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# Widespread known and novel phosphonate utilization pathways in marine bacteria revealed by functional screening and metagenomic analyses

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**Citation:** Martinez, Asuncion, Gene W. Tyson, and Edward F. DeLong. "Widespread Known and Novel Phosphonate Utilization Pathways in Marine Bacteria Revealed by Functional Screening and Metagenomic Analyses." Environmental Microbiology 12.1 (2010): 222–238.

**As Published:** http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2009.02062.x

Publisher: Society for Applied Microbiology and Blackwell Publishing Ltd

Persistent URL: http://hdl.handle.net/1721.1/69553

**Version:** Author's final manuscript: final author's manuscript post peer review, without publisher's formatting or copy editing

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18	Running title: Widespread phosphonate utilization in marine bacteria
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### 1 SUMMARY

2 Phosphonates (Pn), compounds with a direct C-P bond instead of the more common C-O-P 3 ester bond, constitute a significant fraction of marine dissolved organic phosphorus and recent 4 evidence suggests that they may be an alternative source of P for marine microorganisms. To 5 further characterize the microorganisms and pathways involved in Pn utilization, we screened 6 bacterioplankton genomic libraries for their ability to complement an Escherichia coli strain 7 unable to use Pns as a P source. Using this approach we identified a phosphonatase pathway 8 as well as a novel pair of genes that allowed utilization of 2-aminoethylphosphonate (2-AEPn) 9 as the sole P source. These pathways are present in diverse bacteria common in marine 10 plankton including representatives of Proteobacteria, Planctomycetes and Cyanobacteria. 11 Analysis of metagenomic databases for Pn utilization genes revealed that they are widespread 12 and abundant among marine bacteria, suggesting that Pn metabolism is likely to play an 13 important role in P-depleted surface waters, as well as in the more P-rich deep water column.

14

## 15 INTRODUCTION

16

17 Phosphorus (P) is an essential element for all living organisms. In its most oxidized form, 18 valence +5, P is found as phosphate esters in numerous metabolic pathways and as a 19 component of essential biomolecules such as nucleic acids, ATP and phospholipids. Perhaps 20 for that reason, the majority of studies on P acquisition by microorganisms including those in 21 marine environments (Dyhrman et al., 2007) have focused on understanding how microbes 22 acquire inorganic phosphate (Pi). However, dissolved inorganic phosphate (DIP) can be a 23 limiting nutrient in ocean surface waters (Rivkin and Anderson, 1997; Wu et al., 2000; 24 Bjorkman and Karl, 2003), so there is considerable interest in understanding the mechanisms, 25 extent and variability of dissolved organic phosphorus (DOP) utilization by marine 26 microorganisms. Although the exact chemical nature of DOP is poorly understood, some 27 insights have been gained by nuclear magnetic resonance studies of high molecular weight

1 (HMW) DOP concentrated by tangential flow ultrafiltration (Clark et al., 1999; Kolowith et 2 al., 2001). These studies have revealed that across oceans and throughout the water column, 3 about one third of the marine HMW DOP consists of phosphonates (Pn), reduced P 4 compounds (valence +3) that contain a C-P bond instead of the more common C-O-P bond 5 found in phosphate esters. Interestingly, phosphate ester and Pn content decreased with depth 6 in HMW DOM relative to C, indicating that both forms of P are utilized by marine 7 microorganisms (Clark et al., 1999). Benitez-Nelson and colleagues (Benitez-Nelson et al., 8 2004) analyzed Pn concentration in sediment traps in the anoxic Cariaco Basin and found that 9 the percentage of Pns decreased from 18 to 3% relative to phosphate esters providing 10 evidence for Pn remineralization in sinking particles. These studies suggest that Pn may be a significant source of P for marine organisms. 11

12 Known Pns include biogenic and xenobiotic compounds ((Horiguchi, 1984; Ternan et 13 al., 1998) and references therein). 2-Aminoethylphosphonate (2-AEPn) or ciliatine, was first 14 identified in rumen protozoa, and has since been found in phosphonolipids of many marine 15 invertebrates, where it replaces its structural analog ethanolamine phosphate. 2-AEPn is also 16 found in phosphonoglycolipids and it is believed to be the most abundant Pn in the oceans 17 (Horiguchi, 1984). Other biogenic Pns include less abundant compounds of commercial 18 importance such as the antibiotic fosfomycin or the herbicide bialaphos. In addition, synthetic 19 Pns are currently used for various commercial applications because of the strength of their C-20 P bond that makes them resistant to chemical and enzymatic hydrolysis. Examples of these 21 include the antiviral compound phosphonoacetate, the herbicide glyphosate, and numerous 22 detergent additives. More than 20 x  $10^3$  tons of organophosphonates are released into the 23 environment each year (Egli, 1988).

The ability of some microorganisms to utilize Pn as a P source has been recognized for many years, and genetic and biochemical analyses have provided detailed information on their Pn utilization pathways (reviewed in (Ternan et al., 1998; Quinn et al., 2007; White and Metcalf, 2007). Known C-P hydrolases include the C-P lyase, a multienzyme complex that

1 can release phosphate from a variety of alkyl- and aryl-Pns such as methylphosphonate (Mpn) 2 and 2-AEPn, as well as compound specific pathways, like the phosphonatase pathway that acts exclusively on 2-AEPn. 3 The latter is encoded by two genes, 2-AEPn:pyruvate 4 transaminase (phnW) and phosphonoacetaldehyde hydrolase or phosphonatase (phnX). 5 Phosphonatase catalyzes the hydrolytic cleavage of the C-P bond and its mechanism of action 6 and crystal structure have been determined (Ternan and Quinn, 1998; Morais et al., 2000; 7 Morais et al., 2004). In contrast, the C-P lyase is a complex membrane-bound system 8 encoded by 14 genes (Metcalf and Wanner, 1991, 1993a, b; Yakovleva et al., 1998), and its 9 activity has not yet been reconstructed in vitro. Based on genetic analyses, it has been 10 proposed that the first three genes in the operon, *phnCDE*, encode a Pn-specific ABC 11 transporter, while *phnG-phnM* are required for catalytic activity measured by the release of 12 methane from Mpn. The role of the remaining genes, *phnF*, *phnN*, *phnO*, and *phnQ* is unclear 13 although they are required for growth on Mpn. The C-P lyase operon appears in distantly 14 related bacteria and phylogenetic analysis suggests that it has been subject of extensive lateral 15 gene transfer (Huang et al., 2005).

16 Little is currently known about Pn utilization in marine bacteria. Dhyrman and 17 colleagues showed that a complete C-P lyase operon is present in the marine filamentous 18 cyanobacterium Trichodesmium erythraeum, and that it is expressed in phosphorus-depleted 19 cultures, and *in situ* in the Sargasso Sea, strongly suggesting that members of this genus can 20 use Pns as an alternative source of P (Dyhrman et al., 2006). Genes similar to a C-P lyase 21 gene (phnJ), the phnX gene and the phnA gene encoding phosphonoacetate hydrolase have 22 also been found in Sargasso Sea metagenomic libraries (Quinn et al., 2007). More recently, it 23 has been shown that the mixed microbial communities at Station ALOHA in the North Pacific 24 Subtropical Gyre release methane upon Mpn addition, indicating that microbes in these 25 communities might posses a C-P lyase pathway (Karl et al., 2008). A high incidence of C-P 26 lyase genes in the Sargasso Sea samples (Venter et al., 2004) was also reported in that study. 27 Sequences homologous to another Pn utilization gene, phnA, have been recently identified in metagenomic and metatranscriptomic analyses of coastal waters (Gilbert et al., 2008).
Finally, peptides corresponding to one of the putative components of the Pn ABC-transporter
of SAR11 isolates, PhnD, were among the most abundant peptides in a metaproteomic
analysis of the Sargasso Sea (Sowell et al., 2009). Taken together, these results suggest that
Pn may be an important P source for marine microbes.

6 To better characterize Pn utilization pathways in marine microorganisms we screened 7 clones in large insert metagenomic libraries for genes able to complement an E. coli Phn-8 strain. Using this functional genomics approach, which does not depend on any *a priori* 9 sequence knowledge, we identified several clones from a planktonic fosmid library that 10 allowed the E. coli host to grow on 2-AEPn as the P source. The complementing cloned 11 DNAs encoded a phosphonatase pathway, as well as a previously undescribed pathway for 2-12 AEPn utilization. We analyzed metagenomic data to examine frequency and distribution of 13 these genes and showed that model marine microbes containing these genes can grow on Pn 14 as a P source. Our results indicate that Pn is a common alternative P source for marine 15 bacterioplankton and demonstrate the utility of functional screening approaches for assigning 16 environmentally relevant functions to hypothetical genes detected in metagenomic surveys.

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#### 18 **RESULTS**

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## 20 Functional screening for Pn utilization.

Seven fosmid libraries representing an open ocean depth profile at the Hawaii Ocean Time Series Station ALOHA ( $22^{\circ}45'$  N,  $158^{\circ}W$ ) (DeLong et al., 2006) were screened for clones that could complement *E. coli* BW16787 for growth on MPn or 2-AEPn as the sole P source. This strain has a partial deletion in the *phn* operon encoding the C-P lyase ( $\Delta phnHIJKLMNOP$ ) which renders it incapable of growing on Pn, while still maintaining a functional Pn transporter encoded by *phnCDE*, the first three genes of the operon (**Figure 1**). BW16787 was previously used to successfully identify Pn genes from *Enterobacter aerogenes* and Salmonella typhimurium by complementation (Lee et al., 1992; Jiang et al., 1995). The
 presence of the Pn transporter in the screening strain is important since not all Pn degrading
 clusters contain linked Pn transporter encoding genes (Lee et al., 1992; Huang et al., 2005;
 Quinn et al., 2007).

5

### 6 **MPn utilization genes**

7 Our functional screens did not yield any clones able to complement the ability of BW16787 to 8 grow on MPn as a sole P source, despite the fact that methane production from MPn has been 9 clearly shown in waters from the same location, and that C-P lyase sequence homologs have 10 been identified in these metagenomic libraries (Karl et al., 2008). A previously sequenced 11 fosmid from the HF70m library, HF70\_[96]11A08 (APKI441) (Howard et al., 2008), was 12 predicted to encode a cluster containing the regulatory phnF, and phnGHIJKLNM genes 13 required for catalysis (Figure 1) and thus might be capable of complementing BW16787 for 14 Mpn utilization. We transformed HF70\_[96]11A08 into BW16787, but transformants could 15 not use either MPn or 2-AEPn for growth (data not shown). The lack of complementation 16 might be due to poor expression of this alphaproteobacterial fosmid in the heterologous host. 17 Since we have previously observed that increasing the copy number of the fosmid vector can 18 lead to increased gene expression in E. coli (Martinez et al., 2007), we constructed a copy up 19 derivative of BW16787, BW16787 trfA, and tested HF70\_[96]11A08 for complementation. 20 Again, no significant growth on Mpn or 2-AEPn was observed under copy-up conditions in 21 the deletion strain. Complementation was observed however in strains harboring individual 22 in-frame deletions of the *phnH* and *phnN* genes (Figure 1) indicating that HF70\_[96]11A08 23 does indeed encode a functional C-P lyase, and that the failure to complement the deletion 24 strain might be due to inefficient expression or function of some of the C-P lyase components 25 in the heterologous host.

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#### 27 **2-AEPn utilization genes**

1 We identified two unique clones in the HF130m library that allowed BW16787 to grow on 2-2 AEPn as P source. These clones were designated HF130\_AEPn\_1 and HF130\_AEPn\_2. 3 While both clones clearly allow BW16787 to grow on 2-AEPn as sole P source, they did not 4 allow utilization of 2-AEPn as N and C source as has been shown with several bacterial 5 isolates (McGrath et al., 1997; Ternan and Quinn, 1998) (Figure 2A). When the 6 complementation test was performed under copy up conditions in the new BW16787trfA 7 strain, HF130 AEPn 2 allowed growth on 2-AEPn simultaneously as N and P source, and as 8 N source in the presence of Pi. When used as a P source under copy up conditions, excess Pi 9 was apparently released into the media by HF130\_AEPn\_2 and allowed the growth of the 10 negative control strain on the same plate. Significant release of Pi into the growth medium 11 was observed in liquid cultures of HF130\_AEPn\_2 grown on 2-AEPn under copy up 12 conditions (Figure S1?). These results indicate that the enzymes encoded in HF130\_AEPn\_2 13 are not inhibited by excess phosphate, but more importantly, that they permit utilization of the 14 amino group in 2-AEPn as the sole N source. HF130\_AEPn\_1, on the other hand, exhibited 15 poor growth on 2-AEPn as P source under copy up conditions with only a few large colonies 16 appearing over a background of microcolonies (Figure 2A). This growth pattern is often the 17 result of toxicity caused by high level expression of one or more genes in the fosmid,

18 The substrate specificity of the pathways encoded by HF130 AEPn 1 and 19 HF130 AEPn 2 was tested in liquid cultures using a variety of Pn compounds known to be 20 transported into the cell and cleaved by the E. coli C-P lyase system (Metcalf and Wanner, 21 1991, 1993b). Both clones grew on 2-AEPn but not on Mpn, phosphonoacetate (PnAc), 22 phosphonoformate or phosphite (Figure 2B). This narrow substrate specificity is 23 uncharacteristic of C-P lyase pathways (Quinn et al., 2007). Both clones were fully 24 sequenced and individual transposon insertions into each of the predicted ORFs were tested in 25 the complementation assay to identify the gene(s) that conferred the 2-AEPn<sup>+</sup> phenotype.

26

#### 1 **HF130\_AEPn\_2** encodes a typical phosphonatase pathway

2 HF130\_AEPn\_2 contained a 32.3 kb insert encoding 4 tRNA genes and 25 predicted ORFs 3 (Table S1). All the putative proteins were found to be highly similar to proteins of sequenced 4 *Pseudomonas sp.* strains (most proteins with BLAST expectation values of less than  $10^{-100}$ ). 5 Only three genes were found to be required for growth on 2-AEPn (Figure 3). All three are 6 highly similar to P. aeruginosa PAO1 and P. putida genes encoding components of the well 7 characterized phosphonatase pathway for 2-AEPn utilization (Dumora et al., 1983; Ternan 8 and Quinn, 1998; Chen et al., 2002; Kim et al., 2002). Genes 20, 21, and 22 appear to form 9 an operon. Gene 22, phnW, encodes a putative 2-AEPn:pyruvate aminotransferase (EC 10 2.6.1.37), the first enzyme of the phosphonatase pathway, which catalyzes the transfer of the amino group of 2-AEPn to pyruvate to form alanine and phosphonoacetaldehyde (Figure 3). 11 12 Gene 21, *phnX*, encodes a protein of high similarity to phosphonoacetaldehyde hydrolase or 13 phosphonatase (EC 3.11.1.1), which cleaves the C-P bond in phosphonoactetaldehyde to 14 release phosphate. Utilization of 2-AEPn as N source with copy up was only observed when 15 both phnW and phnX were functional (Figure S1), perhaps due to a toxic effect of 16 phosphonoacetaldehyde accumulation in the *phnX* mutant. The third gene in this predicted 17 operon, gene 20, cybB, encodes a putative cytochrome b561 family protein. A transposon 18 insertion in this gene did not result in a loss of phenotype suggesting that this gene is not 19 required for 2-AEPn metabolism in E. coli.

Gene 23, which is transcribed in the opposite direction and encodes a putative transcriptional regulator of the LysR family, was also required for 2-AEPn metabolism. In *P. aeruginosa*, the LysR protein encoded in the phosphonatase cluster binds 2-AEPn and activates transcription of the *phnWX* operon (Quinn et al., 2007). Consistent with its predicted role as transcriptional activator, the *lysR* gene in HF130\_AEPn\_2 was not required for 2-AEPn utilization under copy up conditions (**Figure S1**).

The phenotype of this clone, including the specificity for 2-AEPn, the capacity to use 27 2-AEPn as P and N source, and lack of inhibition by Pi, are entirely consistent with the functional assignment of its Pn utilization genes. This represents the first example of
 functional characterization of a phosphonatase pathway from a marine microbe.

3 As an initial analysis of the prevalence of the phosphonatase pathway in marine 4 plankton, searched the genomes of fully sequenced marine we microbes 5 (<u>http://www.moore.org/microgenome/</u>) for *phnX* and *phnW* genes. These genes were often 6 found linked in the chromosomes of many marine microbes (Figure 3). For example, phnW7 and *phnX* genes, separated by a putative aminotransferase gene, were common in 8 Gammaproteobacteria, including many members of the Vibrionales (such as V. angustum 9 S14), Alteromodales (Moritella sp. PE36 and Psychromonas) and Oceanospirillales 10 (Marinomonas sp. MED121). Linked genes were also found in the alphaproteobacterium 11 BAL-199, Planctomyces maris DSM8797, and in Bacillus sp. B14905. These results suggest 12 that the phosphonatase pathway genes play a significant role in the marine environment.

13

#### 14 **HF130\_AEPn\_1** encodes a novel pathway for 2-AEPn utilization

15 HF130\_AEPn\_1 contained a 42.1 kb insert encoding 25 predicted ORFs (**Table S2**). In 16 contrast to HF130\_AEPn\_2, the phylogenetic affiliation of HF130\_AEPn\_1 is not entirely 17 clear, although BLAST analyses suggest it might belong to a representative of the 18 Deltaproteobacteria. More importantly, none of the predicted ORFs on this environmental 19 fragment encoded proteins with similarity to any known Pn utilization genes, indicating that 20 this clone likely encodes a novel Pn utilization pathway.

21 Phenotypic analysis of transposon insertion mutants in the predicted ORFs revealed 22 that two genes, gene 5 and gene 6 are required for 2-AEPn utilization (**Figure 4**). We have 23 named these genes *phnY* and *phnZ*, respectively. The best BLAST hits for these genes in the 24 NCBI database are listed in **Table S3**. *phnY* is most similar to poorly characterized proteins, 25 some of which are annotated as phytanoyl-CoA dioxygenases based on weak sequence 26 similarity. Comparison of the predicted protein sequence against the conserved domain 27 database (CDD (Marchler-Bauer et al., 2007)) revealed that PhnY indeed belongs to the PhyH

superfamily (pfam05721 and COG5285 with expectation values of 4x10<sup>-22</sup> and 3x10<sup>-12</sup>. 1 2 respectively). PhyH is a 2-oxoglutarate dependent dioxygenase that catalyzes the alpha-3 oxidation of phytanoyl-CoA coupled with the oxidative decarboxylation of 2-oxoglutarate to 4 form succinate and carbon dioxide (Schofield and McDonough, 2007). This family includes 5 eukaryotic phytanoyl-CoA dioxygenases and a number of bacterial dioxygenases mostly of 6 unknown function. Interestingly, a member of this family, HtxA, is a hypophosphite 7 dioxygenase in *Pseudomonas stutzeri* WM88 that oxidizes hypophosphite to phosphite, as 8 well as phosphite to phosphate *in vitro* (White and Metcalf, 2002). Despite this similarity, 9 HF130\_AEPn\_1 did not allow growth on phosphite or hypophosphite. All residues known to be required for Fe<sup>2+</sup> and 2-oxoglutarate binding in PhyH and related enzymes (Hogan et al., 10 11 2000; Schofield and McDonough, 2007) are conserved in the predicted PhnY protein, 12 supporting its functional assignment as a 2-oxoglutarate dioxygenase.

13 phnZ encodes a protein of the HD superfamily (pfam01966 and COG4341, with expectation values of  $9 \times 10^{-06}$  and  $6 \times 10^{-29}$ , respectively). This family is characterized by the 14 15 presence of an HD motif and additional conserved D and H residues believed to be involved 16 in metal binding (Aravind and Koonin, 1998). Although members of this family have been 17 predicted to act as divalent metal-dependent phosphohydrolases, none of the genes in the 18 database that share significant sequence similarity with phnZ have been functionally 19 characterized. In several bacterial species, however, phnZ homologs are found linked to 20 genes similar to other Pn degradation genes, supporting its involvement in Pn metabolism. 21 For example, it is found adjacent to C-P lyase genes in Nostoc sp. PCC 7120, and 22 Pelagibacter sp. HTCC7211, next to phnX in Gemmata obscuriglobus UQM 2246, and 23 adjacent to phnA in several Burkholderia sp. including B. cepacia AMMD and B. cenocepacia 24 HI2424 (data not shown).

Interestingly, several other marine bacterial species contain linked homologs of both of these genes suggesting that they may also use 2-AEPn as a P source (**Figure 4**). These include *Plesiocystis pacifica* SIR-1 (a deltaproteobacterium), *Planctomyces maris* DSM8797,

1 and two strains of the unicellular cyanobacterium, Prochlorococcus marinus (MIT9301 and 2 MIT9303). phnY and phnZ are also found in tandem in several fungal species, such a 3 Aspergillus niger (Figure 4), which is particularly interesting since A. niger and other fungi 4 can use 2-AEPn as P source by yet uncharacterized pathways (Krzysko-Lupicka et al., 1997). 5 The sporadic appearance of these genes in isolated strains within a lineage and the fact that 6 their phylogenies (Figures S2 and S3) do not generally correspond to phylogenies of highly 7 conserved genes suggests that they might have undergone horizontal gene transfer in the 8 marine environment. Interestingly, a homolog of the HD gene is found in a mimivirus (Raoult 9 et al., 2004), pointing to a possible mechanism for horizontal gene transfer.

10

### 11 Growth of marine microbes on Pn

12 The presence of genes similar to those identified in the functional screens in fully sequenced 13 marine microorganisms suggests that they might be able to grow on 2-AEPn as a P source. 14 To test this hypothesis we analyzed the ability of several marine bacteria to grow on Pn as the 15 sole P source (Figure 5). Vibrio angustum S14 (which appears to have a phosphonatase 16 pathway and a C-P lyase pathway), Planctomyces maris DSM8797 (which contains a 17 phosphonatase pathway and the new phnY/phnZ pathway), and Ruegeria pomeyori DSS-3 18 (which contains a C-P lyase pathway and a homolog of *phnZ*) were all able to grow on both 2-19 AEPn and Mpn as the sole P source. None of these strains were able to grow on phosphite, a 20 substrate of the C-P lyase in E. coli. The lack of growth of E. coli BW16787 (Phn<sup>-</sup> strain used 21 in the screen) indicates that no significant Pi was present in the Pn-containing media during 22 the course of the experiments.

23

## 24 Abundance of 2-AEPn genes in marine metagenomic databases

We extended previous analyses looking for the presence of Pn genes in marine metagenomic datasets (Quinn et al., 2007; Gilbert et al., 2008; Karl et al., 2008) by examining the abundance of *phnX*, *phnW*, *phnY*, and *phnZ* in the Global Ocean Survey (GOS) database

1 (Yooseph et al., 2007). In addition to the genes identified in our screen, we included the other 2 Pn genes previously identified in marine environments: phnA, encoding phosphonoacetate 3 hydrolase (Gilbert et al., 2008), phnJ and phnI as representatives of the C-P lyase pathway. 4 recA and gyrB were included as a reference single copy genes. For each analyzed gene, 5 abundance is expressed as the percentage of all bacteria containing the gene in question, based 6 on the assumption that *recA* is present as a single copy gene in every genome. Although the 7 variability across samples is large in some cases, the average abundance of the Pn genes 8 across samples was 2% for phnY, 7% for phnZ, 8% for phnW, and 1% for phnX (Table S4). 9 These frequencies are within the same order of magnitude as those observed for *phnI*, *phnJ*, 10 and *phnA* (6, 8 and 9% respectively). These results indicate that the 2-AEPn utilization 11 pathways described in this study, as well as the C-P lyase and PnAc degradation pathways, are 12 widespread and common in surface water marine bacterioplankton.

13 The distribution of Pn genes throughout the water column was investigated using 14 metagenomic data from depth profiles obtained from station ALOHA in the North Pacific 15 Gyre (from the same site as the DNA used for the fosmid libraries), and from the BATS 16 station near Bermuda in the Sargasso Sea. Analysis of depth profiles is important because the 17 fosmid screen hits came from the130 m sample, well below the surface waters analyzed in the 18 GOS survey. Additionally, these two ecosystems are characterized by vastly different surface 19 phosphate concentrations, with DIP concentrations in the Sargasso Sea (0.2-1.0 nM) being 20 one to two orders of magnitude lower than at ALOHA station (Wu et al., 2000). The results 21 for the available shotgun libraries are shown in Table 1. In the Station ALOHA samples, the 22 *phnZ* is found in 10% or less of the microorganisms throughout the water column. The *phnY* 23 gene however was found in the surface shotgun libraries starting at the 125 m sample 24 suggesting that the complete pathway, as found in HF130\_AEPn\_1, may be more prevalent 25 below surface waters. The phnX and phnW genes are found in low frequency in the shotgun 26 libraries from the top 125 m of the water column in Station ALOHA, but their frequency 27 increased substantially with depth. In the 4000 m library 63% and 20% of the microorganisms

1 were estimated to have a *phnW* and *phnX* gene, respectively. The *phnA* gene was also found 2 at high frequency in the deep water samples (present in up to 26% of microorganims). These 3 results were unexpected since the DIP concentration is significantly lower in the upper 100 m 4 of the water column at this location ((Bjorkman and Karl, 2003). The analysis of the putative 5 phylogenetic affiliation of these deep water *phn* genes (Figure 6 and Table S5) revealed that 6 many diverse bacterial groups contribute to the phnA and phnW signals. The phnX signal at 7 4000 m was assigned to Alphaproteobacteria and Eukaryotes based on the top blast hit against 8 the NCBI non-redundant protein database (NR). Although the putative proteins were most 9 similar to eukaryotic proteins, the encoding genes in our libraries did not contain introns 10 suggesting that they are probably bacterial in origin.

11 In contrast, the 20 and 50 m shotgun libraries from the Sargasso Sea (Table 1) had 12 very high frequency of Pn utilization genes, particularly C-P lyase genes (phnI and phnJ), 13 phnZ and phnX genes (between 10 and 25% of the microbes). The vast majority of these hits 14 (Table S5) were most similar to genes from Candidatus Pelagibacter sp. HTCC7211, a 15 highly abundant member of the SAR11 clade of Alphaproteobacteria from the Sargasso Sea 16 (Stingl et al., 2007). Sequence homologs most similar to those in other Alphaproteobacteria 17 (Rhodobacterales family) were also observed, as well as one sequence of a phnZ gene most 18 similar to that of *Prochlorococcus marinus* MIT9301. phnW and phnA genes were present in 19 approximately 5-10% of the microorganisms in these samples, and in contrast with the other 20 phn genes analyzed, were not found in SAR11 members but instead appeared to belong 21 primarily to other proteobacterial groups.

To further support these observations we also analyzed metagenomic data obtained by pyrosequencing from the same stations. For Station ALOHA, the pyrosequencing data was obtained from the HOT186 depth profile collected on October 2006, seven months after the HOT179 profile used to construct the shutgun libraries. Despite this difference, the trends observed for *phn* gene abundance are remarkably similar for both libraries. As observed in the shotgun data from Station ALOHA, the frequencies of *phnY*, *phnZ*, *phnX* and *phnW* 

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1 increased with depth, reaching levels of 6-22% at 500 m, while the phnI and phnJ genes of the 2 C-P lyase were found at very low frequencies throughout the profile (not more than 1% of the 3 microbes) (Table 2). The frequency of Pn utilization genes in surface waters was again 4 significantly higher in the Sargasso Sea samples. Detailed examination of the hits revealed 5 several environmental trends (Figure 6, Table S6). For example, the *phnY* and *phnZ* at 50 6 and 100m include many instances of genes apparently derived from Prochlorococcus marinus 7 MIT9303 and MIT9301. These sequences were significantly lower in numbers at Station 8 ALOHA, suggesting that Pn utilization by these microorganisms is more prevalent in the 9 Sargasso Sea. Pelagibacter sp. homologs of phnX, phnZ, phnI and phnJ were highly 10 represented at 20 and 50m, while other Alphaproteobacteria (Rhodobacterales and 11 Rhizobiales) were highly represented in the *phnA* and C-P lyase genes found near the surface. 12 Two matches to C-P lyase genes from Cyanobacteria (Synechococcus sp. PCC 7335 and 13 Cyanothece sp. PCC 8802) were also detected in these samples. Interestingly, while the C-P 14 lyase genes were no longer detected at 500 m, there was still a significant fraction of 15 microorganisms harboring phnZ, phnW and phnA. As was the case in the Station ALOHA 16 samples, although Beta- and Gammaproteobacteria were abundant, many diverse bacterial 17 groups appear to contribute to this deep water signal (Figure 6, Table S6).

18 We also analyzed publicly available marine metatranscriptomic data (**Table S7**). All 19 the Pn genes analyzed in this study (*phnY*, *phnZ*, *phnX*, *phnW*, *phnI*, and *phnJ*) were found in

20 a metatranscriptomic analysis of the Sargasso Sea by Moran and colleagues

21 (<u>http://web.camera.calit2.net/cameraweb/id?CAM\_PROJ\_SargassoSea</u>). Evidence of

22 expression for these genes was also found in surface waters of other regions by Zehr and

23 collegues (http://web.camera.calit2.net/cameraweb/id?CAM\_PROJ\_GeneExpression).

24

#### 25 **DISCUSSION**

26 One major challenge in contemporary environmental microbiology is to interpret the vast 27 amounts of genomic information now accumulating (DeLong, 2009). This is particularly true

1 for marine ecosystems, where large-scale metagenomic and metatranscriptomic sequencing 2 projects such as the Global Ocean Survey have uncovered more than six million new proteins, 3 many of which lack significant homology to proteins with functional assignments (DeLong et 4 al., 2006; Yooseph et al., 2007; Frias-Lopez et al., 2008). One approach for determining the 5 function of novel genes is to use classical genetics to identify mutants in particular functions. 6 This method was used successfully to identify the *dmdA* gene responsible for DMSP 7 utilization in *Ruegeria pomeyori* (Reisch et al., 2008). Unfortunately, this approach is limited 8 to the small number of marine isolates with well-developed genetic systems. An alternative is 9 to perform functional screens in which DNA libraries are analyzed in a heterologous host for 10 expression of a function of interest. We have previously used this approach to identify marine 11 fosmids that express a complete proteorhodopsin photosytem from a marine 12 Alpharoteobacteria in E. coli (Martinez et al., 2007). In this study we screened marine fosmid 13 libraries to identify genes that confer the ability to utilize 2-AEPn and Mpn to an E. coli strain 14 defective in Pn utilization (Lee et al., 1992). Our results demonstrate both the advantages and 15 limitations of this approach. A major limitation of functional screens is that they require 16 expression and correct protein assembly and localization in the heterologous host. Here, a 17 fosmid predicted to contain all the C-P lyase genes necessary to restore catalytic activity 18 (Yakovleva et al., 1998) was unable to restore growth on Mpn in the deletion strain. 19 Complementation was observed however for strains containing a single, non-polar mutation in 20 phnG and phnN. These results are perhaps not surprising given the known complexity of the 21 multi-component, membrane associated C-P lyase system (Metcalf and Wanner, 1993a; 22 Yakovleva et al., 1998). Despite these limitations, the major advantage of the functional 23 screening approach is that it is not dependent on prior sequence knowledge and thus, it can 24 identify genes not previously associated with the function of interest.

To explore Pn utilization pathways in marine microbial communities, we screened seven fosmid libraries prepared from microbial DNA from different depths at station ALOHA in the North Pacific Gyre (DeLong et al., 2006). Although the surface waters at station

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1 ALOHA are not as phosphate limited as other marine environments (Karl, 1999; Wu et al., 2 2000), previous studies have shown that these libraries did contain C-P lyase genes and that 3 methane was produced from Mpn in these waters (Karl et al., 2008), indicating that microbes 4 at this site have the potential to use Pn as P source. Indeed, we identified two pathways for 2-5 AEPn utilization in these libraries. 2-AEPn is a component of phosphonolipids and 6 phosphonoproteins in numerous marine invertebrates (Horiguchi, 1984; Ternan et al., 1998), 7 thus it should be available for microbial utilization in the marine environment. The first 8 pathway identified is a phophonatase pathway that allows utilization of 2-AEPn as both P, and 9 N source by virtue of the first transamination step that leads to formation of alanine. The gene 10 sequence and genome context in the clone encoding this function is almost identical to that of 11 the well characterized *Pseudomonas* phosphonatase pathways (Dumora et al., 1997; Ternan 12 and Quinn, 1998). In these strains expression of the pathway is not under control of the Pho 13 regulon, but is instead mediated by a LysR-type transcriptional regulator (also present in the 14 fosmid clone) and controlled by substrate availability (Quinn et al., 2007). These findings are 15 consistent with 2-AEPn being a source of not only P, but also of N and even C. Among 16 marine microbes, the complete phophonatase pathway (including both phnX and phnW) is 17 found in numerous fully sequenced Gammaproteobacteria genomes, in one 18 alphaproteobacterium, one *Planctomyces*, and one *Bacillus* genome.

19 The second pathway for 2-AEPn utilization identified in this study was a novel 20 pathway, encoded by two genes without prior association with Pn metabolism and whose 21 homologs had not previously been functionally characterized. Although the complete 22 description of the pathway requires further biochemical analysis, we can speculate based on 23 the presence of conserved domains in the encoded proteins. One possible pathway may 24 involve the initial hydrolysis of the C-P bond in 2-AEPn by the predicted HD hydrolase, 25 encoded by *phnZ*, to release phosphite. The phosphite could then be oxidized to phosphate by 26 PhnY. HtxA, hypophosphate dioxygenase, a member of the same protein family as PhnY, has 27 been shown to perform this reaction in vitro (White and Metcalf, 2002). However, the strain

1 containing the HF130\_AEPn\_1 fosmid was unable to grow on phosphite as a P source as 2 would have been expected if phosphite was an intermediary in this pathway, given that E. coli 3 appears to be able to transport Pt into the cell (Metcalf and Wanner, 1991, 1993b). 4 Alternatively, PhnY might act on 2-AEPn first by introducing a OH group in the C1 position, 5 as does *E. coli* TauD, also a 2-oxoglutarate dioxygenase, on taurine (2-aminoethylsulfonate) 6 (Eichhorn et al., 1997). Hydroxylation of the C1 of taurine has been shown to weaken the C-7 S bond leading to its non-enzymatic breakage. Perhaps PhnY-mediated hydroxylation of 2-8 AEPn destabilizes the C-P bond making it susceptible to hydrolytic cleavage by PhnZ with 9 the release of phosphate. Indeed, HD domain proteins are predicted to function as 10 phosphohydrolases and contain residues thought to be involved in divalent metal coordination 11 (Aravind and Koonin, 1998) which could stabilize a transition state for the C-P bond 12 cleavage. The fact that a mutant fosmid lacking PhnY cannot grow on 2-AEPn supports the 13 idea that PhnZ cannot hydrolyze 2-AEPn directly, but rather that it needs to be modified by 14 PhnY before C-P bond cleavage. Although initial attempts to characterize these activities in 15 crude extracts were not successful, the availability of the genes encoding these enzymes can 16 now enable their overexpression and purification for biochemical analysis of this novel 2-17 AEPn pathway.

18 The *phnY/phnZ* pathway is sporadically found in the genomes of diverse bacterial taxa, 19 including Cyanobacteria, Planctomycetes, and Proteobacteria, and in several fungi. The 20 presence of the pathway in discrete members of distantly related bacteria instead of being 21 lineage specific, suggest that it might have been subject to horizontal gene transfer (HGT) and 22 that there is a strong selection for the ability to utilize Pn in the environment. Similar 23 conclusions had been reached in analyses of the C-P lyase and phosphonatase pathway 24 (Huang et al., 2005). The presence of a *phnZ* gene in the genome of a mimivirus (Raoult et al., 25 2004) suggests that viruses might be a vehicle for HGT, as has been seen for other host genes 26 (Lindell et al., 2004; Sobecky and Hazen, 2009). Although HGT between bacteria and fungi seems quite rare, it has also been suggested for other genes, including the *dddP* gene involved
 in dimethylsulfoniopropionate metabolism in marine bacteria (Todd et al., 2009).

3 The novel *phnY/phnZ* pathway is present in only 2 of the 11 available genomes of 4 Prochlorococcus marinus strains (MIT9301 and MIT9303). Preliminary attempts to grow 5 MIT9301 and MIT9303 on 2-AEPn as a P source have not been successful (Osburne and 6 Chisholm, personal communication), but recent experiments have shown that expression of 7 the *phnZ* and *phnY* genes in MIT9301 is greatly increased under phosphate limiting culture 8 conditions (Coleman and Chisholm, unpublished). In both strains the *phnY/phnZ* pathway is 9 located next to a putative Pn ABC transporter within a genomic island (Coleman et al., 2006; 10 Martiny et al., 2006), again suggesting that these strains may have been acquired this pathway 11 by HGT. Interestingly, both strains were isolated from the Sargasso Sea, which is 12 characterized by extremely low DIP concentrations in the surface layer during the stratified 13 summer months (Wu et al., 2000). The metagenomic analysis reported here indicates that 14 these Prochlorococcus phnY/phnZ homologs are significantly enriched in the Sargasso Sea 15 surface waters compared with the higher DIP Station ALOHA samples. An independent 16 analysis of *Prochlorococcus* gene frequencies in the same datasets supports these observations 17 (Colleman and Chisholm, unpublished). These results suggest that the ability to utilize Pn 18 conferred by the *phnY/phnZ* pathway provides a selective advantage for *Prochlorococcus* in 19 low DIP ecosystems. Utilization of Pn by some strains of *Prochlorococcus* would have broad 20 implications for primary productivity in P-limited ecosystems.

The increased representation of Pn utilization genes in surface waters at the Sargasso Sea site compared to Station ALOHA is not exclusive to *Prochlorococcus*. Indeed, all Pn genes analyzed follow that trend. For example, the *phnI* and *phnJ* genes of the C-P lyase pathway are present in more than 16% of the bacteria in the 20 and 50 m samples at BATS, and less than 1% at all depths at Station ALOHA. This signal is almost exclusively from Alphaproteobacteria in both systems, with *Candidatus Pelagibacter sp*. HCCT7211 providing the dominant signal in the Sargasso Sea. We have shown here that *Ruegeria pomeyori* DSS-3,

1 an alphaproteobacterium represented in these data, is capable of using 2-AEPn and MPn as a 2 P source providing direct evidence for Pn utilization in this group. We also found C-P lyase 3 genes of two cyanobacterial species, Cyanothece sp. PCC 8802 and Synechococcus sp. PCC 4 7335, suggesting that they might be able to use Pn as P source, similar to the filamentous 5 cyanobacterium Trichodesmium (Dyhrman et al., 2006). Finally, there is high representation 6 of *phnA*, which is involved in phosphonoacetate degradation, and *phnX* and *phnW* genes 7 (phosphonatase pathway) in the Sargasso Sea surface waters. This signal appears to originate 8 in large part from alphaproteobacterial members of the community, but also includes 9 Pseudomonas-like sequences similar to those identified in this study. These results provide 10 strong evidence that Pn use is widespread among the microbial community that thrives in P 11 limited waters of the Western North Atlantic. Although no expression data for the Sargasso 12 Sea depth profile analyzed here is yet available, we found hits to phnY, phnZ, phnA, phnI and 13 phnJ in metatrancriptomic data from the Sargasso Sea (M. A. Moran, unpublished) and other 14 ocean regions (J. Zehr, unpublished). In addition, expression of C-P lyase genes from 15 Trichodesmium (Dyhrman et al., 2006) and the periplasmic component of the Pn ABC 16 transporter, PhnD from Pelagibacter ubique HTCC7211 (Sowell et al., 2009) have been 17 observed in the Sargasso Sea supporting the conclusion that Pn utilization genes are expressed 18 in this environment.

19 At both stations, the frequency of some Pn utilization genes was high in deep water 20 samples, even though the measured DIP concentrations are significantly higher than in surface 21 waters. In the HOT samples the increase in *phn* gene frequency was most evident below the 22 100 m mark (the depth where the measured DIP concentration starts to increase in station 23 ALOHA (Bjorkman and Karl, 2003)) and continued all the way to the 4000 m sample. The 24 frequency of *phnX*, *phnW*, and *phnA* genes was particularly high and appeared to be derived 25 from representatives of numerous diverse bacterial groups. One possible explanation for Pn 26 utilization in the presence of high concentrations of DIP comes from the fact that the most 27 abundant Pn genes in the deep belong to Pn utilization pathways that allow their use not only

1 as P but also as a source of N and even C. In other microorganisms where that has been 2 shown to be the case, these genes are expressed in the presence of their substrate but 3 independently of P availability (McMullan and Quinn, 1992; McGrath et al., 1997; Ternan 4 and Quinn, 1998; O'Loughlin et al., 2006; Gilbert et al., 2008). Consistent with this 5 hypothesis, we have shown that the fosmid clone containing the phosphonatase pathway 6 isolated from a 130 m sample allows the use of 2-AEPn as both P and N source. Also, it has 7 been recently shown that marine Vibrio isolates that contain a phnA gene can use 8 phosphonoacetate as a source of P and C (Gilbert et al., 2008), and that 2-AEPn and PnAc 9 pathways appear to be under catabolite repression in Agromyces fucosus Vs2 (O'Loughlin et 10 al., 2006) underscoring the relevance of these compounds as a C source. It seems possible 11 that the increase in *phnX*, *phnW* and *phnA* representation in deep waters reflects an adaptation 12 to the use these compounds as a complete P, N and C source by heterotrophic bacteria and 13 thus are more prevalent below the photic zone. This observation is consistent with chemical 14 analysis data of HMW DOM and sinking particles that have shown that Pns are remineralized 15 throughout the water column (Clark et al., 1999; Benitez-Nelson et al., 2004) and with the 16 observation that the moderately N- and P- rich fraction of the DOM is labile and it is 17 decomposed preferentially (Hopkinson and Vallino, 2005).

In summary, our results suggest that functional screens are a powerful approach for characterizing the function of hypothetical genes in genomic and metagenomic data sets, especially when combined with metagenomic analysis and laboratory experiments in marine model microorganisms. More importantly, our results indicate that the utilization of Pn metabolism in the oceans is widespread among diverse and abundant bacterial groups, and it is likely to play an important role not only in the P, also the N and C biogeochemical cycles.

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#### 25 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

26 Chemicals, media, and bacterial strains.

1 Methylphosphonate (MPn), 2-aminoethylphosphonate (2-AEPn), phosphonoformate 2 (PnF), phosphonoacetate (PnAc), and phosphite (Pt) were from Sigma Aldrich. MOPS 3 minimal medium and MOPS minimal medium without NH<sub>4</sub> were purchased from Tecknova 4 (Hollister, CA). Phosphate Colorimetric Assay kit was from BioVision, Inc. (Mountain 5 View, CA). E. coli BW16787 and BW18812 were obtained from B. Wanner through the E. 6 Coli Genetic Stock Center. Ruegeria pomeyori DSS-3, Vibrio angustum S14, and 7 *Planctomyces maris* DSM8797 were obtained from M.A. Moran, S. Kjelleberg, and ATCC, 8 respectively.

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#### 10

#### **Screening of metagenomic libraries for Pn utilization.**

11 Marine picoplankton fosmid libraries were previously constructed from samples 12 collected along a depth profile from the Hawaii Ocean Time series (HOT) station ALOHA 13 (22°45' N, 158°W) at cloned into the copy-control pCC1FOS fosmid vector (Epicentre) 14 (DeLong et al., 2006). These libraries were pooled and fosmid DNA was isolated by alkaline 15 lysis followed by cesium chloride ultracentrifugation (Sambrook et al., 1989). Aliquots of 16 the pooled fosmid DNA were used to transform BW16787 by electroporation (1.2 Kv/cm, 17 200 Ohms, 25 µF). After electroporation, cells were incubated at 37°C in 1 ml SOC to allow 18 for antibiotic resistance expression, and rinsed twice in 5 ml of MOPS buffer to remove 19 phosphate prior to plating in selective medium. Plating media consisted of MOPS minimal 20 medium with 0.4% glycerol, 12 µg/ml chloramphenicol, and 0.1 mM MPn or 2-AEPn. A 21 small fraction of each transformation was also plated in minimal medium containing Pi to 22 evaluate the transformation efficiency and estimate library coverage. Screening plates were 23 incubated at 30°C for up to 20 days. The empty fosmid vector, CCFOS1, was used as a 24 negative control. Negative control and screening plates always contained a large number of 25 microcolonies that arose from the utilization of the residual Pi in this medium (Metcalf and 26 Wanner, 1993b). Only large colonies clearly distinguishable from that background were 27 chosen for further characterization. Phosphonate positive clones were restreaked on selective

1 medium and fosmid DNA was isolated and retransformed into BW16787 to confirm the 2 phenotype. Restriction analysis and fosmid end sequencing were used to identify replicates. 3 Unique fosmids were sequenced using transposon mutagenesis as described (Martinez et al., 4 2007). The complete DNA sequence was assembled using Sequencher v. 4.5 (Gene Codes 5 Corporation) and annotated with FGENESB (Softberry) and Artemis v. 6 (The Wellcome 6 Trust Sanger Institute). At least one clone containing a transposon insertion in each 7 predicted ORF was transformed back into BW16787 and screened for growth on Pn as 8 above.

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- 10

#### Growth on 2-AEPn as N source.

To evaluate the ability of library clones to grow on 2-AEPn as N source, clones were streaked on  $NH_4$ -free MOPS minimal medium containing 5mM 2-AEPn with or without addition of 0.1 mM Pi. Clones were tested in the original BW16787 strain as well as in a new copy-up derivative, BW16787 *trfA*, created by P1 transduction of the copy-up  $P_{BAD}$ -*trfA* marker from the Translator strain (Lucigen Corp., Middleton, WI). For copy-up conditions, 0.2% arabinose was added to the growth medium.

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## 18 Complementation analysis of individual C-P lyase genes.

19 Strains harboring individual mutations in the catalytic genes of *E. coli* C-P lyase were 20 obtained from the Keio collection and in frame deletions were constructed as described 21 (Datsenko and Wanner, 2000; Baba et al., 2006). Empty CCFOS1 vector and library clones 22 were transformed into the resulting strains and growth on Pn was tested on plates as above.

23

## 24 Pn specificity tests for fosmid library clones.

Pn specificity was evaluated in microtiter plate liquid cultures as follows. BW16787
strains containing the identified Pn-positve clones or the empty fosmid vector CCFOS1, and
BW18812 (CCFOS1) as a Pn<sup>+</sup> control were grown for 48 hrs in MOPS glycerol medium with

0.1 mM Pi. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation, rinsed twice in P-free MOPS buffer, and
used to inoculate in triplicate 150 ml of medium containing 0.2mM P source. Plates were
incubated at 30°C for 2 days. Growth on each P source was measured using the WST-1 cell
proliferation assay (Roche Molecular Diagnostics) which measures respiratory activity by the
reduction of the soluble tetrazolium salt WST-1 to colored formazan (Ishiyama et al., 1996)

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## 7 Growth of marine natural isolates on Pn as a P source.

8 Bacterial isolates to be tested for growth on Pn as P source were grown for 48h in a 9 modified VNSS medium (0.1xVNSS, 0.1 g peptone, 0.05 g yeast extract, 0.05 g glucose, 10 0.05 g starch, 1mg FeSO<sub>4</sub>.7H<sub>2</sub>O, 1 mg NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> per liter of nine salts solution (NSS) 11 (Marden et al., 1985)) at room temperature, rinsed twice in P-free NSS, and resuspended in 1 12 volume equivalent of NSS. 10 µl of inoculum were added in triplicate to microtiter plate 13 wells containing 160  $\mu$ l of growth medium (NSS with 4g Glucose, 2.2 g (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and 1 ml 14 vitamin solution (Gonzalez et al., 2003) per liter) with 0.1 mM P source as indicated. 15 Growth was monitored by measuring optical density (440 nm) in a Biotek Synergy2 plate 16 The stability of the Pn compounds during the course of the experiment was reader. 17 monitored using a colorimetric phosphate assay (BioVision Inc., Mountain View, CA) in an 18 uninoculated plate incubated under the same conditions. In addition, E. coli BW16787 19  $(\Delta phn)$ , which cannot utilize reduced P compounds, was used as negative control. Viability 20 of the negative control strain in the Pn media during the entire course of the experiment was 21 tested by showing that growth could take place upon Pi addition after 5 days of incubation. 22 For strains that only reached low optical density, cell proliferation was also measured using 23 the WST-1 viability assay (Roche Applied Sciences, Indianapolis, IN).

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## 25 Sample collection, DNA extraction and pyrosequencing.

Bacterioplankton samples were obtained form Hawaii Ocean Time-series Station
 ALOHA in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre (22°44'N, 158°2'W) and BATS Station in the

Sargasso Sea (31°40'N, 64°10'W). At each site, bacterioplankton samples were collected from the photic zone at the mixed layer, just below the mixed layer, and at the deep chlorophyll maximum (25, 75, and 125 m for HOT179, 25, 75 and 110m for HOT186, and 25, 50, and 100m for BATS216), and the mesopelagic zone (500m). The H4000m shotgun library has been previously described (Kostantinidis et al., 2009). Sample collection and DNA extraction were performed as previously described (Frias-Lopez et al., 2008). 3-5  $\mu$ g of community DNA were sequenced using Genome Sequencer FLX (Roche).

8

## 9 **Bioinformatics.**

10 Conserved domains were identified using CDD (Marchler-Bauer et al., 2007). 11 Abundance and distribution of Pn genes in the databases was performed as follows. Deduced 12 peptide sequences of the Pn genes identified in the screens, PhnI (4080494), PhnJ 13 (40804945) from Pseudomonas stutzeri, PhnA (1196755) from P. fluorescens, and E. coli 14 RecA and GyrB as single copy reference were used as query to interrogate available databases using NCBI Blast. An expectation cutoff value of 1x10<sup>-20</sup> was used for NCBI NR, 15 16 GOS, HOTS and BATS shotgun data. For shorter pyrosequencing reads, a bit cutoff value of 17 40 was used initially (DeLong et al., 2006; Yooseph et al., 2007; Frias-Lopez et al., 2008) but 18 was verified for each gene by comparing the pyosequencing hits against NR and selecting 19 cutoff values that returned as best blast hit only proteins identified as members of the same 20 family as the query gene by annotation or phylogenetic tree analyses (bellow). Based on 21 these analyses, bit score cutoff of 40 was used for all genes except for phnZ and phnW (b>45 22 and b>50, respectively). Gene counts were size normalized using the query protein length. 23 The percentage of microbes containing each gene was calculated assuming that recA is 24 present in single copy in every microbial genome (Howard et al., 2008; Reisch et al., 2008).

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#### 26 **Phylogenetic Analyses**

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Homologues of HF130\_AEPn\_1 phnY and phnZ were identified in public databases

1 by comparing the amino acids sequences for each gene against the non-redundant (NR) 2 NCBI database and the peptide database available for the Global Ocean Survey (GOS) using 3 BLAST (Altschul et al., 1997). Peptide sequences matching our query sequences with an expectation value of less than  $1e^{-20}$  and aligning over >85% of the query protein length was 4 5 considered significant and used in subsequent analyses. Datasets for each gene aligned using 6 ClustalW version 1.7 (Thompson et al., 1994) and manually refined using the ARB software 7 package (Ludwig et al., 2004). Masks were created in ARB using the base frequency filter 8 tool (20% minimal similarity) to remove hypervariable regions. This produced masked 9 alignments of 233 and 173 amino acids for *phnY* and *phnZ* respectively. 10 Parsimonydendrograms were constructed using the masked amino acid alignments in ARB. 11 Support for interior nodes of the dendrograms was determined using 500 bootstrap 12 resamplings of maximum parsimony (MP) trees calculated in PAUP\* version 4.0b2a (D. L. 13 Swofford, Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, MA).

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## 15 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

16 We thank M.A. Moran, S. Kjelleberg, B. Wanner and the CGSC for bacterial strains; the 17 captain and crew of the R/V Kilo Moana and R/V Atlantic Explorer, the HOTS and BATS 18 teams, and Tracy Mincer, Jay McCarren, Yanmei Shi, Matt Sullivan, Maureen Colleman, 19 Suzanne Kern, and Sarah Bagby for collecting and processing metagenomic samples; Rachel 20 Barry and Stephan Schuster and colleagues for pyrosequencing HOT186 and BATS216 21 samples, respectively; Tsultrim Palden for assistance with fosmid sequencing; and the Joint 22 Genomics Institute for constructing and sequencing shot-gun libraries. We also thank Marcia 23 Osburne for comments on the manuscript. This work was supported by a grant from the 24 Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation (EFD), the Department of Energy Genomics GTL 25 Program, and NSF Microbial Observatory award (MCB-0348001).

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**Table 1.** Abundance of *phn* genes in shotgun metagenomic libraries from Station ALOHA and the Sargasso Sea. Results expressed as % of microorganisms estimated to contain gene of interest (assuming *recA* is present in single copy in every bacterium). Expectation cutoff value  $1x10^{-20}$ .

		Sargasso Sea					
Gene	HOT179_25m	HOT179_75m	HOT179_125m	HOT179_500m	HOT4000m	BATS216_20m	BATS216_50m
HF130_AEPn_1 phnY	0	0	3	3	5	0	0
HF130_AEPn_1 phnZ	10	9	9	4	3	24	15
HF130_AEPn_2 phnW	0	3	3	13	63	5	9
HF130_AEPn_2 phnX	3	0	0	12	20	14	5
phnI	0	0	2	0	6	25	18
phnJ	0	0	0	0	4	35	17
phnA	13	3	14	20	26	7	10
recA	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
gyrB	66	51	39	45	142	114	108

**Table 2.** Abundance of *phn* genes in pyrosequencing metagenomic databases from Station ALOHA and the Sargasso Sea. Results expressed as % of microorganisms estimated to contain gene of interest (assuming *recA* is present in single copy in every bacterium). Bitscore (b) cutoff value b>40 except for *phnZ* (b>45) and *phnW* (b>50).

	Station ALOHA				Sargasso Sea			
Query	HOT186_25m	HOT186_75m	HOT186_110m	HOT186_500m	BATS216_20m	BATS216_50m	BATS216_110m	BATS216_500m
HF130_AEPn_1 phnY	0	1	3	6	1	4	7	4
HF130_AEPn_1 phnZ	2	3	11	22	8	10	19	10
HF130_AEPn_2 phnW	5	4	8	12	6	5	9	18
HF130_AEPn_2 phnX	0	0	1	8	9	7	5	0
phnI	1	0	0	1	20	16	5	0
phnJ	0	1	0	1	28	16	12	0
phnA	6	4	5	16	10	4	10	26
recA	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
gyrB	102	102	118	111	105	102	118	92

#### 1 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

2 Figure 1. A. Schematic representation of the C-P lyase operon in wild type E. coli and the 3 deletion strain BW16787. Genes are marked according to their assigned function as follows: 4 putative ABC transporter components (light blue), catalytic components (dark blue), 5 regulatory (red), and accessory proteins (orange). BW16787 has a deletion encompassing 6 phnG-phnP which renders it Phn<sup>-</sup>. **B.** Predicted C-P lyase operon in HF70\_[96]11A08 7 (APKI441) and MPn complementation assay for individual in-frame deletions in the C-P 8 lyase operon. Genes are marked according to their assigned functions as above. A 9 hypothetical gene of unknown function preceding *phnM* is marked in white. For the Mpn 10 complementation assay, strains with in-frame deletions in each of the genes encoding 11 catalytic subunits of the C-P lyase were transformed with either HF70\_[96]11A08 12 (APKI441) or the empty fosmid, CCFOS1, And spotted in MOPS glycerol medium 13 containing 0.2 mM MPn as P source. HF70 [96]11A08 (APKI441) was able to complement 14 *phnH* and *phnN* mutations for growth on Mpn.

15

16 Figure 2.A. 2-AEPn phenotypes of HF130\_AEPn\_1 and HF130\_AEPn\_2. A. The 17 complementation phenotype for growth on 2-AEPn as P, as N, and as P and N source was 18 tested in the original screening strain, BW16787 (top) and under copy up conditions in 19 BW16787 trfA (bottom). CCFOS1 is shown as negative control. HF130 AEPn 1 and 20 HF130\_AEPn\_2 allow growth on 2-AEPn as P source in single copy, and only HF130\_AEPn\_2 allows utilization of 2-AEPn as N source (marked with arrow). 21 22 HF130\_AEPn\_130\_1 appears to be toxic under copy up conditions. **B**. Pn specificity assay. 23 BW16787 harboring CCFOS1, HF130\_AEPn\_1, and HF130\_AEPn\_2, were grown in liquid 24 cultures with 0.2 mM of the following P sources: phosphate (Pi), 2-AEPn, MPn, 25 phosphonoacetate (PnAc), phosphonoformate (PnF), and phosphite (Pt). Growth was 26 measured using a WST-1 proliferation assay after 2 days at 30°C. BW18812 (Phn<sup>+</sup>) 27 containing CCFOS1 was used as the positive control.

1

2 Figure 3. Genes required for 2-AEPn utilization in HF130\_AEpn\_2. Three genes were 3 required for growth on 2-AEPn (marked with an asterisk): lysR, encoding a LysR-type 4 transcriptional activator (blue), phnW encoding a 2-AEPn:pyruvate aminotransferase (red), 5 and phnX encoding a 2-phosphonoacetaldehyde hydrolase or phosphonatase (green). A 6 putative cybB gene (orange) in the same predicted operon was not required in E. coli. Gene 7 arrangement of the phosphonatase operon in P. fluorescens and selected marine bacteria in 8 A phnZ homolog found adjacent to phnX and phnW in Planctomyces maris shown. 9 DSM8797 is marked (dark green). The phosphonatase pathway is shown for reference.

10

Figure 4. Genes required for 2-AEPn in HF130\_AEpn\_1. Two genes were required for growth on 2-AEPn (marked with an asterisk): *phnY* (pink), encoding a putative 2oxoglutarate dioxygensase, and *phnZ* (green), encoding a protein of the HD phosphohydrolase family. Gene arrangement in other microorganisms containing similar genes is shown. The location of genes encoding a putative Pn ABC transporter in *P. marinus* MIT9303 and MIT9301 is shown in orange.

17

**Figure 5.** Growth of marine bacteria on Pns as P source. *Vibrio angustum* S14, *Ruegeria pomeyori* DSS-3, and *Planctomyces maris* DSM8797 were grown in marine synthetic medium containing 0.1 mM P source (2-AEPn, MPn, Pt or Pi as indicated). Growth was monitored measuring optical density (440 nm). *E. coli* BW16787 (Phn<sup>-</sup>) was used as a negative control to monitor Pn stability during the course of the experiments. Addition of Pi to this strain after 5 days incubation results in detectable growth in all media.

24

Figure 6. Putative taxonomic affiliation of *phn* genes in metagenomic databases. Putative taxonomic affiliation was derived from the top BLAST hit against NR database for each *phn* sequence identified in the libraries. A. Deep water *phn* sequences in Station ALOHA for

1	the4000 m shotgun library (H4000_SG) (top) and 500 m pyrosequenced library
2	(H186_500m) (bottom). B. phn sequences in the Sargasso Sea surface waters. Data from
3	BATS216 50m pyrosequenced library. See Supplementary Tables S5 and S6 for more
4	information.
5	



Figure 2. Phenotype of complementing clones



0.3 0.25 0.2 **u** 0.2 0.15 0.15 ■ CCFOS **1**30\_1 **■**130\_2 BW18812 0.1 0.05 0 + noP Pi AEPn MPn PnAc PnF Pt

Figure 3. Note: I want to include some simpler version of the lower panel (just the operon in a few marine strains)



130\_2



Tn\_phnX

Tn\_phnW

Figure 4. Required genes are boxed

	130_1_05_phyH			130_1_06_HD		130_1_0	7
6600	6900	7200		7500	7800	8100	8400
CDS		(	CDS			CDS	promoter

130_1		Plesiocystis pacifica SIR-1, unfinished sequence: NZ_ABCS01000022 97117 197117 197117 192117
		Nitroscoccus oceani ATCC 19707: NC_007484         153669         153669         153669         153669         155669
		Planctomyces         maris         DSH 8797, unfinished         sequence:         NZ_ABCE01000018         selfst         41151         46151         51151           4151         24151         24151         24151         36151         41151         46151         51151           44         4         4         4         4         4         4         4         4
CCFOS1	Tn_6_HD	Endlis         Sp. Cc13:         NC_007777           2339971         2339971         2334971         2354971         2359971         2359971         2359971         2359971         2359971         2359971         2359971         2359971         2059971         2
A CONTRACT OF A CONTRACT.		Aspergillus niger CBS 513.88 clone An02: NT_166519 1997115 1992115 1992115 1992115 1992115 1992115 1992115 1992115 1992115 1992115 1992115 1992115 1992115 1992115
		Prochlorococcus marinus str. HIT 9303: NC_008820         1417325         1487325         997325
		Prochlorococcus marinus str. HIT 9301: NC_009091         1463725         146372
Tn_5_phy		Bradyrhizobium Japonicum USDh 110: NC_004463         2383266         2313266         2313266         2313266         2313266         2313266         2313266         2323266         2323266         2312266
		Nesorhizobium         1oti         NAFF3030991         NC_002678         4781548         4791546         491848         486548         4811848         486548         4811848         486548         4811848         4865548         4811848

Figure 5. Growth curves on P



## Table 1. Pn gene counts in shotgun libraries

size normalyzed % bugs recA cutoff e-20 (only 1hsp/hit)

Gene	HOT179_25m	HOT179_75m	HOT179_125m	HOT179_500m	HF4000	HOT186_25m	BATS216_20m	BATS216_50m
130_1_5_phyH	0	0	3	3	5	4	0	0
130_1_6_HD	10	9	9	4	3	0	24	15
130_2_22_phnW	0	3	3	13	63	8	5	9
130_2_21_phnX	3	0	0	12	20	0	14	5
phnI	0	0	2	0	6	0	25	18
phnJ	0	0	0	0	4	0	35	17
phnA	13	3	14	20	26	9	7	10
recA	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
gyrB	66	51	39	45	142	106	114	108

## Table 2. Pn gene counts in 454 libraries

size normalyzed % bugs recA

Query	HOT186_25m HOT186_75M	HOT18	6_110М НОТ18	6_500M BATS_20	m BATS_50m	BATS_110m	BATS_500m
130_1_5_phyH	0	1	3	6	1	4	7 4
130_1_6_HD	2	3	11	22	8	10	19 10
130_2_22_phnW	5	4	8	12	6	5	9 18
130_2_21_phnX	0	0	1	8	9	7	5 0
phnI	1	0	0	1	20	16	5 0
phnJ	0	1	0	1	28	16	12 0
PhnA	6	4	5	16	10	4	10 26
RecA	100 1	.00	100	100	100	100	LOO 100
GyrB	102 1	.02	118	111	105	102	L18 92

cutoff b=40 except for HD (b=45)and phnW (b=50)