

Comparative genomics and mutational analysis reveals a novel XoxF-utilising methylotroph in the Roseobacter group isolated from the marine environment

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The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest

Author contribution statement

JCM and YC conceived the project. AH conducted all lab work except sequencing, annotation and comparative genomics, which was conducted by JV and AK. CM, CG, MT, JT and JD provided guidance and insight during the project. AH and JV wrote the manuscript, with all authors providing constructive feedback and approval of the final manuscript.

Keywords

Methylotrophy, xoxF, marine environment, Roseobacter, Comparative genomics, Methanol, Methanol dehydrogenase

Abstract

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The Roseobacter group comprise a significant group of marine bacteria which are involved in global carbon and sulfur cycles. Some members are methylotrophs, using one-carbon compounds as a carbon and energy source. It has recently been shown that methylotrophs generally require a rare earth element when using the methanol dehydrogenase enzyme XoxF for growth on methanol. Addition of lanthanum to methanol enrichments of coastal seawater facilitated the isolation of a novel methylotroph in the Roseobacter group: Marinibacterium anthonyi strain La 6. Mutation of xoxF revealed the essential nature of this gene during growth on methanol and ethanol. Physiological characterisation demonstrated the metabolic versatility of this strain. Genome sequencing revealed that strain La 6 has the largest genome of all Roseobacter group members sequenced to date, at 7.18 Mbp. Multi-locus sequence (MLSA analysis showed that whilst it displays the highest core gene sequence similarity with subgroup 1 of the Roseobacter group, it shares very little of its pangenome, suggesting unique genetic adaptations. This research revealed that the addition of lanthanides to isolation procedures was key to cultivating novel XoxF-utilising methylotrophs from the marine environment, whilst genome sequencing and MLSA provided insights into their potential genetic adaptations and relationship to the wider community.

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19 Running head: Lanthanum and methylotrophy in the marine environment

20 1 Abstract

The Roseobacter group comprise a significant group of marine bacteria which are involved in 21 22 global carbon and sulfur cycles. Some members are methylotrophs, using one-carbon compounds as a carbon and energy source. It has recently been shown that methylotrophs 23 generally require a rare earth element when using the methanol dehydrogenase enzyme XoxF 24 for growth on methanol. Addition of lanthanum to methanol enrichments of coastal seawater 25 facilitated the isolation of a novel methylotroph in the Roseobacter group: Marinibacterium 26 anthonyi strain La 6. Mutation of xoxF5 revealed the essential nature of this gene during 27 28 growth on methanol and ethanol. Physiological characterisation demonstrated the metabolic versatility of this strain. Genome sequencing revealed that strain La 6 has the largest genome 29 of all Roseobacter group members sequenced to date, at 7.18 Mbp. Multi-locus sequence 30 31 (MLSA analysis showed that whilst it displays the highest core gene sequence similarity with subgroup 1 of the Roseobacter group, it shares very little of its pangenome, suggesting unique 32 genetic adaptations. This research revealed that the addition of lanthanides to isolation 33 34 procedures was key to cultivating novel XoxF-utilising methylotrophs from the marine environment, whilst genome sequencing and MLSA provided insights into their potential 35 genetic adaptations and relationship to the wider community. 36

37 2 Introduction

38 Previous research has shown that methanol in the oceans can reach concentrations of up to 420 nM (Williams et al., 2004; Beale et al. 2011; Dixon et al., 2011; Beale et al., 2013; 39 Dixon et al., 2013; Read et al., 2012 and Kameyama et al., 2010). There has long been a 40 debate as to whether the ocean is a source or sink of methanol, however it has recently been 41 revealed that various phytoplankton in laboratory cell cultures produce substantial 42 concentrations of methanol (0.8-13.7 µM) (Mincer and Aicher 2016). Based on these data it 43 was estimated that phytoplankton could be the largest global source of methanol, far 44 45 exceeding terrestrial plant emissions. Given the availability of methanol in the oceans, it is not surprising that some marine bacteria are able to degrade it. Methylotrophic bacteria can 46 use one-carbon compounds, such as methanol, as a carbon and energy source (reviewed in 47 Anthony, 1982; Chistoserdova et al., 2009; Chistoserdova, 2011a). The first step in methanol 48 oxidation is catalysed by methanol dehydrogenases (MDH). The best characterised MDH is 49 the Ca²⁺ containing periplasmic pyrroloquinoline quinone (PQQ)-dependent MDH found in 50 Gram negative methylotrophs, which is an $\alpha_2\beta_2$ protein encoded by mxaF and mxaI 51 (Anthony 1986; Chistoserdova 2011). A second type of methanol dehydrogenase (XoxF) 52 53 encoded by a homologue of mxaF, xoxF, has been discovered in many methylotrophs 54 (Chistoserdova and Lidstrom 1997; Giovannoni et al. 2008; Chistoserdova 2011; Keltjens et al. 2014). This MDH is phylogenetically very diverse. With five clades (named xoxF1-5) and 55 often multiple gene copies present, it is generally difficult to examine the exact role in 56 methylotrophs of MDH enzymes encoded by xoxF (Chistoserdova 2011; Keltjens et al. 57 2014). 58

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Knowledge of marine methylotrophs has arisen from their isolation and characterisation 60 (Yamamoto et al. 1978; Strand and Lidstrom 1984; Janvier et al. 1985; Schaefer et al. 2002; 61 Giovannoni et al. 2008) and through the use of functional gene probing (McDonald & 62 Murrell 1997; Neufeld et al. 2007). For example, using mxaF primers, Dixon et al., (2013) 63 identified methylotrophs such as *Methylophaga* sp., *Burkholderiales*, *Methylococcaceae* sp., 64 Paracoccus denitrificans, Methylophilus methylotrophus, Hyphomicrobium sp. 65 and Methylosulfonomonas methylovora in open Atlantic waters. Active marine methylotrophs 66 have been found to be associated with phytoplankton blooms in the English Channel 67 68 (Neufeld et al., 2008), and uncultivated Methylophaga have been identified after enrichments with ¹³C-labelled methanol or methylamine in DNA Stable Isotope Probing (DNA-SIP) 69 experiments using seawater from the same location (Neufeld et al., 2007; Neufeld et al., 70 71 2008; Grob et al., 2015).

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73 Marine bacteria of the Roseobacter group often comprise over 20% of the total bacterial community in coastal environments, and play key roles in the global carbon and sulfur cycles 74 75 (Pradella, Päuker, and Petersen 2010; Wagner-Döbler and Biebl 2006; Buchan, González, and Moran 2005). Many strains are associated with phytoplankton (Jose M Gonzalez et al. 76 77 2000; Grossart et al. 2005; Amin, Parker, and Armbrust 2012; Amin et al. 2015) and some 78 are known to utilise one-carbon compounds (J M Gonzalez et al. 1997; Schäfer et al. 2005; F. 79 Sun et al. 2010). For example, the methylotroph Marinovum algicola was isolated from the dinoflagellate Prorocentrum limais (Lafay et al. 1995). Hence, it is possible that such close 80 81 associations are due to the ability of some Roseobacter group members to use methanol and/or other one-carbon compounds excreted by phytoplankton as carbon and energy sources. 82 Moreover, amplicon sequencing of xoxF genes from clade 5 (xoxF5) amplified from different 83 coastal sites (Taubert et al., 2015) revealed high relative abundances of sequences from the 84

85 *Rhodobacteraceae* family such as *Sagittula* (a known marine methylotroph), but also of many

- unclassified *Rhodobacteraceae* sequences, supporting the hypothesis that many members of
 the Roseobacter group are capable of methylotrophy *in situ*. It is therefore important that the
 methylotrophic abilities of the marine Roseobacter group is re-examined (Martens et al.
 2006; Pradella, Päuker, and Petersen 2010).
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91 Recent research has revealed the importance of rare earth elements (REEs) such as the 92 lanthanides cerium and lanthanum during the growth of XoxF-utilising methylotrophs (Keltjens et al. 2014; Farhan Ul-Haque et al. 2015; Vu et al. 2016; Chistoserdova 2016). Not 93 only have these lanthanides been shown to be present at the catalytic site of XoxF, but they 94 95 are also involved in the up-regulation of the expression of xoxF and down-regulation of the expression of the mxaFI genes encoding the classic MDH (Nakagawa et al. 2012; Pol et al. 96 2014; Bogart, Lewis, and Schelter 2015; Wu et al. 2015; Keltjens et al. 2014; Farhan Ul-97 98 Haque et al. 2015).

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REEs are highly insoluble and are rarely found in pure form (Hu et al. 2004) and due to the 100 relative difficulty in quantifying REEs, they are not usually measured during environmental 101 sampling. Studies have shown that concentrations can range from high nM in estuarine and 102 coastal environments (Elderfield, Upstill-Goddard, and Sholkovitz 1990; Hatje, Bruland, and 103 Flegal 2014) to pM concentrations in open oceans (Garcia-Solsona et al. 2014; Greaves, 104 Rudnicki, and Elderfield 1991). However, very little is known about the bioavailability of 105 REEs in the marine environment. The REE-specific xoxF gene is found in the genomes of a 106 broad range of bacteria and is widely distributed throughout marine environments 107 108 (Chistoserdova 2016; Taubert et al. 2015). It is clear, therefore, that the routine addition of REEs to enrichments is vital in capturing and isolating new methylotrophs. Here we report on 109 the isolation of a novel methylotrophic Roseobacter (strain La 6) from lanthanum-110 111 supplemented enrichments containing methanol and seawater from the coast of Plymouth, UK. The methylotrophic nature of this strain was further characterised, and the genome 112 sequenced and compared to other members of the Roseobacter group. 113

114

115 **3 Methods**

116 **3.1** Strains, plasmids and culture conditions

Strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 1. Strain La 6 was maintained on Marine Broth 2216 (Difco, MB) (1.5% agar) or Marine Basal Medium (MBM) with 5 mM carbon source and grown at 25°C unless otherwise stated. *Escherichia coli* was grown at 37°C on Luria-Bertani (LB) (Sambrook and W Russell 2001). Antibiotics were used at the following concentrations (μg ml⁻¹): kanamycin (20), gentamicin (10) and rifampicin (20), unless otherwise stated. All carbon sources were added at 5 mM and lanthanides at 5 μ M.

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125 **3.2** Lanthanide experiments and isolation of strain La 6

Seawater used for all experiments was collected from station L4 of the Western Channel 126 127 Observatory, Plymouth, UK (50°15.0'N; 4°13.0'W). For lanthanide addition experiments, triplicate gas-tight 2 L bottles were filled with 0.75 L of surface seawater, with the addition of 128 0.1% marine ammonium mineral salts (MAMS) medium (Goodwin et al. 2001), 5 mM 129 methanol and either 5 µM lanthanum, cerium, both or no metals (added as chloride 130 heptahydrate salts). Enrichments were incubated at 25°C in a shaking incubator (50 rpm) and 131 the methanol headspace concentration was monitored by gas chromatography as a proxy for 132 133 methanol consumption in the liquid phase (methods described in supplementary information).

Strain La 6 was isolated in October 2014 using the same experimental set up as the lanthanide addition experiments, with only lanthanum as the added metal. Enrichments were incubated for 5 days, serial dilutions of this enrichment were then plated onto MBM medium containing lanthanum and incubated with methanol in the headspace of a gas tight chamber for 8 days. Colonies were re-streaked to purify and growth on methanol was confirmed by inoculation into liquid MBM containing methanol and lanthanum. Methods for physiological characterisation of the strain can be found in the supplementary information.

142 **3.3 Genetic manipulations**

A single allelic exchange method was used to generate an insertional mutation in the xoxF143 gene of Marinibacterium sp. La 6 (Todd et al. 2011). A 672bp internal fragment of the xoxF 144 gene was amplified by PCR, ligated into the suicide vector pK19mob (Schäfer et al., 1994) to 145 form p672xoxF and transformed into E. coli. Plasmid p672xoxF was conjugated into strain 146 La 6^{Rif}, a spontaneous rifampicin-resistant mutant, in triparental matings with helper plasmid 147 pRK2013 (Figurski and Helinski 1979). Rif^R and Kan^R single cross over transformants were 148 checked using colony PCR with primers that amplified a region spanning from within the 149 disrupted genomic xoxF gene to inside the kanamycin cassette of the incorporated p672xoxF150 plasmid (Supplementary Table 1). The mutant strain was termed La 6 XoxF⁻. To complement 151 strain XoxF, the complete xoxF sequence was amplified by PCR, ligated into the broad host 152 range vector pLMB509 (Tett et al. 2012) and transformed into E. coli. Transconjugants were 153 screened using the primers that were used to originally amplify the xoxF gene and the insert 154 was then sequenced. The confirmed plasmid was termed p509LA6. This plasmid was then 155 conjugated into La 6^{Rif} using triparental matings, and the resulting complemented strain was 156 termed La 6 XoxF⁻ p509LA6. 157

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159 **3.4** Genome sequencing, assembly and annotation

Genomic DNA was extracted using the CTAB (cetyl-trimethylammonium bromide) method 160 of Doyle & Doyle (1987). The genome of strain La 6 was sequenced as follows: standard 161 and mate-pair sequencing libraries were produced using Illumina kits and run on a Miseq 162 machine using V3 chemistry with a paired-end approach and 301 cycles per read. Reads were 163 adapter-clipped and quality trimmed using Trimmomatic (Bolger, Lohse, and Usadel 2014). 164 Mate-pair reads were additionally clipped, sorted and re-orientated using NxTrim (O'Connell 165 et al. 2015). Potential PhiX and vector contamination were filtered out using fastq_screen 166 (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastq_screen/), while low complexity 167 168 reads (consisting entirely of only one base type or direct short oligonucleotide repeats) were removed using prinseq (Schmieder and Edwards 2011). Potential overlapping paired-end 169 reads were merged using FLASH (Magoč and Salzberg 2011). Assembly was done using 170 Spades v.3.8. ORF-calling and annotation were done using the PROKKA pipeline v.1.12 171 (Seemann 2014). The draft genome sequence of strain La 6 is available in GenBank under 172 accession number NSDV0000000; the strain deposit number is DSM 104755. 173

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175 **3.5** Comparative genomics

For MLSA, the unique core genome of 94 comparison genomes (including *Pavularcula bermudensis* HTCC2503 as the outgroup) consisting of 219 gene products with a combined length of 95,680 amino acid residues was determined using the bidirectional BLAST+ approach implemented in proteinortho5 (Lechner et al. 2011), excluding all genes with duplicates in any comparison genome. After alignment with muscle (Edgar 2004), the gene products were concatenated and un-alignable regions were filtered out using gblocks

(Castresana 2000), leaving 56,810 aligned amino acid residues for phylogenetic analysis.
Clustering was performed using the Neighbour Joining algorithm with 1,000 bootstrap permutations.

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For gene content analyses, a binary matrix was constructed, representing the presence or absence of orthologous groups identified by the bidirectional BLAST+ approach mentioned above. In order to prevent artefacts caused by fragmented or falsely predicted genes, all singletons were excluded from the analyses (requiring each considered orthologous group to be present in at least two different genomes). This resulting binary matrix was converted into a distance matrix and clustered using the neighbour joining algorithm and 1,000 bootstrap permutations.

193

194 **4 Results and Dicussion**

1954.1Isolation of a novel methylotroph using lanthanum

Traditional methylotroph enrichment and isolation experiments using water from station L4 196 197 of the Western Channel Observatory (Plymouth, UK; 50°15.0'N; 4°13.0'W) not supplemented with lanthanides frequently gave rise to the isolation of Methylophaga sp. 198 (Howat 2017), whilst cultivation-independent research using DNA-SIP consistently showed 199 that *Methylophaga* are also the dominant methylotrophs metabolising methanol in enrichment 200 201 cultures (Neufeld et al. 2007; Neufeld, Chen, et al. 2008; Grob et al. 2015). Methylophaga spp. contain both mxaF and multiple copies of xoxF, and while there has been no direct 202 203 evidence that Methylophaga spp. use MxaF rather than XoxF during growth on methanol, high levels of MxaF expression have been observed when methylotrophs are grown on 204 methanol, suggesting the use of this calcium-containing methanol dehydrogenase enzyme 205 (Choi et al. 2011; Kim et al. 2012). However, the model methylotroph Methylobacterium 206 extorquens also contains both xoxF and mxaF genes, and work on this bacterium showed that 207 it expressed XoxF instead of MxaF when lanthanide concentrations were higher than 100 nM 208 (Vu et al. 2016). It may be possible that the seawater used in previous methanol enrichment 209 experiments described above did not contain sufficient concentrations of REEs to support 210 growth of XoxF-utilising methylotrophs. Therefore, the effect of the addition of lanthanides 211 to seawater enrichments containing methanol was examined using surface seawater from 212 station L4, Plymouth. 213

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Methanol enrichments containing either 5 µM lanthanum, cerium or both showed a 215 216 significant increase in methanol depletion ($p \le 0.05$) compared to those without, suggesting that the bacterial oxidation of methanol was stimulated by the addition of the metals 217 (Supplementary Figure 1). When lanthanum was then added to subsequent enrichments and 218 219 isolation agar, a novel methylotroph (strain La 6) was isolated from station L4. This strain represented three out of 20 screened isolates selected for their ability to grow on methanol; all 220 other strains being Methylophaga sp.). The corresponding 16S rRNA gene sequence of the 221 isolate was 99% identical to Marinibacterium profundimaris strain 22II1-22F33T 222 (Supplementary Figure 2) (Li et al. 2015) (Li et al. 2015). The relatively low colony counts of 223 this isolated Roseobacter probably reflected the fact that they were a small proportion of the 224 225 methylotrophs present in the seawater enrichment, however previous research using very similar enrichment procedures gave rise to no Roseobacters at all (Howat, 2017), suggesting 226 that the addition of lanthanum aided methylotrophic growth of Roseobacters to support a 227 228 population dense enough to be subsequently isolated.

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- PCR assays on genomic DNA from strain La 6 and subsequent Sanger sequencing indicated that the isolate contained only one copy of xoxF from clade 5 and no mxaF in its genome (later confirmed by genome sequencing, see below). When grown in MBM, strain La 6 exhibited lanthanum-stimulated growth on methanol, whilst there was an absolute requirement for lanthanum ions when grown on ethanol as carbon source (**Figure 1**).
- 235
- 236 *M. profundimaris* was not previously tested for growth on methanol and its genome contained 237 no predicted MDH. Therefore the physiology of strain La 6 was further characterised, the 238 genome sequenced and its ability to grow methylotrophically was investigated to further 239 understand the role of xoxF5 in this marine strain.
- 240

241 4.2 Physiological characteristics

Strain La 6 utilised a wide range of carbon compounds including methanol, ethanol, propane
and butane (for a full list of compounds see Supplementary Table 2). Tests for growth of the
strain on methanol at concentrations higher than 5 mM yielded no increase in final cell
density.

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Strain La 6 is a Gram negative, ovoid rod, $0.8-2.2 \mu m$ long and $0.5-1.2 \mu m$ wide when grown on minimal medium. It is non-motile when tested on swimming, swarming or twitching motility plates and in liquid medium. Colonies are very pale cream and 0.5-1.0 mm in diameter, uniformly circular, convex and opaque after growth on MBM minimal media at $25^{\circ}C$ for 6 days. Colonies are cream and 0.6-1.2 mm in diameter, uniformly circular, convex and opaque after growth on marine agar 2216 at $25^{\circ}C$ for 4 days.

253

Temperature range for growth was 4-45°C, with the optimum at 37°C. The pH range for 254 growth was pH 4.5-9 (optimum 7.5) and the NaCl concentrations for growth were 0-15% w/v 255 (optimum 3%), with no growth at 20%. It did not grow under anaerobic conditions and did 256 257 not reduce either nitrate or nitrite. It did not hydrolyse cellulose, gelatine or starch, nor did it ferment glucose or lactose aerobically or anaerobically. Strain La 6 was negative for 258 259 thiosulfate oxidation. It produced indole-acetic acid when supplemented with tryptophan, but not without. Strain La 6 did not produce any acetone/methanol extractable pigments or 260 bacteriochlorophyll a after growth in either a light/dark cycle or in the dark after 5 days at 261 22°C, therefore suggesting growth of the isolate is exclusively chemoheterotrophic and non-262 photosynthetic. Strain La 6 required vitamin B_{12} for growth, and was oxidase and catalase 263 positive. Like many of the family of the Rhodobacteraceae, the principle fatty acid 264 265 composition was $18:1\omega7c$ (67.83%) and had a fairly similar profile to *M. profundimaris* 22II1-22F33, however it can be differentiated by the presence of summed feature 2 (14:0 3-266 OH/16:1) (7.31%), (Supplementary Table 3). 267

268

4.3 Genome sequencing and genome analysis of strain La 6

Sequencing of the genome of strain La 6 yielded 15 contigs covering a total length of 7.2 270 Mbp (mol % GC content 65.4). Based on sequence similarities, 73% of protein-coding genes 271 272 could be assigned a putative function, whilst one quarter of them were classified as 'hypothetical', using the software tool PROKKA (Seemann 2014) (full genome statistics are 273 summarised in **Table 1**). Assessment of the genome quality using CheckM (Parks et al. 2015) 274 yielded a 'completeness' value of 99.41%, which is above the average value of 99.1% found 275 in the currently published Roseobacter group genomes, indicating complete genome 276 reconstruction (Supplementary Table 4). The genome suggested a complete tricarboxylic acid 277

cycle (TCA) pathway and genes for the pentose phosphate pathway, Entner-Doudoroff and
Embden-Meyerhof pathways. It contained all genes required for ammonia assimilation
(including glutamate dehydrogenase, glutamine synthetase, glutamine oxoglutarate
amidotransferase and alanine dehydrogenase) and those encoding nitrogenase; it did not
contain genes encoding ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase.

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4.4 Genome-inferred methylotrophic pathways in strain La 6

Genome sequencing confirmed that xoxF from clade 5 (xoxF5, one copy) was the only 285 predicted MDH-encoding gene in the genome of strain La 6, and that it was adjacent to xoxG286 (encoding an associated cytochrome c used as an electron acceptor during methanol 287 oxidation) and xoxJ, encoding a putative periplasmic binding protein (Chistoserdova 2011). 288 Adjacent genes were similar to those found in the known methylotrophs Rhodobacter 289 sphaeroides and Paracoccus aminophilus JCM7686, that employ the glutathione-dependent 290 formaldehyde oxidation pathway (Wilson, Gleisten, and Donohue 2008; Dziewit et al. 2015) 291 292 and only contain *xoxF5* (Figure 2).

293

294 In R. sphaeroides, the formaldehyde produced by XoxF is initially converted to S-295 hydroxymethyl-gluthathione (GS-CH₂OH) by a glutathione-formaldehyde activating enzyme (Gfa) or by a spontaneous reaction. This is then further oxidised by other enzymes to CO_2 to 296 generate energy (Wilson, Gleisten, and Donohue 2008). However, unlike R. sphaeroides, the 297 298 gene cluster around xoxF5 of strain La 6 does not contain gfa (see Figure 2). BLAST searches of the genome using the Gfa from R. sphaeroides revealed some candidates, 299 however none were more than 35% identical at the amino acid level. Searches for a 300 formaldehyde activating enzyme gene, fae, which is used in other organisms revealed no 301 candidates either (Vorholt et al. 2000). It is possible, therefore, that strain La 6 either does not 302 contain a gene responsible for converting formaldehyde to GS-CH₂OH, relying solely on a 303 spontaneous chemical reaction, or it has an as yet-unidentified mechanism (Figure 3). 304

305

La 6 contained gmaS, a key gene of the N-methylglutamate pathway for methylamine 306 metabolism. It did not contain, mauA, the gene encoding for a subunit of an alternative 307 308 methylamine degrading enzyme, methylamine dehydrogenase. However, the strain was unable to grow on methylamine as a carbon and energy source (Supplementary 309 information). Lastly, strain La 6 also contains the gene encoding methyl-H4F reductase 310 (MetF) which oxidises methyl-H4F originating from demethylation reactions such as in the 311 metabolism of DMSP or chloromethane (Studer et al. 2001; Studer et al. 2002; Reisch et al. 312 2008; Curson et al. 2011). However, strain La 6 did not contain the *cmuAB* or *dmdA* genes 313 that would suggest metabolism of chloromethane or DMSP (further discussed below). 314

315

For carbon assimilation, the genome of strain La 6 contains all the genes of the 316 tetrahydrofolate-linked (H₄F) pathway. This pathway generates the key metabolite 317 methylene-H₄F, which can either feed into the serine cycle for assimilation or serve as a 318 further source of formate for generating energy (Chistoserdova, 2011). In strain La 6, this 319 pathway may either rely on the spontaneous reaction between formaldehyde and H₄F or it 320 may also be possible that FolD (bifunctional methylene-H₄F dehydrogenase-methenyl-H₄F 321 cyclohydrolase) can function in the reductive direction and generate methylene-H₄F for 322 assimilation (Chistoserdova, 2011). Formate generated through the glutathione-linked 323 pathway could be fed via the reversible enzyme formyl-H₄F ligase (FtfL) and methenyl-H₄F 324 cyclohydrolase (Fch) onto FolD. The genome of strain La 6 also contains genes encoding for 325 three formate dehydrogenases (FDH); FDH1, 2, and 3. 326

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Strain La 6 contained all the genes of the serine pathway. Methylotrophs utilizing the serine cycle require an additional pathway for regenerating glyoxylate; strain La 6 encodes all the genes for the ethylmalonyl-CoA pathway (EMCP) and does not contain isocitrate lyase, whilst it also had the potential to make PHB, containing the PHB synthase genes. A summary of predicted methylotrophic pathways based on the genome sequence and some physiological data is shown in **Figure 3**.

334

4.5 The role of XoxF during growth of strain La 6 on methanol and ethanol

XoxF5 is the sole MDH responsible for methanol oxidation in the two relatives of the 336 Rosoebacter group, R. sphaeroides and P. aminophilus. However there are many 337 Roseobacters that contain either a single xoxF from clade 5 but are unable to grow on 338 methanol (or have not been tested) or the role of xoxF5 of those that do grow on methanol 339 340 was not previously examined (Shiba 1991; Lee et al. 2007; Li et al. 2015; Cho and 341 Giovannoni 2006). Thus, we investigated the role of the *xoxF5* gene in strain La 6. Mutation of xoxF5 in strain La 6 abolished the growth of the mutant strain La 6 XoxF⁻ on both 342 methanol and ethanol (Figure 4). Cell-free extracts of the wild-type strain grown on 343 344 methanol contained substantial methanol dehydrogenase activity (262 nmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ protein; \pm 6 s.e). SDS-PAGE and mass spectrometry analysis of the wild-type grown on 345 various carbon sources (methanol, ethanol, succinate or benzoate) revealed the expression of 346 XoxF in cells grown under all of these conditions, whilst the mutant did not express XoxF 347 348 (Supplementary Figure 3). Complementation of the mutant with the wild-type xoxF5 gene restored growth on both methanol and ethanol. SDS-PAGE analysis of cell free-extracts of 349 this complemented xoxF5 mutant confirmed restoration of expression of XoxF5 350 351 (Supplementary Figures 3 and 4). These data confirm that xoxF5 is directly involved in the oxidation of methanol and ethanol in strain La 6 and that XoxF5 is essential for growth on 352 these compounds. 353

354

355 **4.6 Roseobacter-specific traits**

Members of the Roseobacter group are known to grow on various aromatic and phenolic 356 compounds (Buchan 2001; Buchan, Neidle, and Moran 2004; Alejandro-Marín, Bosch, and 357 Nogales 2014). The ability of these organisms to degrade naturally occurring but potentially 358 harmful compounds such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) demonstrates the 359 ecological importance of the Roseobacter group (Seo, Keum, and Li 2009). When tested, 360 strain La 6 grew on a range of aromatics, including benzoate, 4-hydroxybenzoate, 361 362 protocatechuate and catechol. Analysis of the genome revealed the presence of genes that could explain such capabilities, such as the *benABCD* cluster which encodes for benzoate 363 dioxygenase, and the *pcaQDCHGB* cluster for protocatechuate metabolism (Buchan, Neidle, 364 365 and Moran 2004; Alejandro-Marín, Bosch, and Nogales 2014). Strain La 6 was unable to grow on toluene, p-cresol, p-xylene, 3-hydroxybenzoate, benzene, naphthalene, vanillate or 366 4-chlorobenzoate. 367

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Many Roseobacters are also able to metabolise the abundant sulfurous osmolyte dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP), via demethylation and/or cleavage generating methanethiol or dimethylsulfide (DMS), respectively (Curson et al. 2011). DMS oxidation products in the atmosphere can act as cloud condensation nuclei, as chemo-attractants for many marine animals and are a major source of organic sulfur in the sulfur cycle (Schäfer et al. 2010; Curson et al. 2011; Moran et al. 2012). As with many Roseobacters, strain La 6 did not grow on DMSP as sole carbon source, but whole cells of strain La 6 did cleave DMSP, generating DMS at a rate of 72 nmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ protein (4.8 s.e.). This DMSP-dependent DMS production is probably due to expression of the DMSP lyase gene dddL (which has 48% identy to DddL of *Sulfitobacter* sp. EE-36) that is present in the genome of strain La 6 (Curson et al. 2011). As mentioned previously, the genome of strain La 6 lacked a *dmdA* gene homologue, which encodes the DMSP demethylase enzyme (Moran et al. 2012), which is consistent with our finding that La 6 produced no MeSH above background levels (data not shown).

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Recently Curson et al., 2017 discovered that some Roseobacters, such as Labrenzia 384 385 agreggata, can produce DMSP and contain the dsyB gene, which encodes the key methylthiohydroxybutyrate methyltransferase enzyme of DMSP synthesis (Curson et al. 386 2017). The genome of strain La 6 contained a dsyB homologue (73 % amino acid identity to 387 L. agreggata DsyB) and strain La 6 cell also synthesised DMSP at a rate of 2.3 nmol min⁻¹ 388 mg⁻¹ protein (0.15 s.e.). It will be interesting to investigate why strain La 6 produces DMSP 389 and what its intracellular function is in future studies. Some members of the Roseobacter 390 group can also produce DMS independently of DMSP via methylation of methane-thiol, and 391 contain the methanethiol methyltransferase enzyme termed MddA (Carrión et al. 2015). 392 However, strain La 6 contains no MddA homologue and produced no DMS when grown in 393 the absence of DMSP, irrespective of MeSH addition. The fact that strain La 6 produces 394 DMSP but releases no detectable DMS in the absence of DMSP addition at high levels 395 suggests that the DMSP lyase might only function when DMSP reaches high intracellular 396 levels (J. Sun et al. 2016). Again, this aspect or organic sulfur metabolism in strain La 6 397 398 warrants further investigation in the future.

399

400 **4.7 Comparative genomics**

Members of the Roseobacter group are known for having large genomes, versatile metabolic 401 capabilities and a relatively high GC contents (Luo and Moran 2014). Strain La 6 is no 402 exception. Indeed, it has the largest genome of all sequenced members of the Roseobacter 403 group to date, at 7.18 Mbp, compared to the next largest genome of *M. profundimaris* strain 404 22II1-22F33T at 6.15 Mbp (Figure 5). Although the high similarity of the 16S rRNA gene 405 406 sequences suggests they are the same species, the estimated DNA-DNA-Hybridization (DDH) value between M. profundimaris 2II1-22F33 and strain La 6, determined using the 407 GGDC online tool (Meier-Kolthoff, Klenk, and Göker 2014), is 35%. The probability for 408 being the same species given by GGDC is <1%, therefore supporting the designation of strain 409 La 6 as a new species within the genus Marinibacterium. Analyses of homologs shared 410 between the two strains also reveal that whilst 74% of the protein coding genes of M. 411 profundimaris have a homolog in strain La 6, only 64% of the protein coding genes in the 412 genome of strain La 6 have a homolog in *M. profundimaris* (Table 1). 413

Multi-Locus Sequence Analysis (MLSA) was performed in order to examine the 414 phylogenetic relationship based on sequence comparisons of the unique Roseobacter core 415 genome, with a similar topology seen from previous analyses (Buchan, González, and Moran 416 2005; Newton et al. 2010; Luo and Moran 2014; Simon et al. 2017). Gene content analysis 417 was performed and compared against the MLSA to investigate the similarities and differences 418 in gene composition between genomes, thereby reflecting possible adaptations to individual 419 niches and lifestyles (Figure 6). Overall, strain La 6 clusters deeply but coherently within 420 421 subgroup 1 of the Roseobacter group, which currently consists of at least seven genera such as Leisingera, Ruegeria, Sedimentitalea and Marinibacterium. However, at a gene content 422 level, strain La 6 (and M. profundimaris) clusters distinctly apart from subgroup 1 and far 423 more closely with the Oceanicola and Celeribacter genera as well as Ketogulonicigenium 424

vulgare, indicating unique genetic adaptations. Bi-directional BLAST searches of all validly
published Roseobacter genomes for *xoxF5* also showed that just under one fifth of all
genomes harbour this gene (Supplementary Table 5).

428 **5** Conclusions

By adding lanthanides to methanol seawater enrichments, we isolated a novel member of the 429 430 Roseobacter clade that can use methanol as a carbon and energy source. This isolation arose due to the discovery that upon addition of either cerium or lanthanum to methanol seawater 431 enrichments, there was a marked increase in methanol oxidation compared to enrichments 432 433 without added lanthanides. Due to the difficulty in quantifying lanthanides in marine samples, at the time of sampling it was not possible to measure the standing concentrations of these in 434 the coastal seawater samples. However, the results do suggest that concentrations were low 435 enough such that the addition of 5 µM lanthanide was sufficient to stimulate an increase in 436 biological methanol oxidation. 437

438 Whilst it is known that XoxF is a lanthanide dependent enzyme in some strains, our results from growth experiments with strain La 6 suggested that lanthanum was not strictly required 439 for growth on methanol, only for ethanol, as there was only a slight stimulation upon addition 440 of the metal. Contamination of lanthanides from glassware is sufficient to support the growth 441 of some methylotrophs (Pol et al. 2014), however this does not explain why strain La 6 was 442 completely unable to grow on ethanol in similar levels of lanthanide 'contaminants'. In order 443 to understand the catalytic mechanism of this XoxF, further work should involve purification 444 of the enzyme from cells grown with different metal compositions and the affinities of these 445 enzymes for methanol, ethanol and other alcohols would need to be examined. 446

447 Elucidation of the role of XoxF in this strain is important since many members of the Roseobacter group contain xoxF genes. The role of xoxF in these marine bacteria warrants 448 further investigation, especially in cultures that are supplemented with lanthanides. Our 449 450 findings that just under 20% of the Roseobacter genomes examined in this study contain a xoxF5 suggest that the potential for methylotrophy within this group is larger than previously 451 thought. Since many Roseobacter strains harbour xoxF5 sequences, this could have important 452 implications for the capacity of the marine environment to act as a sink of methanol and 453 needs to be investigated further, especially since many strains are associated with 454 phytoplankton (Jose M Gonzalez et al. 2000; Grossart et al. 2005; Amin, Parker, and 455 456 Armbrust 2012; Amin et al. 2015) which have recently been shown to produce high concentrations of methanol. Therefore further work will include investigating the distribution, 457 diversity and activity of such methylotrophs in the marine environment using a variety of 458 cultivation-independent techniques. 459

460

16S rRNA gene sequence comparisons place strain La 6 unambiguously within the genus 461 Marinibacterium, while overall genome similarities to the type strain M. profundimaris 2II1-462 22F33, determined via digital DDH, were shown to be clearly below the common species 463 cutoff of 70% (Goris et al. 1998; Meier-Kolthoff, Klenk, and Göker 2014). Furthermore, the 464 vast differences seen between strain La 6 and its closest neighbours at the MLSA and gene 465 content level clearly demonstrates the need for comparative genomics to be used as a tool to 466 understand the ecological roles and metabolic plasticity of different members of the 467 Roseobacter group. Based on this and the DDH values, we propose that the strain La 6 468 represents a novel species of the genus Marinibacterium. We propose the name 469

470 *Marinibacterium anthonyi* strain La 6 (in honour of the British microbiologist Professor
471 Christopher Anthony).

472

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477

478 **7** Author contributions

JCM and YC conceived the project. AH conducted all lab work except sequencing,
annotation and comparative genomics, which was conducted by JV and AK. CM, CG, MT,
JT and JD provided guidance and insight during the project. AH and JV wrote the
manuscript, with all authors providing constructive feedback and approval of the final
manuscript.

484 8 Conflict of Interest Statement

485 The Authors declare no conflict of interest with this manuscript.

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- 824 Figure Legends
- 825

Figure 1 Effect of the presence (black circles) or absence (white circles) of 5 μ M lanthanum on the growth (solid lines) of strain La 6 on methanol (A, 5 mM initial concentration) and ethanol (B, 5 mM initial concentration). Dotted lines represent headspace methanol concentrations. Grey circles are no-inoculum controls containing lanthanum. Error bars are the standard error of three replicates.

831

Figure 2 Gene cluster surrounding the predicted methanol dehydrogenase gene xoxF5 and comparison to the methylotroph *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* 241. Colours indicate predicted similar functions of genes between the two organisms. *adhI*, glutathione-dependent formaldehyde dehydrogenase; *soxH*, putative protein SoxH; *xoxF5*, methanol dehydrogenase; *xoxG*, cytochrome c-553i; *xoxJ*, hypothetical periplasmic binding protein; *gfa*, homologue of glutathione-formaldehyde activating enzyme; cytochrome c oxidase II.

838

839 Figure 3 Predicted metabolic pathway of methanol metabolism in strain La 6 based on genome sequence analysis. Enzymes are shown in red whilst compounds and names of 840 pathways are in black. Solid arrows indicate enzymatic reactions, dashed arrows indicate 841 842 reactions are non-enzymatic or unknown. Reactions within the blue box are part of the dissimilatory pathway, in green are the assimilatory pathway. XoxF, methanol 843 dehydrogenase; GSH-FDH, glutathione-dependent formaldehyde dehydrogenase; FGH, S-844 formylglutathione hydrolase; FDH, formate dehydrogenase; PurU, 10-formyl-H₄F hydrolase; 845 FtfL, formyl-H₄F ligase; FolD, bifunctional methylene-H₄F dehydrogenase- methenyl-H₄F 846

cyclohydrolase; Fch, methenyl-H₄F cyclohydrolase; MetF, methyl-H₄F reductase; EMC,
Ethylmalonyl-CoA; PHB, polyhydroxybutyrate.

849

Figure 4 Growth of La 6 wild-type strain (black triangles), strain XoxF⁻ (red triangles) or no
inoculum controls (white circles) on 5 mM methanol initial concentration (A) and 5 mM
ethanol initial concentration (B). Dashed lines in (A) represent methanol headspace
concentrations. All conditions contained 5 μM lanthanum. Error bars show standard error of
three replicate cultures.

855

Figure 5 Relationship between genome size and number of genes in the genome of strain La
6 compared to the genomes of 114 members of the Roseobacter group. The genome of strain
La 6 is the represented by the black cross, the black triangle is the closest relative at the 16S
rRNA gene sequence, *Marinibacterium profundimaris* strain 22II1-22F33T and grey circles
depict all other members of the Roseobacter group.

861

Figure 6 Clustering of Roseobacter group genomes showing the relationships between 862 sequenced strains based on Multi Locus Sequence Analyses (MLSA) as well as gene content. 863 MLSA (left) is based on concatenated aligned core-genome gene product sequences and 864 illustrates phylogenetic relationships with high resolution and confidence. Coherent clusters 865 corresponding to the 5 subgroups originally described by Newton et al (2010) are marked in 866 867 colour. Corresponding branches between the MLSA and gene content tree are indicated by identical numbering. For ease of viewing, genera and species consisting of multiple genomes 868 which cluster coherently in the MLSA as well as the gene content tree are shown collapsed. 869 Furthermore, the outgroup (Parvularcula bermudensis HTCC2503) is not shown. In contrast, 870 gene content clustering (right) is based on the presence and absence of orthologs shared 871 between the comparison genomes. This illustrates similarities and differences in gene 872 composition between genomes, thereby reflecting adaptations to individual niches and 873 874 lifestyles. Divergences between MLSA- and gene content-based clustering show that even closely related strains may possess strongly diverging gene compositions. 875

876

Genome data	Strain La 6	M. profundimaris
Genome size (bp)	7, 179, 825	6,152,202
GC content (%)	65.4	66.2
Number of contigs	15	60
Smallest contig (bp)	948	580
Largest contig (bp)	3,672,580	1,058,968
Average contig size (bp)	478,655	-
Median contig size (bp)	103, 981	-
N50	3,672,580	343,537
L50		5
Number of genes	6,844	5,628
Number of Coding Sequences (% of homologs with closest strain)	6,785 (64%*)	5,497 (74%**)
Number of hypothetical proteins (%)	1,835 (27)	-
tRNAs	52	44
rRNAs	6	4

877	Table 1 Genome statistics of strain La 6 compared to <i>M. profundimaris</i> strain 22II1-22F33T.
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*% of the protein coding genes in La 6 that have a homolog in *M. profundimaris*.
**% of the protein coding genes in *M. profundimaris* that have a homolog in strain La 6.













