimethylsulfide (DMS)—a climate-active gas and

acrylic acid [13, 14, 15]. Genes and an enzyme (DddL) involved in the cleavage pathway has

been identified in *Sulfitobacter* [16]. Another gene, *dddD,* has been identified in *Marinomonas*

sp., which cleaves DMSP to produce DMS and 3-hydroxypropionate (3HP), not the usual

acrylate [13]. Moreover, DMSP metabolism yielding DMS and acrylate was recently also

identified in coccolithophore algae [17]. The DMS produced after cleavage of DMSP is then

released in the surrounding water [12].

Coral-associated bacterial communities are highly abundant, dynamic and diverse [18,

19, 20, 21]. These bacterial communities can be found in various niches associated with corals

like coral mucus [22], spaces in the skeleton [23, 24, 25], and within coral tissues [26, 27, 28].

Raina et al (2008) [8] confirmed that coral-associated bacteria have the potential to metabolize

organic sulfur compounds present in the coral tissues. They inferred that the majority of the

DMSP-degrading bacteria belongs to class *Gammaproteobacteria,* including *Alteromonas-,*

Arhodomonas-, Idiomarina-, Pseudomonas-, and *Spongiobacter (Endozoicomonas)*-related

organisms. Of these, *Arhodomonas-, Pseudomonas-,* and *Roseobacter*-related species harbor a

DMSP lyase—i.e. the *dddD* gene.

Of all the organisms in the tremendously diverse coral holobionts, species in the genus

Endozoicomonas (class: *Gammaproteobacteria*) have been studied widely for their genomics

and functional and ecological roles [29, 30]. *Endozoicomonas* species were found to be

abundant in the coral holobionts across the globe [31] and have been hypothesized to be

potential indicators of coral health [32]—they have high abundance in healthy corals and a

relatively low abundance in diseased or stressed corals [33, 34, 35]. Furthermore, nearly

complete and draft genomes of *Endozoicomonas* species isolated from corals and other marine

invertebrates [29, 34, 37] have been recently assembled. First, a nearly complete genome of

the *Endozoicomonas* isolate *Endozoicomonas montiporae* CL-33^T from the encrusting pore coral

Montiporae aequituberculata has provided insights into how this bacterium can interact with its

host from outside to inside of the coral cell with the help of potential effector proteins [30]. A

recent comparative genomics analysis also identified a high number of Type III secretion

system-related genes and that most gene ontology terms were associated with the generic

transport of molecules and those genomes of *Endozoicomonas* species show high plasticity

[30]. *Endozoicomonas* species have been hypothesized to play a role in the coral sulfur cycle by

effectively metabolizing DMSP into DMS [38, 39]. However, no study has confirmed the genus'

role and no sequenced genome has harbored any genes in this process [30]. Hence, the role of

this coral endosymbiont in the coral sulfur cycle remains elusive.

In this study, we assembled high quality and nearly complete draft genomes of newly

added *Endozoicomonas acroporae* strains and profiled its abundance in different coral species in

the Indo-pacific region. We identified and functionally characterized the first DMSP Co-A

transferase/lyase; dddD homolog in all *E. acroporae* strains. Furthermore, we provide conclusive

evidence that *E. acroporae* has a role in the coral sulfur cycle by effectively metabolizing DMSP

into DMS and is able to use DMSP as the sole carbon source for growth and survival.

Materials and Methods

Culturing and whole-genome sequencing of *E. acroporae* Acr-1, Acr-5 and Acr-14[T]

Strains of *E. acroporae* Acr-1, Acr-5 and Acr-14[T] were isolated from the coral *Acropora*

muricata from Kenting, off the southern coast of Taiwan, and cultured using a method described

previously [40]. Genomic DNA isolation was performed using the cetyltrimethylammonium

bromide (CTAB) method [41]; the quality of the isolated DNA was assessed using NanoDrop 1000

(Thermo Scientific, USA). High quality DNA was sent to the core sequencing facility at Biodiversity

Research Center, Academia Sinica (BRCAS), Taiwan for whole-genome sequencing on the Illumina

Miseq platform, with a TRUSeq DNA paired-end library generated to achieve an insert size of 500

bp.

Genome assembly and annotation

Reads obtained from Illumina MiSeq were quality-filtered and trimmed (Phred score ≥ 30)

using NGS QC toolkit v2.3.3 [42]. Quality-filtered and trimmed reads were *de novo* assembled

using CLC Genomics Workbench version 1.10.1 (Qiagen) with a bubble size of 40 and automatic

word size enabled. Minimum contig length was set to ≥500 bp (no scaffolding was performed).

Assembled genomes were quality checked for completeness, contamination, and heterogeneity

using CheckM [43]. Other *Endozoicomonas* species genomes were downloaded from the NCBI

genomes database (last accessed January 2018). Gene prediction was performed using Prokka

[44] on all genomes used in this study to avoid bias from different gene prediction methods.

Predicted genes were annotated by rapid annotation using the Subsystem Technology (RAST)

Server [45] with gene calls from Prokka preserved.

Identification of genomic characteristics

The *in-silico* DNA-DNA hybridization (DDH) percentages among the genomes of genus

Endozoicomonas were calculated using the genome-to-genome distance calculator from the

DSMZ   server   [46],   and   the   Average   Nucleotide   Identity   (ANI)   (https://enve-

omics.ce.gatech.edu/ani/) calculator was used to calculate the ANI values. Further, Amino-Acid

Identity   (AAI)   among   the   genomes   was   calculated   with   CompareM

(https://github.com/dparks1134/CompareM).   Clustered   Regularly   Interspaced   Short

Palindromic Repeat (CRISPR) structures in all genomes were identified using Prokka; prophages

and phages within the genomes were identified using the PHAge Search Tool (PHAST) [47], which

classified the phages as intact, incomplete and questionable. Type III secretion system (T3SS)

proteins were identified by EffectiveT3 [48] using EffectiveDB with the animal classification

module and selective (0.9999) restriction value method enabled. Insertion Sequence (IS)

elements in the genomes of *E. acroporae* strains and *E. montiporae* were identified using the

ISfinder database (https://www.is.biotoul.fr) with blastn and an e-value threshold of 1e-5.

16S rRNA gene phylogenetic analysis

To determine robust phylogenetic relationships within the genus *Endozoicomonas*, all

available 16S rRNA sequences (80 in number) were downloaded from the NCBI taxonomy

database, for which host information was available to understand the distribution of

Endozoicomonas species in different marine invertebrates and identify the position of *E.*

acroporae strains within the genus *Endozoicomonas*. Sequences were aligned using MUSCLE [49]

in MEGA7 [50] with default parameters, and conserved regions were extracted manually.

Furthermore, the conserved regions were again aligned using the above method. The

phylogenetic tree was constructed using the maximum-likelihood method with Kimura 2-

parameter and Gamma distributed with invariant sites enabled in MEGA7 with 1000 bootstraps.

E. acroporae **distribution and abundance in different coral species from the Indo-Pacific region**

We analyzed microbial community data publically available from three different

studies—1) our laboratory's previous study [34]; 2) a study of coral-associated bacterial

communities in the Red Sea [51]; and 3) coral-associated bacterial community from reefs in the

east and west coast of Australia, including Ningaloo Reef, Lizard Island, reefs from the northern

sector of the Great Barrier Reef, and Lorde Howe Island [52]—to profile the abundance of *E.*

acroporae strains in different corals species from Penghu Archipelago, Taiwan, the Red Sea, Saudi

Arabia, and east and west Australia. Operational Taxonomic Unit (OTU) abundance profiles and

their representative sequences were obtained from supplementary materials in Shiu JH et al,

2017 [34], Ziegler M et al, 2016 [51], and Pollock FJ et al, 2018 [52]. We performed similarity

searches on all the OTU sequences in the three studies against an in-house 16S rRNA gene

sequence database of *Endozoicomonas* species with standalone blastn [53] and profiled the

relative abundance of *E. acroporae* strains at the three locations with e-value <1e-5 and identity

threshold ≥ 97%.

Comparative genomics: Pan-genome analysis and core-genome phylogeny

Pan-genome analysis was performed with Roary [54] using GFF files of all the genomes

obtained with Prokka**.** Core genome identification and alignment was performed on all genomes

using the parameters *-i 80, -e, –n*. A core genome-based phylogenetic tree was constructed using

Fasttree [55] with –nt, -gtr parameters and visualized in the GENETYX-Tree Program

(https://www.genetyx.co.jp/).

Identification of stress response genes, *dddD CoA-transferase/lyase,* and DMSP metabolism

related operons

The Stress Response Subsystem was analyzed for distribution of different categories of

stress responsive genes present in the genomes of *Endozoicomonas*. The Sulfur Metabolism

Subsystem in the RAST analysis annotated a *dddD* gene capable of metabolizing DMSP into DMS

within the "Sulfur Metabolism- no subcategory." Furthermore, the presence of domains in the

dddD gene and DMSP metabolism-related operon genes was determined with web-based

Conserved Domain Search Service [56,57], NCBI, with default parameters.

DMSP degradation by strain Acr-14^T

Endozoicomonas acroporae Acr-14^T was cultivated on the Modified Marine Broth

Version 4 (MMBV4) medium [29] with several modifications (Supplementary Table S1) at 25 °C

for 48 hours. Carbon sources, 0.1 % maltose, and 0.5 mM DMSP were added to the enrichment

culture of strain Acr-14^{T}and kept at 25 °C for 24 hours (OD$_{600}$ of ~1.0 after incubation). The

enrichment culture was centrifuged at 2000 x g for 10 minutes, and the supernatant was

discarded. The enrichment culture pellet was washed with 1 ml fresh minimal medium

(Supplementary Table S2) twice to remove MMBV4 medium containing DMSP. Two

experimental groups were made for the test: (A) 1 ml of washed bacteria was resuspended in a

40 ml minimal medium containing 0.2% casamino acid and 1 mM DMSP; (B) 1 ml of washed

bacteria was resuspended in a 40 ml minimal medium containing 0.2% casamino acid without

DMSP. The cultures were sampled at 0, 16, 24 and 48 hours for RT-qPCR.

Gene expression of *dddD* by RT-qPCR

Total RNA was extracted using a TRI-reagent solution (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

The culture samples (1-2 ml) were centrifuged for 1 min at 12000 x g and 4 °C following the

manufacturer's guidelines. The RNA pellet was air-dried and resuspended in nuclease-free

water. Residual DNA was removed using a TURBO DNA-free Kit (Invitrogen). RNA quality was

determined using NanoDrop ND-1000 UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Nano-Drop Technologies).

RNA integrity was assessed by electrophoresis on 1% agarose-guanidine thiocyanate gel.

Complementary DNA (cDNA) was synthesized from purified RNA using the SuperScript IV First

Strand Synthesis System for RT-qPCR (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's guidelines. For

cDNA, RT and non-RT samples were screened for residual DNA contamination using the

hypervariable V6V8 region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene (U968F and U1391R).

A primer pair was made for the *dddD* gene based on the genome data of strain Acr-14^T

for Quantitative PCR using DNASTAR Lasergene [58] and Primer-BLAST tool on BLAST search

(NCBI): *dddD*-F (5'- ACCGCATCGCACCACTCAGG-3') and *dddD*-R (5'-GGCCCCGGTTGTTTCATCAT-

3'). The endogenous control was performed with *rpoD* gene, *rpoD*-F (5'-

AAGGCGGTGGACAAGTTCG-3') and *rpoD*-R (5'-GATGGTGCGGGCCTGGTCTG-3'). RT-qPCR assays

were carried out using Applied Biosystems QuantStudio^{TM} 5 Real-Time PCR System. The

standard cycling program consisted of cycles of UDG activation at 50 °C for 2 minutes, initial

denaturation-activation at 95 °C for 2 minutes and 40 cycles of denaturation at 95 °C for 10

seconds and annealing at 60 °C for 40 seconds using PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, USA). A dissociation step was performed to confirm the specificity of the

product and avoid the production of primer dimers. For all reactions, 10 ng of template DNA

was added to a reaction of 10 µl. The 10 µl reactions contained 5 µl of PowerUp SYBR Green

Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), 3.4 µl of sterilized nuclease-free water, 0.3 µl each

of the forward and reverse primers (final conc. 0.3 µM), and 1µl of DNA template. Each sample

was performed in duplicate. The relative quantification of the expression ratio was calculated

by the comparative $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_T}$ method. Differences between treatments were statistically tested

using *t-test*.

Quantification of released DMS

To assay the functional activity of the DddD protein in *Endozoicomonas acroporae* strain

Acr-14^T, cultures were first grown in MMB medium with 0.5 mM DMSP for 24 hours. After that,

3 ml culture was collected, spun down, and washed twice with minimal medium and then

resuspended with 1 ml minimal medium. This 1 ml culture was then injected into sterile 60 ml

vials sealed with a rubber stoppers containing designated medium Treatment (a): 20 ml

minimal medium with 0.2 % casamino acid, and 1 mM DMSP; Treatment (c): 20 ml minimal

medium with 0.2 % casamino acid, acting as the negative control; and a culture-free Treatment

(b): 20 ml minimal medium with 0.2 % casamino acid, and 1 mM DMSP acted as the control.

Vials were then incubated at 25 °C, 200 rpm, in dark. After incubation for 0, 24 and 48 hours, 1

ml of the head space air sample was collected and injected into a gas chromatograph

(Shimadzu, GC-14B) fitted with a flame ionization detector (150 °C) and column (SGE, 60m ×

0.53mm ID BP624 × 3.0 μm) to detect the DMS concentration.

E. acroporae growth on DMSP as the sole carbon source

E. acroporae Acr-1, Acr-5, and Acr-14^T and *E. montiporae* CL-33^T strains were cultivated on

MMB medium (along with 0.1% maltose for *E. montiporae* CL-33^T) at 25 °C for 72 hours. The

carbon source, 0.1 mM DMSP, was added to the enrichment culture of *E. acroporae* strains and

kept at 25 °C for 24 hours (OD$_{600}$ of ~0.3 after incubation). 0.1 mM DMSP and 0.1% maltose

were added to the enrichment culture of *E. montiporae* and kept at 25 °C for 24 hours (OD$_{600}$ of

~0.8 after incubation). The enrichment culture was centrifuged at 2000 x g for 10 minutes, and

the supernatant was discarded. The enrichment culture pellet was washed twice by 1 ml fresh

minimal medium. After resuspending with minimal medium, the enrichment cultures were

added to the treatments and adjusted to OD$_{600}$ of 0.06. All the treatments were kept at 25 °C,

200 rpm, and the OD_{600} of each treatment was recorded after incubating for 24, 48, and 72

hours.

E. acroporae Acr-14[T], Acr-1, Acr-5, and _E. montiporae_ CL-33[T] were cultivated in minimal

medium with 0.2% casamino acid and 0.1 mM DMSP to test their ability in usage DMSP as the

sole carbon source. Treatments with different concentrations of DMSP were set to confirm

whether _E. montiporae_ CL-33[T] can grow with DMSP or not. In these treatments, _E. montiporae_

CL-33[T] was cultivated in minimal medium with 0.2% casamino acid and 3 mM DMSP; 0.2%

casamino acid and 7 mM DMSP; 0.2% casamino acid and 1% maltose as a positive control.

Data Availability

Draft genomes of _E. acroporae_ Acr-1 and _E. acroporae_ Acr-5 have been deposited into GenBank

under accession IDs SAUT00000000 and SAUU00000000, respectively. _E. acroporae_ Acr-14[T]

genome has been previously made public under accession ID: PJPV00000000

Results

16S rRNA gene phylogeny and _E. acroporae_ abundance profiling in different coral species

from the Indo-Pacific region

All three strains of _E. acroporae_ had only one copy of 16S rRNA gene, compared to seven copies

in the _E. montiporae_ CL-33[T] genome (Supplementary Table S3). 16S rRNA gene based phylogeny

clustered sequences in a somewhat host-specific way (Supplementary Figure S1). We identified

separate clades for _E. montiporae_ and _E. acroporae_ (Supplementary Figure S1). The closest

relative of *E. acroporae* strains was a new species, *Endozoicomonas coralli*, within the same

clade, whose genome has not been sequenced yet. Another *Endozoicomonas* species was

Endozoicomonas atrinae WP70[T], whose genome has been sequenced.

Relative abundance profiles of *E. acroporae* strains were determined in different coral

species from three distinct geographical regions (Fig. 1). We determined that *E. acroporae* strains

were abundant in corals from the Red Sea, Saudi Arabia (15-22%); Penghu Archipelago, Taiwan

(>50%); and coral reefs in eastern (10-49%) and western (10-75%) Australia. Presence and

differential relative abundance of *E. acroporae* strains provide evidence that this species is one

of the abundant bacteria among coral holobionts spread across distinct geographic locations.

Genome assembly features

Whole-genome sequencing of *E. acroporae* isolates produced high-quality genome

assemblies with completeness >95% and contamination <3% (Supplementary Figure S2). The *E.*

acroporae Acr-1 genome was assembled into 299 contigs with a total size of 6,024,033 bp, and

we predicted 5,059 coding genes and 77 tRNAs. The *E. acroporae* Acr-5 genome was 6,034,674

bp in length with 295 contigs and 5,101 coding genes and 80 tRNAs. Genome assembly details of

E. acroporae Acr-14[T] were 6.048 Mb long, 309 contigs, 5018 coding genes and 81 tRNAs; these

have also been reported in an earlier study (Tandon K et al, 2018). A list of all genomes used in

this study—along with their genome size (4.049-6.69 Mb) and host (coral, sea slug, comb pen

shell and sponge)—is shown in Table S4. All *E. acroporae* genomes (Acr-1, Acr-5 and Acr-14[T]) had

similar genome sizes (6.024 -6.048 Mb) and GC contents (49.2, 49.3, and 49.3%, respectively).

Genomic characteristics of genus *Endozoicomonas*

Endozoicomonas species have large genomes ranging from 4.049 Mb (*Endozoicomonas* sp. AB1) to 6.69 Mb long (*E. elysicola* DSM22380). The average genome has ~5,100 protein coding genes and a GC content of 47.6%. The average DDH, ANI and AAI values among the *Endozoicomonas* species were ~46, ~73 and ~75%, respectively, which are at the lower end of the 62-100% range of interspecies variation within a genus (Kim M et al, 2014), indicating high genomic diversity (Fig. 2A, B, C).

A diverse array of IS elements were identified when comparing the genomes of *E. acroporae* and *E. montiporae* species. For example, of the total 44 IS elements identified, 22 were only present in *E. acroporae* genomes*,* while 18 were only present in *E. montiporae* genomes. Relatively few IS elements (ISEc46, ISEcret1, ISEc42 and ISPa18) were present in both species. Each genome also harbored some unique IS elements; among these, Acr-14[T] had 6 unique IS elements (Supplementary Figure S3).

E. acroporae genomes had more genes coding for T3SS with Acr-14[T] (523), Acr-5(499) and Acr-1 (499) than *E. monitporae* CL-33[T] (249)*, E. atrinae* WP70[T] (382) or other *Endozoicomonas* species (Supplementary Table S5). All the genomes encode complete pathways for the biogenesis of most amino-acids. We further identified different phage insertions in all *Endozoicomonas* genomes (Supplementary Table S6) and different CRISPR counts in the genomes of *E. acroporae* Acr-14[T], Acr-5 and Acr-1 (Supplementary Table S3).

Core genome phylogeny

Core gene (n=308)-based phylogenetic analysis identified a somewhat host-specific

phylogeny and also hinted towards a high genomic divergence within the species of genus

Endozoicomonas. Endozoicomonas genomes isolated from the same host clustered very tightly

together, e.g. *E. acroporae* and *E. montiporae* with the coral host and *E. ascidiicola* and *E.*

arenosclerae with a sponge host (Fig. 2D). Moreover, *E. numazuensis* and *E. arenosclerae*

genomes shared a branch, both being isolated from the sponge. *E. acroporae* Acr-1 and Acr-5

clustered tightly while sharing a branch with *E. acroporae* Acr-14^T, which confirms that Acr-1 and

Acr-5 are closer than Acr-14^T; the former had ANI value of 99.81%.

Analyzing RAST subsystems

RAST subsystems; carbohydrates, protein metabolism, and amino acids and derivatives

had the highest number of genes, representing an average of 11.69, 10.85 and 13.29% of total

annotated genes, respectively (Supplementary Figure S4), in all *Endozoicomonas* genomes. We

focused our analysis on two other important subsystems, stress response and sulfur metabolism.

The highest number of genes were annotated for oxidative stress (39.16% of stress genes) in the

stress response subsystem, followed by unclassified (16%) and detoxification stress (12.53%)

(Supplementary Figure S5). Interestingly, in sulfur metabolism, we identified a *dddD* gene

homolog capable of metabolizing DMSP into DMS in *E. acroporae* Acr-14^T, Acr-5, and Acr-1

genomes. This gene was not present in other *Endozoicomonas* genomes (Supplementary Table

S4). The *dddD* gene present in *E. acroporae* genomes have two identical CaiB domains (position:

1-416, 439-821) belonging to the coenzyme-A transferase superfamily (Supplementary Fig S7).

DMSP metabolism operon and links to the central carbon cycle

We identified homologs of the DMSP transcriptional regulator (LysR family), a sulfur transporter belonging to the betaine/carnitine/choline transporter (BCCT), and genes involved in producing acetate from DMSP (Fig. 3A). We discerned a complete pathway with genes arranged in a consecutive manner to form an operon that can yield acetate from DMSP metabolism via three-step enzymatic reactions mediated by DddD, 3-hydroxypropionate dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1.59), and malonate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase (EC 1.2.1.18) (Fig. 3B) in all the *E. acroporae* genomes with significant gene and protein identity for all the three genes (>97%) and proteins (>97%) (Fig. 3C). Identification of the DMSP cleavage pathway leading to central carbon metabolism suggested that *E. acroporae* species can use DMSP as a carbon source.

dddD gene activity and DMS quantification

RT-qPCR was used to examine the expression of the *dddD* gene in *E. acroporae* Acr-14^T. *dddD* gene expression increased with sampling time in the condition with 1 mM DMSP (Fig. 4A). *dddD* gene expression in this condition was 42.77, 56.52 and 91.37 times higher than samples without DMSP at 16, 24 and 48 hours, respectively (t-test, *p<0.05)*, confirming that *dddD* was active in *E. acroporae*. After confirming the *dddD* gene expression, we quantified the amount of DMS released by *E. acroporae* when incubated in a DMSP-rich environment with a time series detection (0, 24 and 48 hours). We identified that the DMS signal can only be detected in Treatment (a). There was no DMS signal in the control groups (Treatments (b) and (c)) (Fig 4B). A temporal increase in released DMS concentration in Treatment (a) confirmed the ability of *E. acroporae* to metabolize DMSP into DMS.

DMSP as the sole carbon source

E. acroporae Acr-14^T, Acr-1, Acr-5 all showed the ability to use DMSP as the sole carbon

source. Acr-14^T had a mean OD_{600} value ~0.7 at the 72-hour time point, which was the highest

across all treatments (Fig. 4C). The mean OD_{600} value of Acr-1 and Acr-5 was ~0.45 and ~0.3,

respectively, after three days of incubation (Fig. 4C). In contrast, *E. montiporae* CL-33^T did not

show any sign of growth across all time points (Fig. 4C). We than tested whether *E. montiporae*

CL-33^T could grow under different concentrations of DMSP, equivalent to the same carbon

concentration of maltose that can support *E. montiporae* growth (Supplementary Figure S6). The

result showed that the *E. montiporae* CL-33^T OD_{600} value did not increase across all treatments

0.1, 3, and 7 mM of DMSP after three days of incubation, which further confirmed that *E.*

montiporae CL-33^T cannot use DMSP as its sole carbon source, but also requires maltose as the

carbon source for growth (Supplementary Figure S6).

Discussion

In this study, we performed genomic (and comparative genomic) and functional assays,

and abundance profiling of strains from a newly added species *E. acroporae* in the exclusive

marine bacterial genus *Endozoicomonas.* We assembled high quality, nearly complete genomes

of *E. acroporae* strains and identified for the first time the *dddD* gene responsible for the

previously hypothesized ability of *Endozoicomonas* species to metabolize DMSP. Furthermore,

we characterized the functional activity of the identified gene, the ability of *E. acroporae* strains

to grow on DMSP as their sole carbon source. This is the first study to establish the role of an

Endozoicomonas species in the coral sulfur cycle with genomic and functional evidence.

Endozoicomonas species have been suggested to play a role in the coral sulfur cycle via

DMSP metabolism [8,59]. However, no gene related to DMSP metabolism was found in

previously sequenced *Endozoicomonas* genomes (Supplementary Table S4) [30]. Furthermore,

using enrichment cultures from coral mucus, tissue and skeleton, certain bacterial species have

been reported that can degrade DMSP, including *Spongiobacter (Endozoicomonas)*

nickelotolerans, but no gene was identified and it was hypothesized to use a different pathway

for DMSP degradation [8]. In this study, we investigated the sulfur metabolism pathway in high

quality and nearly complete draft genomes (Supplementary Figure S2) of *E. acroporae* strains and

identified a *dddD* gene, which is a Co-A transferase/lyase that cleaves DMSP to volatile DMS [9].

Among the eight identified DMSP lyases in different bacterial species, only *dddD* produces 3-HP

and DMS, whereas others form acrylate and DMS [60]. 3-HP is not the usual product of other

DMSP lyases, which directly produce acrylate after the cleavage due to their unusual organization

of class III Co-A transferase domains [61]. Co-A transferase domains present in the DddD protein

are similar to CaiB (Supplementary Figure S7), which is a homodimer capable of adding a Co-A to

carnitine [13].   RT-qPCR-based temporal analysis of *E. acroporae* strains in a DMSP-rich

environment showed that *dddD* activity increased significantly (Fig. 4A); moreover, the GC

analysis also showed that high amounts of DMS were released, providing the evidence that *dddD*

is functionally active (Fig. 4B).

Genomic analysis also identified genes arranged in consecutive order to form an operon

with DMSP transport, metabolism, and transcriptional regulator genes (Fig. 3A) in all the strains

of *E. acroporae*. *dddT* is a transporter that imports molecules like DMSP [13, 62], and thus has

been suggested to be an importer of DMSP. *dddR* is a transcription regulator with the ability to

activate the expression of the *dddD* gene in response to DMSP [13]. The functions of *dddB* and

dddC have not been characterized biochemically, but they are hypothesized to be involved in

oxido-reductive function based on their sequences similarity with other oxido-reductases,

thereby modifying DMSP either before or after the addition of acyl CoA moiety by *dddD* [13].

Interestingly, the arrangement of genes around *dddD* has been associated to be of the "Pick 'n

Mix" form in different DddD+ bacteria, like *Marinomonas sp.* MWYL1, *Sagittus* sp. E37, and *B.*

cepacia AMMD [62]; a similar pattern was observed in *E. acroporae* strains as well (Fig. 3A).

The ability of *E. acroporae* strains to use DMSP as their sole carbon source (Fig. 4C)

compared to *E. montiporae*—which is unable to utilize DMSP, even at higher concentrations

(Supplementary Figure S6)—is further evidence that *E. acroporae* strains can metabolize DMSP

and use it for growth and survival. This finding indicates that the DMSP metabolism is directly

linked to the central carbon cycle, as we predicted in the genomic analysis (Fig. 3B). Furthermore,

it also confirmed the hypothesis that marine bacteria that harbor *dddD* have the ability to grow

on DMSP as the sole carbon source [63].

Bacterial genome size can reflect that bacteria's evolutionary dependency on its host

when they are engaged in obligate symbiosis [64]. A striking feature of obligate symbionts is that

they have smaller genome sizes than facultative symbionts [65]. However, genomes of

Endozoicomonas species are relatively long, with a size range of 4.09 Mb to 6.69 Mb; this includes

E. acroporae strains, which have an average genome length of ~6.03 Mb, suggesting that they

might have free living stage. The possibility that *Endozoicomonas* species have a free living stage

is further supported by their large number of coding genes (Avg. ~5,000 proteins). These features

suggest that genome streamlining [66], a notable feature of symbiotic bacteria, does not

predominantly occur in genus *Endozoicomonas*. Moreover, a diverse array of phages

(Supplementary Table S6) and IS elements (Supplementary Figure S3) provides clues about the

infection and colonization histories of different marine hosts, aided by frequent divergence

events. Recent studies by Ding JY et al. (2016) [29] reported a high proportion of repeat

sequences and also a diverse variety of IS in the genome of *E. montiporae,* which may help the

bacterium adapt to the host and also identify the *N-deglycosylation* enzyme that helps penetrate

the mucus layer of the host. These findings suggest that *Endozoicomonas* can transition between

different symbiotic lifestyles.

We identified a high number of secretory genes (Type III secretion system, T3SS) in the all

the genomes of *E. acroporae* (Supplementary Table S5) that may help transport organic

maromolecules between the host and symbiont. The T3SS system helps bacteria interact with

their host, and a complete gene set for the assembly of this vital secretory system was observed

in all the genomes used in this study. *E. acroporae* has secretory genes that regulate host

mechanisms, similar to those of *E. montiporae*, and can increase the chances that bacteria survive

in the host while improving the host fitness. Additionally, other genes found in *E. acroporae* may

also provide clues about the survival strategy of *E. acroporae* in hosts. For example, identification

of a catalase gene in *E. acroporae* strains—along with phosphoenolpyruvate synthase and 7,8-

dihydro-8-oxoguanine triphosphatase as secretory genes from T3SS—can help the bacterium

survive by scavenging H_2O_2, modulating the gluconogeneis and confer resistance from oxidative

stresses to the host respectively. Up-regulating genes involved in gluconeogenesis have been

proposed as a response to stress-induced starvation in corals [67].

Phylogenetic analysis based on a core-genome (308 genes) clustered the species in a

somewhat host-specific manner, as it has done in previous studies [30, 31]. However, it was

interesting to see that, even when the host type is the same (i.e. stony coral), *E. montiporae* and

E. acroporae did not share any branch, and their strains cluster tightly within their clade, which

suggests that the co-diversification between host and symbiont is complex in nature (Fig. 2D).

Moreover, a highly reduced core genome along with similar ANI, DDH and AAI at the lower end

of inter species range give clues about the interspecies diversity within genus *Endozoicomonas*

(Fig. 2A, B, C).

With the high abundance of *Endozoicomonas* species reported in coral holobionts across

the globe and very few culturable isolates known to date, it has been hypothesized that

Endozoicomonas is either species specific or can have a large host range. In our study, we

identified as being *E. acroporae* prevalent in diverse coral species from geographically distant

locations in the Indo-Pacific region. Relative abundance varies among coral species (Fig. 1). The

presence of *E. acroporae* in different coral species supports the idea that this new species has a

large host range in the genus *Endozoicomonas;* it also highlights the importance of studying this

genus in greater detail. Identification of other isolates that can be cultured will enhance our

understanding of this diverse marine genus. This further points to the need to advance our

culturing techniques and combine the sequencing approaches with culturomics.

Endozoicomonas species have only been isolated from marine invertebrates; hence it is

reasonable to believe that *Endozoicomonas* and their hosts experiences ever-present oxidative

stress [69] in the marine environment. Identification of a high percentage of oxidative stress

response genes in all the genomes of *Endozoicomonas* provides clues for understanding its

adaptation to the marine environment and potential ability to mitigate oxidative stress.

Moreover, earlier studies have reported that DMSP, which has antioxidant properties, and its

breakdown products are functionally important in the coral stress response [69]. In our study,

we also identified 7,8-dihydro-8-oxoguanine triphosphatase as a T3SS effector protein, which

might provide resistance against mitochondrial dysfunction and spontaneous mutagenesis [29,

70] to the coral host during thermal stress, which is also an indication of a putative symbiotic

association between E. *acroporae* and *A. muricata.*

Conclusion

Endozoicomonas species have been long hypothesized to play a role in the coral sulfur cycle, and

this study provides genomic and functional evidence for the first time to support this hypothesis.

E. acroporae strains can not only metabolize DMSP to produce DMS, but also use it as the sole

carbon source for growth and survival. In our study we also identified the first DMSP-related

operon in *E. acroporae*, which links DMSP metabolism to the central carbon cycle. Furthermore,

the presence of stress responsive genes at higher proportions gives clues about how this genus

adapted in marine environments. Since very few species in this diverse marine genus have been

cultured to date, we believe that there are still many other functional aspects, and more focus

on this genus in regards to coral reef health can provide better insights in the near future.

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Author contribution

K.T and S.L.T conceived the idea for this study. K.T assembled the genomes, performed the

bioinformatics analysis, and wrote the manuscript. P.W.C cultured the strains and performed the

RT-qPCR analysis. C.Y.L and Y.F.C performed GC experiment and analysis. C.Y.L performed the

sole carbon test and analysis. N.W and S.Y helped write the manuscript and modify the

illustrations. P.Y.C, H.Y.C, and M.S.C helped with the GC experiments and provided the

instruments for conducting the experiment. W.M.C provided the cultures. S.L.T supervised the

overall study. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest

478   The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Figure Legends

Fig. 1. Distribution and abundance profiles of *E. acroporae* strains in the Red Sea, Saudi Arabia;

Penghu Archipelago, Taiwan; and eastern and western Australian coral reefs. The green color

shows relative abundance of *E. acroporae* strains.

Fig. 2. Genomics characteristics of genus *Endozoicomonas.* Heatmaps based on **A)** Average

Amino-acid Identity (AAI), **B)** Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI)**, C)** DNA-DNA Hybridization (DDH)

for all the sequenced genomes from genus *Endozoicomonas.* **D)** Core-genome (308)-based

phylogenetic tree.

Fig. 3. 3A) DMSP metabolism operon, with genes arranged in an operon manner with in all *E.*

acroporae strains, with a similar arrangement in *Marinomonas* sp. MWYL1, with different

putative DMSP transporters (*BetS* and *BetL*). **3B)** Metabolic pathway represented by the genes,

linking DMSP metabolism to the central carbon cycle, producing acetate from DMSP with the

release of DMS. **3C)** Heatmaps based on gene/protein identity for the three enzymes used in the

metabolic cycle, DddD, 3-hydroxypropionate dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1.59), and malonate-

semialdehyde dehydrogenase (EC 1.2.1.18).

Fig. 4. 4A) RT-qPCR of the *dddD* gene from *E. acroporae* Acr-14[T] to measure temporal expression

change in the presence of 1 mM DMSP. **4B)** GC-based quantification of DMS released from *E.*

acroporae Acr-14[T] cultures in the presence of DMSP (1mM). **4C)** Sole Carbon Test; *E. acroporae*

strains can use DMSP as the sole carbon source for their growth and survival, whereas *E.*

montiporae CL-33[T] cannot grow on DMSP as the sole carbon source.

| E. acroporae |
| Others |

Taiwan
A.m

Lizard Island, GBR
G.a   *Pa.c*   *P.d*   *Ps.d*   *St.p*

Red Sea
A.h   *P.v*

Multiple reefs along the northern GBR
A.hy   *G.a*

Western Australia
A.hy   *G.f*   *S.h*

Lorde Howe Island, GBR
A.p   *Al.a*   *Se.h*

3000 km

Acropora
  A. hemprichii (*A.h*)
  A. hyacinthus (*A.hy*)
  A. muricata (*A.m*)
  A. pallifera (*A.p*)

Pocillopora
  P. verrucosa (*P.v*)
  P. damicornis (*P.d*)

Galaxea
  G. fascicularis (*G.f*)
  G. astreata (*G.a*)

Playthoa
  P. caesia (*Pa.c*)

Psammacora
  P. digitata (*Ps.d*)

Seriatopora
  S. hystrix (*Se.h*)

Stylophora
  S. pistiallata (*St.p*)

Alveopora
  A. allingi (*Al.a*)

A

B

C