

1 **Enrichable consortia of microbial symbionts degrade**
2 **macroalgal polysaccharides in *Kyphosus* fish**

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20
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23 Abstract

24 Coastal herbivorous fishes consume macroalgae, which is then degraded by microbes
25 along their digestive tract. However, there is scarce foundational genomic work on the
26 microbiota that perform this degradation. This study explores the potential of *Kyphosus*
27 gastrointestinal microbial symbionts to collaboratively degrade and ferment polysaccharides
28 from red, green, and brown macroalgae through *in silico* study of carbohydrate-active enzyme
29 and sulfatase sequences. Recovery of metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) reveals
30 differences in enzymatic capabilities between the major microbial taxa in *Kyphosus* guts. The
31 most versatile of the recovered MAGs were from the Bacteroidota phylum, whose MAGs house
32 enzymes able to decompose a variety of algal polysaccharides. Unique enzymes and predicted
33 degradative capacities of genomes from the *Bacillota* (genus *Vallitalea*) and *Verrucomicrobiota*
34 (order Kiritimatiellales) suggest the potential for microbial transfer between marine sediment and
35 *Kyphosus* digestive tracts. Few genomes contain the required enzymes to fully degrade any
36 complex sulfated algal polysaccharide alone. The distribution of suitable enzymes between
37 MAGs originating from different taxa, along with the widespread detection of signal peptides in
38 candidate enzymes, is consistent with cooperative extracellular degradation of these
39 carbohydrates. This study leverages genomic evidence to reveal an untapped diversity at the
40 enzyme and strain level among *Kyphosus* symbionts and their contributions to macroalgae
41 decomposition. Bioreactor enrichments provide a genomic foundation for degradative and
42 fermentative processes central to translating the knowledge gained from this system to the
43 aquaculture and bioenergy sectors.

44 Importance

45 Seaweed has long been considered a promising source of sustainable biomass for
46 bioenergy and aquaculture feed, but scalable industrial methods for decomposing terrestrial
47 compounds can struggle to break down seaweed polysaccharides efficiently due to their unique
48 sulfated structures. Fish of the genus *Kyphosus* feed on seaweed by leveraging gastrointestinal
49 bacteria to degrade algal polysaccharides into simple sugars. This study is the first to build
50 genomes for these gastrointestinal bacteria to enhance our understanding of herbivorous fish
51 digestion and fermentation of algal sugars. Investigations at the gene level identify *Kyphosus*
52 guts as an untapped source of seaweed-degrading enzymes ripe for further characterization.
53 These discoveries set the stage for future work incorporating marine enzymes and microbial
54 communities in the industrial degradation of algal polysaccharides.

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61 Introduction

62 The *Kyphosus* genus of herbivorous fish, commonly referred to as nenu or rudderfish,
63 graze primarily on macroalgae (1). *Kyphosus* fish serve important ecological roles by controlling
64 algal cover in Indo-Pacific (2) and Caribbean coral reefs (3), thereby mediating coral-algal
65 competition and overall coral growth and benthic community composition (4). Their diverse diet
66 includes macroalgae from the three major taxonomic groups: Rhodophyta (red), Chlorophyta
67 (green) and Ochrophyta (brown) (1). Polysaccharides constitute as much as 60% of macroalgal
68 cells by weight (5) and serve roles in both cell structure and energy storage (6). The complex
69 network of linkages in structural polysaccharides resist degradation from chemical and
70 enzymatic stressors and serves as a physical defense mechanism for algal cells (7).

71 Algal polysaccharides differ from common polysaccharides found in land plants due to
72 the addition of sulfate ester groups (8). Structural polysaccharides from red algae include agar,
73 carrageenan, porphyran, and xylan, which all contain such sulfate groups (9). Brown algae
74 contains the sulfated polysaccharide fucoidan for structure as well as unsulfated alginate as a
75 storage polysaccharide (9). Green algae contain sulfated polysaccharides such as xylan and ulvan
76 but also contain large amounts of unsulfated cellulose common in land plants (9). Algal
77 polysaccharides are depolymerized primarily through the enzymatic activity of bacterial
78 glycoside hydrolases (GHs) and polysaccharide lyases (PLs) (10), two classes of carbohydrate-
79 active enzymes (CAZymes) (11). Sulfated polysaccharides are particularly recalcitrant to
80 digestion because an additional enzyme class, the sulfatases, is necessary for complete
81 degradation. Full enzyme pathways for the breakdown of various algal polysaccharides have
82 been proposed (9,12) that include both required CAZyme and sulfatase activities. However, not
83 all algal polysaccharides have well-defined degradation pathways or unique associated
84 CAZymes that enable a high-level connection between gene presence and catabolized substrates.
85 Likewise, sulfatase classes within the SulfAtlas database (13) are primarily classified based on
86 evolutionary history rather than substrate specificity or enzymatic activity, so our ability to
87 evaluate pathway completeness *in silico* is limited.

88 Once complex carbohydrates are broken into subunits by CAZymes and sulfatases, they
89 are utilized by gut microbiota in fermentation reactions to produce short-chain fatty acids
90 (SCFAs) (14). The SCFAs acetate, propanoate, and butyrate have been previously measured in
91 high quantities in *Kyphosus* hindguts (15) and are utilized by the host fish for energy (16).
92 Previous work has suggested correlations between SCFA profiles and bacterial composition (15),
93 but there is no genomic work in algivorous fish pinpointing which microbiota contribute to host
94 nutrition in this way and what pathways are utilized to produce these essential SCFAs.

95 Our overall understanding of the role of gut microbiota in digestion is still limited in most
96 fishes (17), including *Kyphosus*, in part due to a focus on gut composition and diversity rather
97 than function. The genetic study of *Kyphosus* gut symbionts has been limited to 16S rRNA
98 (15,18) and metabolomic (18) investigations until the incorporation of shotgun metagenomics in

99 a few recent studies (19,20). What functional profiling has been done in fish guts often relies on
100 extrapolation from amplicon-based taxonomic distributions (21–24), and no study has yet
101 generated a large collection of metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) from an algivorous
102 fish gut. A *de novo* genomic investigation of *Kyphosus* symbionts has the potential to reveal
103 degradative capacities that cannot be extrapolated from taxonomic lineage or relatedness to
104 database representatives.

105 Discoveries from better studied human gut and terrestrial herbivore systems provide
106 suggestions for how *Kyphosus* symbionts might gain and use such gene pathways. Human gut
107 bacteria have acquired enzymes which degrade sulfated algal polysaccharides through horizontal
108 gene transfer (25,26). Horizontal gene transfer of antibiotic resistance genes has also been
109 observed in fish gut biofilms (27), but this phenomenon has not yet been reported for
110 carbohydrate-active enzymes in any fish gut symbiont microbe. Once acquired, CAZymes and
111 sulfatases potentially originating from one or multiple organisms may then decompose algal
112 polysaccharides in complex, stepwise pathways. A cooperative division of labor strategy, in
113 which partial breakdown products from one bacterial population serve as a degradative substrate
114 for other bacteria in the community, has been proposed to occur in human gut microbiota (28)
115 and has been suggested as a way to improve polysaccharide degradation in engineered
116 communities (29). The degree to which collaboration may occur in the herbivorous fish
117 gastrointestinal tract remains unknown.

118 Exploring functional diversity not only improves our understanding of herbivorous fish
119 digestion but may also enable concrete applications in the fields of aquaculture and bioenergy.
120 Most aquaculture is currently sustained through compound feeds that are composed of fishmeal
121 and fish oils from wild-caught fish (30). Although innovations in aquaculture feed have lowered
122 the trophic levels of captive carnivorous fish and improved overall feed efficiency (31), concerns
123 about sustainability and food security remain. Wan *et al.* (2019) argue that the discovery of
124 efficient methods to degrade complex polysaccharides and enhance nutrient digestibility is a key
125 knowledge gap and barrier limiting macroalgae inclusion into commercial aquafeeds (32).
126 Macroalgal feed additives are also known to counteract methanogenesis in terrestrial ruminants
127 (33) and thus can be applied to reduce methane emissions from livestock husbandry. However,
128 deficiencies in ruminant microbiome digestive capacities may influence the future development
129 and long-term success of seaweed dietary supplementation strategies. Research on *Kyphosus*
130 symbionts and their enzymes can inspire commercializable and scalable methods to break down
131 these barriers in industry.

132 Innovations exploiting the experimental propagation of enrichment cultures with
133 *Kyphosus* symbionts can harness these microbial communities for further study and
134 experimentation with commercial outputs in the bioenergy sector as well as the development of
135 macroalgal feed supplements. While a few bacterial isolates have been recovered and sequenced
136 from *kyphosid* guts (34), no previous study has enriched entire communities from these fishes to
137 investigate their hydrolytic and fermentative capabilities. Hydrolysis of carbohydrates, proteins,

138 and lipids into their monomeric components is a key step in biogas and bioethanol production
139 from macroalgae (35,36), and the degradation of algal polysaccharides is often the rate limiting
140 step in anaerobic digestion (37). Milledge *et al.* (2019) call for future studies to look beyond
141 commercially available enzymes to discover candidates that can more efficiently degrade algal
142 polysaccharides (38). The *Kyphosus* gut, with its understudied functional diversity and
143 degradative pathways, offers an untapped source of such enzyme and inoculum candidates.

144 This study leverages metagenome-assembled genomes from *Kyphosus vaigiensis*,
145 *Kyphosus cinerascens*, and *Kyphosus hawaiiensis* gut symbionts and inoculated bioreactor
146 enrichments to connect whole genome degradative potential of algal polysaccharides to accurate
147 taxonomic lineages and functional roles. The addition of genomes from bioreactor enrichments
148 explores leveraging the metabolic capacities of *Kyphosus* gut consortia in industrial processes.
149 This work extends previous studies of taxonomic-level biogeography (18) and contig-level gene
150 associations (15,20) in this system using high-quality MAGs, which enables differentiation
151 between processes that can potentially be executed within a single cellular compartment
152 (individual microbial species/population) and those likely to require cooperative action by
153 multiple cells from different species (community impacts). Discoveries in this study provide
154 foundation for genome-level understanding of microbial contributions to herbivorous fish
155 digestion and beget future investigations to apply these findings towards applications in the
156 aquaculture and bioenergy sectors.

157 Materials and Methods

158 Sample description and metagenomic assembly

159 DNA was extracted from liquid samples from ten anaerobic bioreactors inoculated with
160 gut contents from two *Kyphosus* fishes (**Table S1**) using methods previously described (18) and
161 propagated to enrich degradative properties. Samples were taken 9-10 days after inoculation and
162 incubation at 30°C. Anoxic cultures of 50ml were processed in a portable anaerobic chamber
163 containing one-third strength sterile artificial seawater (Instant Ocean, Spectrum Brands,
164 Blacksburg, VA) in 150ml serum bottles, crimp sealed with a rubber septum. Approximately 1g
165 of fish gut section contents were placed in the bottles along with the indicated substrate (**Table**
166 **S1**) and sealed, with no additional feedstock added before sequencing.

167 Samples were sequenced using Illumina NovaSeq 6000 technology (Illumina, San Diego,
168 CA). Read trimming was performed using Trimmomatic v. 0.36 (39) with the following
169 parameters: adapter-read alignment settings 2:30:10, LEADING:10, TRAILING:20,
170 HEADCROP:12, SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15, MINLEN:200. Taxonomic composition of
171 metagenomic reads was determined using Kraken v. 2.0.9 (40), with taxonomic assignment using
172 a protein database based on all amino acid sequences in the NCBI nr database (41) as of April
173 2022. Cleaned reads were assembled in metaSPAdes v. 3.13 (42) with a minimum contig
174 retention size of 2000 nucleotides.

175 Gene calling and functional annotation

176 Gene boundaries were predicted using prodigal v. 2.6.2 (43) and annotated using prokka
177 v. 1.12 (44). Genes were assigned to CAZy classes from the dbCAN HMMdb v. 10 database (45)
178 based on the CAZy database (11) and to sulfatases classes from the SulfAtlas v 2.3 database
179 (13), using methods previously described (20). Signal peptides were identified using SignalP v. 6
180 (46) with default parameters.

181 Enzyme novelty was evaluated using DIAMOND blastp (47) searches against the NCBI
182 nr database (41) as of April 2022. Some CAZyme classes were grouped into the category of
183 “peptidoglycanases” using the division proposed by López-Mondéjar *et al.* (2022) (48).
184 Distributions of annotated proteins were compared to free-living relatives from the OceanDNA
185 database (49).

186 Metagenomic binning and biosynthetic gene cluster prediction

187 Metagenomic binning was performed using MetaWRAP v. 1.3.2 (50) with a minimum
188 completeness cutoff of 0.7 and a maximum contamination cutoff of 0.05 as determined by
189 CheckM v. 1.0.12 (51). MAG taxonomy was determined using GTDB-Tk v. 1.5.1 (52) with
190 release 202 of the Genome Taxonomy Database (53).

191 Viral contigs and prophage were identified using DeepVirFinder v. 1.0 (54) using a q-
192 score cutoff of 0.94. Viral sequence completeness was determined using Checkv v. 1.5 (55), we
193 only retained regions marked as “high-quality” or “complete”. Viral sequences were assigned
194 host taxonomies using VPF-class (56).

195 Biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) were predicted for each MAG using antiSMASH v.
196 6.1 (57). Predicted products and BGC classes were annotated using BiG-SLiCE v. 1.1.1 (58).
197 Gene cluster distances were calculated using the BiG-FAM webservice v. 1.0.0 (59), using a
198 novelty distance cutoff of 900 following previous studies (59–61). Short chain fatty acid gene
199 clusters were annotated using gutSMASH v. 5.0.0 (62).

200 Phylogenomics and enzyme phylogenetics

201 A phylogenetic tree of MAGs was generated using PhyloPhlAn v. 3.0.2 (63) using a
202 concatenated universal set of 400 marker genes (64). MAGs containing at least 100 marker genes
203 underwent concatenated alignment using mafft v. 7.505 (65). The phylogenetic tree was built
204 using RaxML v. 8.2.12 (66) and visualized using R v. 4.2.0 (67) packages treeio v. 1.20.0 (68),
205 ggtree v. 3.4.0 (69), and ggtreeExtra v. 1.6.0 (70).

206 Multiple sequence alignments for genes belonging to CAZy class GH86 were made using
207 MUSCLE v 3.8.31 (71) and visualized using the R package ggmsa v. 1.2.0 (72). Gene trees were
208 created using FastTree v. 2.1.10 (73). Additional reference genes were included in the tree based
209 on DIAMOND blastp hits to the NCBI nr database as of April 2022. Protein domains were

210 analyzed with the CDD webservice (74). 3D protein structures for CAZymes were predicted
211 using ColabFold v. 1.3.0 (75) and visualized using ChimeraX v. 1.3 (76). Residue conservation
212 was visualized using the WebLogo (77) webservice.

213 Data availability

214 All custom code used for data analysis and visualization are available at
215 <https://github.com/AaronAOLiver/KyphosusMAGs>. Sequence reads are available under SRA
216 bioproject numbers PRJNA819194 and PRJNA1023379. Complete MAG sequences and
217 predicted proteins are available on Zenodo (<https://zenodo.org>) under DOI no.
218 10.5281/zenodo.8277654.

219 Results

220 A (meta)genome catalog of enrichable symbionts in the *Kyphosus* gut

221 New data derived from *K. cinerascens* and *K. hawaiiensis* enrichment cultures expands
222 the diversity of previous *K. cinerascens*, *K. hawaiiensis*, and *K. vaigiensis* gut metagenomes
223 (20). This more complete catalog of *Kyphosus* gut microbiota provides additional details on the
224 metabolic potential of taxa that were rare in the *in vivo* gut metagenome samples and highlights
225 potential challenges in harnessing gastrointestinal microbiota for industrial processes. The fish
226 inoculum species, gut location, and feedstock that were combined to establish each enrichment
227 sample are described in **Table S1**. The taxonomic classification of unassembled metagenomic
228 reads revealed a surprising consistency between the *in vivo* gut microbiomes (20) and enrichment
229 samples (**Figure 1**). *Bacillota*, *Bacteroidota*, and *Gammaproteobacteria* constitute the dominant
230 bacterial lineages in most samples, although the *Desulfovibrionales* order (phylum
231 *Thermodesulfobacteriota*) was highly abundant in two enrichment samples.

232 **Figure 1. Taxonomic distribution of enrichment and fish gut samples.** The taxonomic
233 distribution of unassembled classified reads as determined using Kraken2. Any taxonomic
234 lineages that are not associated with a binned MAG are grouped into “unbinned taxa.”

235 211 medium and high-quality MAGs were binned from the *in vivo* fish gut metagenomes
236 and newly assembled enrichment metagenomes. These MAGs all met the minimum 70%
237 completion, maximum 5% redundancy standards (78). The number of recovered MAGs per
238 metagenome is shown in **Figure S1**. The assembly statistics for enrichment metagenomes are
239 shown in **Table S2** and MIMAG-compliant (78) summary information are shown in **Table S3**.
240 Consistent with the unassembled read-based taxonomic profiles of the metagenomes, most
241 MAGs were assigned to the phyla *Bacillota* (78 MAGs), *Bacteroidota* (72), the class
242 *Gammaproteobacteria* (31), the class *Desulfovibrionales* (13), or *Verrucomicrobiota* (6). The
243 enrichments provide access to data on microbial members that were not as abundant in the fish
244 gut metagenomes and vice versa. In one example, the *Verrucomicrobiota* class *Kiritimatiellales*
245 was binned in fish gut samples but not in enrichment metagenomes. This novelty was reflected in

246 nucleotide similarities, as only 9 of the 74 (12%) enrichment MAGs match MAGs generated
247 from *in vivo* fish gut metagenomes at the species level.

248 Viral sequences comprised less than 0.5% of all unassembled metagenomic reads, with
249 69 viral contigs and 3 prophages identified as either high quality or complete. With these viral
250 elements, 30 auxiliary metabolic genes found on potential prophage regions were annotated as
251 CAZymes, and 13 as sulfatases, suggesting a potential role for viral dissemination of these genes
252 across the bacterial community. The taxa *Bacillota*, *Bacteroidota*, and *Gammaproteobacteria*
253 were the most frequently predicted viral hosts, which is consistent with the taxonomic
254 abundances of classified unassembled metagenomic reads and recovered MAGs (**Table S4**).
255 Despite the presence of numerous auxiliary metabolic genes generally related to polysaccharide
256 degradation, none of the viral sequences we detected appeared to specifically target large,
257 complex sulfated macroalgal polysaccharides.

258 **Genome capacities reveal metabolic specialization among gut symbionts of**
259 *Kyphosus* fish

260 The distribution of CAZymes and sulfatases was correlated with the phylogeny of fish
261 gut and enrichment MAGs (as determined through a concatenated marker gene tree, **Figure 2a**).
262 This assessment revealed that among the MAGs generated in this study, the *Bacteroidota*
263 genomes contained the majority of CAZymes and sulfatases (**Figure 2b**). Algal degradation-
264 specific CAZyme-rich genomes among the MAGs from other phyla were restricted either to a
265 single order, *Kiritimatiellales* (*Verrucomicrobiota*), or a single genus, *Vallitalea* (*Bacillota*).
266 Recovered *Gammaproteobacteria* and *Desulfovibrionales* genomes lacked enzymes required for
267 digesting sulfated algal polysaccharides, despite the relatively high abundance of these
268 taxonomic groups in classified unassembled reads and the recovered MAGs. However, the
269 *Gammaproteobacteria* MAGs contained more peptidoglycanases than other taxa, suggesting a
270 niche in digesting alternative dietary components. This analysis also showed that CAZymes
271 targeting ulvan, a green algal polysaccharide, were less prevalent among the obtained symbiotic
272 MAGs than CAZymes targeting red and brown algae-associated polysaccharides (**Figure 2b**),
273 consistent with previous results quantifying relative amounts of these algae types consumed by
274 the *Kyphosus* fish included in this study (20). The most abundant phyla all had binned MAGs
275 from both *in vivo* and enrichment samples (**Figure 2c**).

276 **Figure 2. Genomic CAZyme distributions reveal connections between metabolic strategies**
277 **and taxonomic lineage.** (A) The gene tree shows a concatenated alignment of 400 PhyloPhlAn
278 universal marker genes for each recovered MAG, with branches colored by assigned MAG
279 taxonomy. (B) The inner ring displays genomic gene counts for sulfatases and carbohydrate-
280 active enzymes that specifically target algal polysaccharides or peptidoglycan. (C)
281 Environmental source of each MAG.

282 An assessment of SCFA production gene pathways of recovered MAGs using
283 gutSMASH (62) revealed that most of the *Kyphosus* gut symbiotic taxa (67% of fish gut MAGs,

284 77% of enrichment MAGs) can potentially contribute to host nutrition through the production of
285 SCFAs (**Figure 3**). 139 genomes from analyzed kyphosid fish gut microbial communities
286 contained pathways for producing acetate but only six genomes contained pathways for butyrate
287 production. The pyruvate formate lyase and pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase pathways were
288 the most abundant overall, present in 126 MAGs, while *Bacteroidota* contained the most gene
289 clusters (39) related to propanoate production.

290 The overall prevalence of acetate pathways was lower than that found previously in
291 human gut microbiota. The total absence of some alternate fermentation pathways from our
292 MAGs, such as choline utilization, suggests that those processes are not core to dominant
293 members of the *Kyphosus* gut microbiome. Only one genome from this study contained
294 fermentation pathways involving the degradation of amino acids such as glycine, threonine, and
295 lysine, suggesting that *Kyphosus* gut microbiota do not rely directly on dietary proteins for
296 energy. Such lessened reliance on nitrogen-based substrates for fermentation is consistent with a
297 low protein, algae-based diet rich in available polysaccharides and limited in available nitrogen.

298 Functional adaptations to life in the *Kyphosus* gut

299 Adaptations to environmental conditions in herbivorous fish guts studied here are
300 reflected in the high abundance of CAZyme classes specifically targeting algal polysaccharides.
301 **Figure 4a** shows that the amino acid sequences of selected CAZyme classes abundant in our
302 assembled metagenomes are well conserved across *Kyphosus* gut symbiont genomes. However,
303 such enzymes are poorly represented in both specialty and general databases of previously
304 described sequences, with closest enzyme homologs averaging below 60% sequence similarity
305 for most of the examined CAZyme classes. Similar trends are observed for the sulfatase
306 subclasses in these *Kyphosus* gut symbiont genomes (**Figure 4b**). Both cases denote the extent
307 that this study expands known sequence diversity within these enzyme classes, potentially
308 suggests new subclasses, and highlights unusual domains that may not be captured by current
309 databases.

310 **Figure 4. *Kyphosus* gut symbionts encode CAZymes and sulfatases divergent from other**
311 **datasets and environments.** Percent identity of binned (A) CAZymes and (B) sulfatases to best
312 blast matches found in the following databases: all genes from MAGs in this study (orange), the
313 GenBank nr database (green), and either (A) the CAZy database or (B) the SulfAtlas database
314 (blue). Each group is labeled by the number of genes with that enzyme annotation found in our
315 MAGs.

316 The addition of novel enzymes sequences to each of these enzyme classes presents
317 numerous opportunities to expand our understanding of marine polysaccharide degradation. One
318 example using the phylogeny of CAZy class GH86, consisting of β -agarases and β -
319 porphyranases, illustrates previously unappreciated cryptic variability within this enzyme family.
320 A gene tree of class GH86 CAZyme examples from this study (**Figure 5**), that includes the
321 closest GenBank homologs, shows that most of the genes are associated with *Bacteroidota* from

322 *Kyphosus* guts. This is consistent with the high abundance of CAZymes and sulfatases found
323 among MAGS from the phylum (**Figure 2**). Surprisingly, two GH86 genes recovered in
324 *Bacillota* MAGs from bioreactor enrichments and two homologs from the NCBI nr database
325 cluster together with two genes found among hindgut MAGS from the phylum
326 *Verrucomicrobiota*, suggesting potential horizontal gene transfer from marine sediment
327 communities into *Kyphosus* gut microbiota. Binned genes annotated as β -porphyranases all
328 originate from hindgut or enrichment samples, consistent with previously reported physiological
329 localization of polysaccharide degradation capabilities (20).

330 **Figure 5. A β -agarase/ β -porphyranase gene tree highlights an undescribed protein domain**
331 **present in multiple phyla.** (A) A gene tree of binned GH86 enzymes, with gene names colored
332 by genome taxonomy. Nodes with black diamonds represent collapsed clades without the
333 undescribed domain. A multiple sequence alignment is appended to the end of the tree, with
334 colored vertical lines representing amino acid positions and white vertical lines representing
335 gaps. (B) The predicted protein structure of GH86 enzyme R2_26_16226, with conserved CAZY
336 domains highlighted in gray, the predicted signal peptide in green, and the conserved
337 undescribed domain in pink. An uncollapsed version of the gene tree is included as **Figure S2**
338 and a motif logo of the domain is included as **Figure S3**.

339 The multiple sequence alignment in **Figure 5a** highlights a unique pattern within the
340 *Bacillota* genus *Vallitalea* and neighboring *Verrucomicrobiota* CAZyme sequences that has not
341 been described in prior literature. This pattern might either extend the signal peptide or add an
342 additional uncharacterized domain between the signal peptide and the porphyranase catalytic
343 subdomain (79). Among NCBI nr homologs, only genes from an isolated *Vallitalea* genome
344 (WP_212695143.1, WP_212695474.1) (80) contained this pattern. No other proteins in the
345 GenBank nr database contained sequences matching this region at greater than 50% amino acid
346 identity for this pattern of approximately 168 amino acids, with few conserved residues among
347 our sequenced examples (**Figure S3**). Outside of the clade containing this novel domain,
348 variability occurs primarily in the putative signal peptide region at the N-terminus of the protein,
349 while the porphyranase domain itself is far more conserved. **Figure 5b** displays the predicted 3-
350 dimensional structure of a *Kyphosus* symbiont GH86 enzyme, with the additional
351 uncharacterized structure positioned between the predicted signal peptide and annotated catalytic
352 β -agarase and β -porphyranase domains. This uncharacterized domain might influence an array of
353 enzymatic properties such as a novel substrate specificity, concentration dependence, improved
354 efficiency, or tolerance of different abiotic conditions. Although the function of this domain
355 cannot be determined bioinformatically, this example is an interesting candidate for further
356 enzymatic characterization and shows the promise of uncovering novel enzyme activity within
357 the metabolic repertoire of the *Kyphosus* gut.

358 MAG sequences were interrogated using antiSMASH biosynthetic gene cluster detection
359 software to determine whether *Kyphosus* gut-associated microbial taxa might encode any
360 unusual secondary metabolites. The majority of *Bacillota*, *Bacteroidota*, *Verrucomicrobiota*, and

361 *Gammaproteobacteria* MAGs from both fish gut inocula and bioreactor enrichments encoded
362 BGCs typical of taxonomic relatives found in other vertebrate gut environments, such as
363 lanthipeptides, betalactone, and arylpolyene (81,82). However, BGCs were not particularly
364 abundant in our MAG catalog relative to other similar genomes. Our recovered
365 *Gammaproteobacteria*, *Bacillota*, and *Bacteroidota* average fewer BGCs per genome than a
366 random set of seawater MAGs of each taxonomic group from the OceanDNA database. Thus,
367 our host-associated MAGs contain fewer BGCs per genome than their free-living relatives.

368 A total of 307 BGCs were annotated within our MAGs (**Figure 6**). 23% of annotated
369 BGCs were determined to be complete based on BiG-FAM. 20 BGCs represent putative novel
370 gene cluster families as determined by BiG-FAM (**Figure 6b**). These novel gene cluster families
371 may represent unique natural products or enzymes specialized to the *Kyphosus* gut environment.
372 Complete biosynthetic gene cluster annotations, novelty assessment, and associated taxonomy
373 are included in **Table S5**.

374 **Figure 6. *Kyphosus* gut symbiont MAGs encode novel biosynthetic gene clusters.** (A) On the
375 positive y-axis, counts of binned BGCs grouped by BiG-SLiCE class and labeled by predicted
376 product. On the negative y-axis, counts of binned BGCs grouped by BiG-SLiCE class and
377 colored by associated MAG taxonomy. (B) Distance of binned BGCs to the nearest gene cluster
378 family as determined by BiG-FAM. A distance above 900, marked by a dashed red line, suggests
379 novelty and divergence from previously described gene cluster families. BGCs are colored
380 orange if they are annotated as complete by BiG-FAM. Abbreviations used: RiPP, ribosomally
381 synthesized and post-translationally modified peptides; RRE, RiPP recognition element; NRPS,
382 non-ribosomal peptide synthetase; PKS, polyketide synthase.

383 Community digestion of complex algal polysaccharides

384 Polysaccharide digestive capabilities vary among MAGs from different microbial taxa in
385 the *Kyphosus* fish gut community, as shown in **Figure 7**. Despite overall microbiome-wide
386 diversity, the MAGs generated in this study show that few individual genomes contain all of the
387 enzymes necessary to completely degrade even a single type of complex algal polysaccharide, let
388 alone the huge variety of natural variants characteristic of marine macroalgae (83) that might be
389 ingested by generalist herbivorous fishes. Each microbial genome instead contains a limited
390 assortment of enzymes capable of partially degrading a selection of different carbohydrate
391 moieties, including potentially incomplete breakdown products generated by other microbes.
392 Thus, combined pangenomic capabilities of several taxonomic groups appear to contain
393 complementary collections of exported CAZymes that might facilitate adaptation to
394 unpredictable variability in available polysaccharide content.

395 **Figure 7. *Kyphosus* gut symbiont MAGs encode the capacity to degrade various algal**
396 **polysaccharides collaboratively, but not solitarily.** Each row represents a single MAG from
397 the annotated taxonomic lineage. Only MAGs from the four lineages with the highest
398 concentration of CAZymes (*Bacillota*, *Bacteroidota*, *Gammaproteobacteria*, and

399 Verrucomicrobiota) are shown. MAGs with no applicable CAZy classes are not shown, and
400 CAZy classes not associated with a single substrate or not found in any MAG are not shown.
401 Green bars denote a signal peptide annotated to at least one of the appropriate CAZyme in a
402 single MAG, while yellow bars mark the absence of a signal peptide on all appropriate CAZyme
403 candidates within a MAG.

404 Levels of contribution to community-wide degradation of algal polysaccharides through
405 extracellular enzymes are dependent on both cell taxonomy and targeted substrate. More than
406 90% of CAZymes that target macroalgal polysaccharides from *Bacteroidota* MAGs contain
407 signal peptides that indicate export or integration into the cellular membrane. CAZymes in
408 *Bacillota* MAGs largely lack these signal peptides in enzymes predicted to degrade fucoidan and
409 agar, but the signal peptides are more abundant in the smaller set of CAZymes targeting xylan
410 and alginates. Few *Bacillota* MAGs contain all the enzymes required to fully degrade complex
411 algal polysaccharides such as porphyran, suggesting that cells from this taxonomic group might
412 scavenge partial breakdown products degraded extracellularly by other taxa.

413 *Verrucomicrobiota* polysaccharide digestion enzymes appear to be more specialized
414 towards red algae, with genomes consistently containing CAZymes predicted to digest agar,
415 carrageenan, and porphyran. However, MAGs from this phylum seem to be lacking enzymes
416 predicted to target green or brown algal polysaccharides. *Gammaproteobacteria* MAGs appear to
417 have more enzymes involved in the digestion of non-sulfated polysaccharides such as alginate,
418 and occasionally enzymes involved in agar degradation. Thus, the *Gammaproteobacteria*
419 symbionts analyzed here have likely specialized in polysaccharide types that are easier to digest.

420 Discussion

421 The recovery and characterization of 211 MAGs from *Kyphosus* gut and enrichment
422 metagenomes connect detailed taxonomic classification with the potential of the major microbial
423 contributors to digest complex algal polysaccharides. Algal polysaccharide-targeting enzymes
424 from this study are divergent in sequence from previously sequenced and characterized
425 representatives from other environments, clarifying prior assumptions about the metabolic
426 capacities of this system using 16S rRNA or community composition. This work confirms and
427 expands earlier work showing that certain members of the *Bacillota* and *Verrucomicrobiota*
428 lineages are unexpectedly richer in some CAZyme and sulfatase enzyme classes than their
429 respective taxonomic relatives (20). Differences between source inocula and the metagenomes of
430 bioreactor enrichments inoculated with *Kyphosus* gut bacteria highlight potential challenges in
431 harnessing these microbiota for bioenergy preprocessing of macroalgal feedstocks.

432 This study is the first to describe specific genes encoding SCFA production pathways in
433 the genomes of fish gut microbiota. Microbial fatty acids serve as a key metabolite in gut-brain
434 communication (84) and are a major source of available carbon for the host (85). SCFA pathway
435 diversity is unexpectedly low for a system previously shown to contain high SCFA
436 concentrations *in vivo* (16). However, this observation is consistent with a few dominant

437 lineages, primarily the *Bacteroidota*, producing high amounts of SCFAs from the breakdown
438 products of algal polysaccharides. Prior chemical work has observed that propanoate is more
439 abundant than butyrate in *Kyphosus* guts (16), and our pathway enzyme abundance information
440 at the genome level supports these observations (**Figure 3**). Likewise, observations in that same
441 work noted rates of sulfate reduction were higher than methanogenesis, although both processes
442 were negligible compared to SCFA production. This aligns with the low abundance of
443 *Desulfovibrionales* and the near complete absence of Archaea in our metagenomes, which is
444 consistent with repeated observations that dietary red macroalgae inhibit methanogenesis and
445 thus the success of gut Archaea (33). Both sulfate reduction and methanogenesis appear to be
446 minor sources of energy available for *Kyphosid* host absorption, compared to fermentation by
447 *Bacteroidota* and *Bacillota*.

448 Herbivorous fish frequently contain visible amounts of sediment in their guts (86), which
449 is thought to increase physical abrasion of gut contents and aid with degradation. Previous works
450 have shown functional redundancy between the metabolic capacities fish gut and sediment
451 communities (87), including carbon cycling. Gene flow has also been observed from fish feces to
452 sediment microbiomes (88). Although the relative abundance of sediment-associated microbes in
453 *kyphosid* fish microbiomes is low (20), one explanation for similar CAZymes and sulfatases
454 between fish gut and sediment microbes could involve a circular loop of gene flow from fish guts
455 to sediment through fecal pellets, and from sediments into fish guts through digestion. This
456 hypothesis is supported by the fact that *Kyphosid* gut community *Bacillota* from the genus
457 *Vallitalea* appear more closely related to marine sediment bacteria (80,89) than any previously
458 reported examples from seawater or terrestrial gut microbiota (**Table S3**). Likewise, sediment-
459 dwelling *Verrucomicrobiota* from the order *Kiritimatiellales* similar to those in *Kyphosus* fish
460 guts have also been shown to degrade sulfated macroalgal polysaccharides (90), with genomes
461 rich in both glycoside hydrolases and sulfatases (91). It is possible that consumption of sediment
462 by *Kyphosus* fish improves polysaccharide digestion not only through physical breakdown of
463 seaweed, but also by the contribution of additional enzyme capabilities originally derived from
464 sediment bacteria that likely encounter highly diverse recalcitrant organic substrates including
465 macroalgae biomass (92).

466 Although *Kiritimatiellales* MAGs recovered from fish guts contain more enzymes
467 targeting algal polysaccharides than other members of their phyla, these taxa were not enriched
468 in or recovered from enrichment metagenomes. This should not be problematic for enrichment
469 processing if the dominant *Bacteroidota* contain CAZymes with overlapping specificities for the
470 same substrates, as suggested in **Figure 7**. However future work will be needed to characterize
471 detailed, sample-specific polysaccharide degradative chemistry using such a framework.
472 *Vallitalea* and *Verrucomicrobiota* enzymes may also have some unique functionalities, as
473 suggested by the extra domain present in their β -porphyranase sequences. Isolation and *in vitro*
474 characterization of bioinformatically predicted enzyme activities will be necessary to integrate
475 these discoveries into aquaculture and bioenergy applications.

476 Metagenomic data from the MAGs in this study suggest that few individual cells have the
477 genomic potential to independently degrade all of the complex sulfated polysaccharide substrates
478 present in marine macroalgae. However, secreted and extracellularly exposed transmembrane
479 CAZymes may enable collaborative interactions between fish gut microbes to facilitate complete
480 digestion of these molecules, without the high metabolic cost of encoding a complete,
481 independent repertoire in every genome. A division of labor strategy cannot be fully confirmed
482 without *in vitro* tests (93), although the first condition of functional complementarity appears to
483 hold true between *Kyphosus* symbionts based on our bioinformatic investigations. In one similar
484 study, gene based observations of complementarity for marine lignocellulose-degrading bacteria
485 align with *in vitro* observations that support a division of labor hypothesis (94). Future work
486 involving cultured representatives and enriched microcosms will be required to pin down the
487 ecological strategies used by symbionts in this system.

488 This study provides a new baseline for *Kyphosus* microbiota at the genome level but
489 begets a slew of new questions that require additional experimentation. Further work that
490 connects enrichment composition, feedstock polysaccharide composition, and physical
491 configuration to chemical measurements of degraded polysaccharides would help determine
492 which phyla are required for complete polysaccharide breakdown. Isolation and characterization
493 of divergent proteins with completely novel domains will determine what new enzymatic
494 properties are unique to this system. Metatranscriptomic analyses utilizing the genome catalogs
495 presented here will enable detailed analysis of substrate-specific metabolic pathway expression
496 and species collaboration. *Kyphosus* digestive systems have long been studied as models for
497 herbivorous fish gut fermentation and can now be explored further using these additional
498 techniques to deliver a deeper understanding of their degradative and fermentative capabilities.

499 Conclusion

500 Among the first metagenome-assembled genomes recovered from herbivorous fish guts
501 and corresponding bioreactors, a new genomic catalog of *Kyphosus* gut symbionts highlights
502 untapped diversity in enzymatic and collaborative potential in the degradation of algal
503 polysaccharides. The enzymes encoded within these symbiont genomes are divergent from the
504 extent of sequenced CAZymes, supporting the promise of herbivorous fish guts as a source of
505 novel and industrially relevant enzymes. Expansion of these discoveries will not only clarify
506 ecological interactions but have the potential to improve the applicability of macroalgae in the
507 bioenergy and aquaculture sectors.

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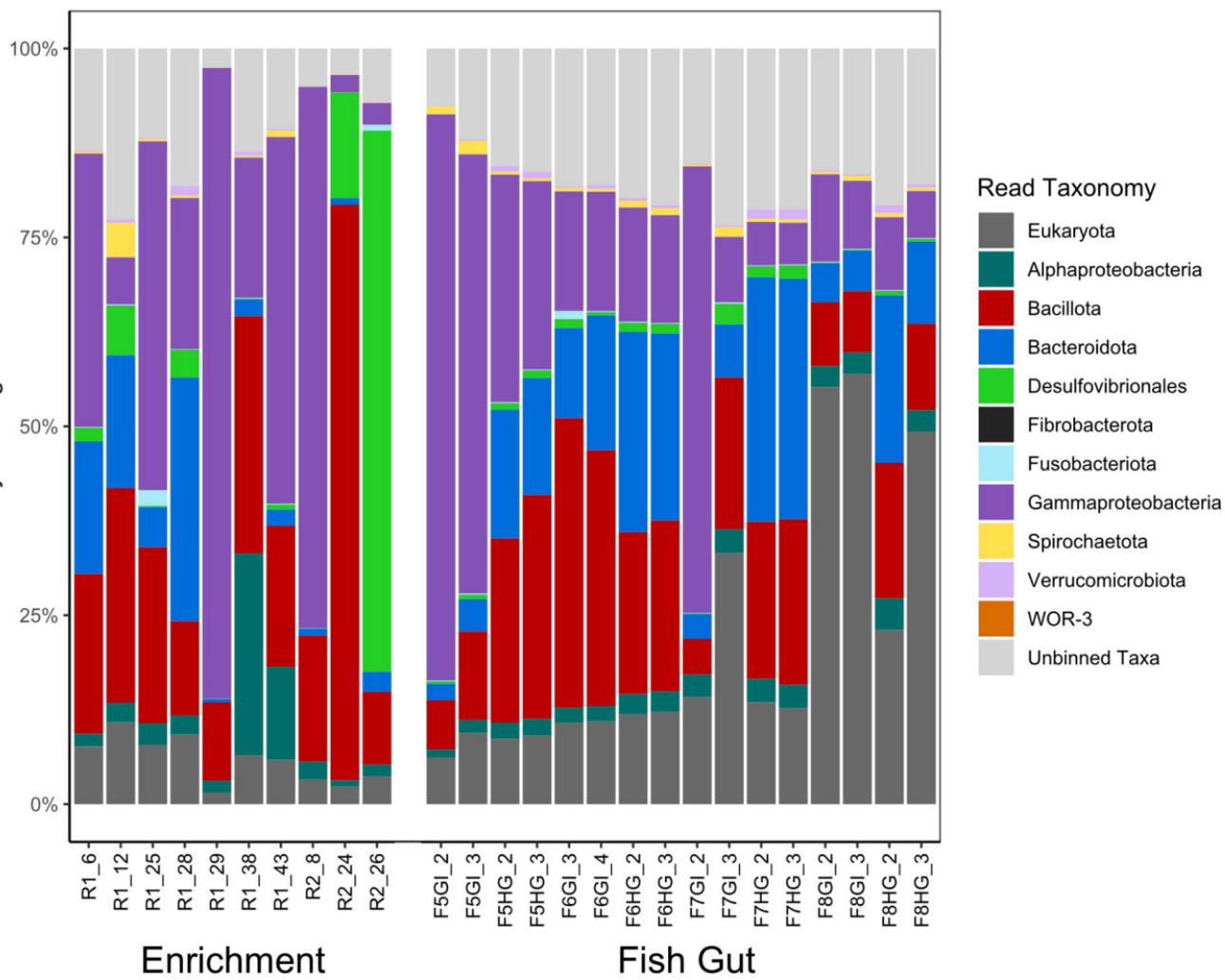
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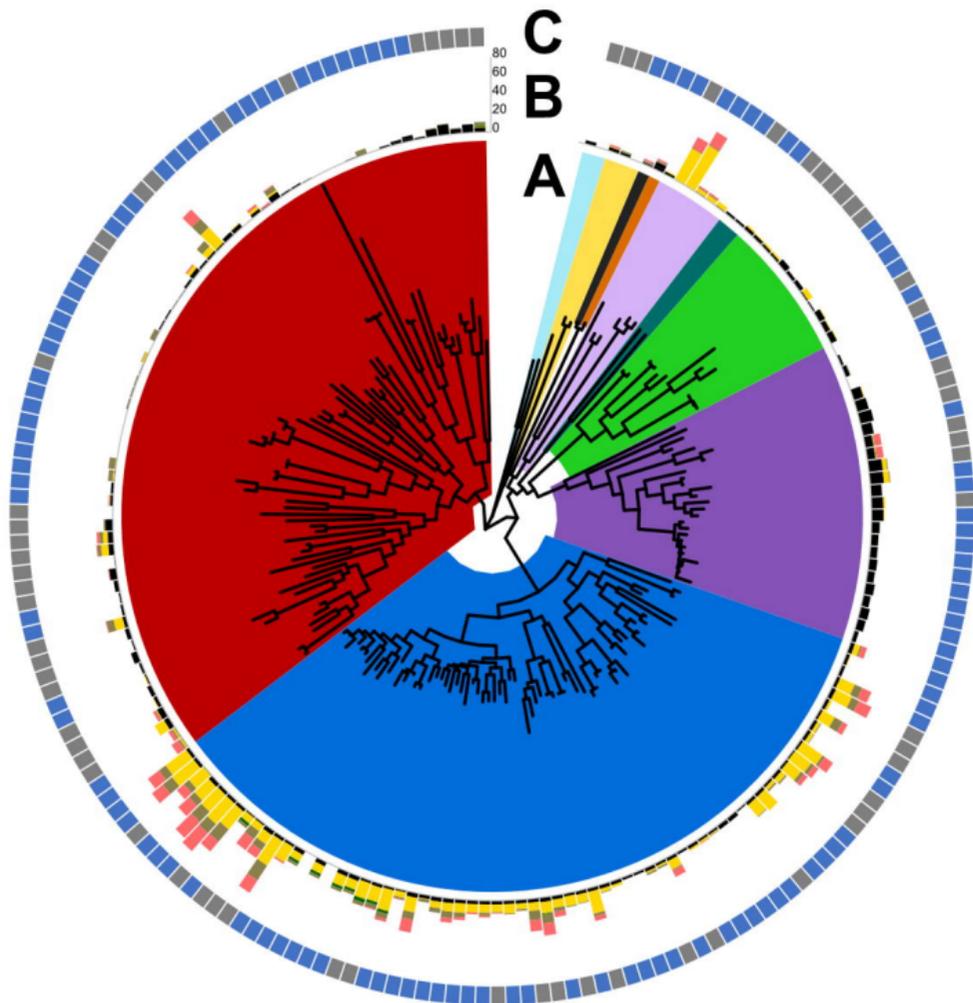
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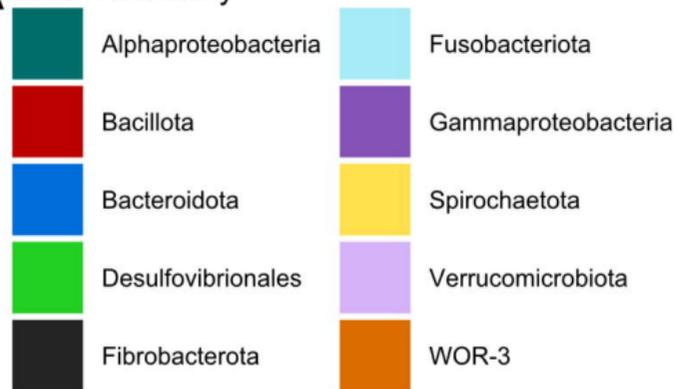
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Taxonomy of Assigned Reads

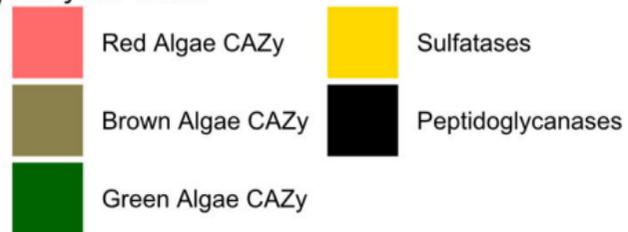




A MAG Taxonomy

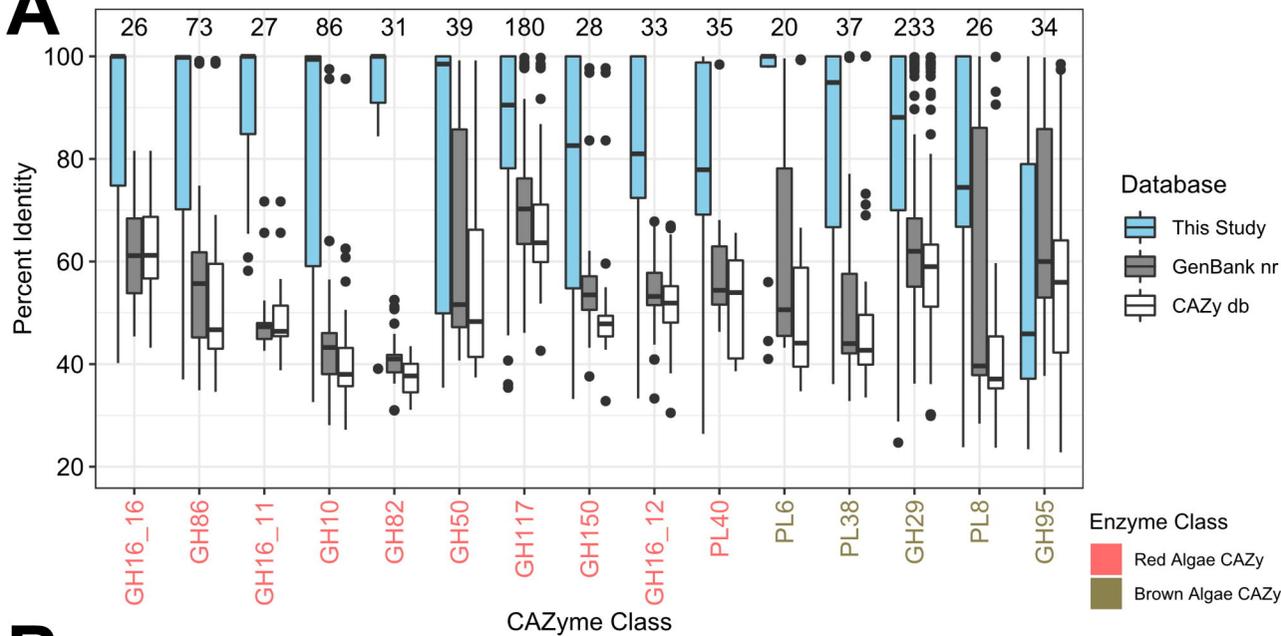
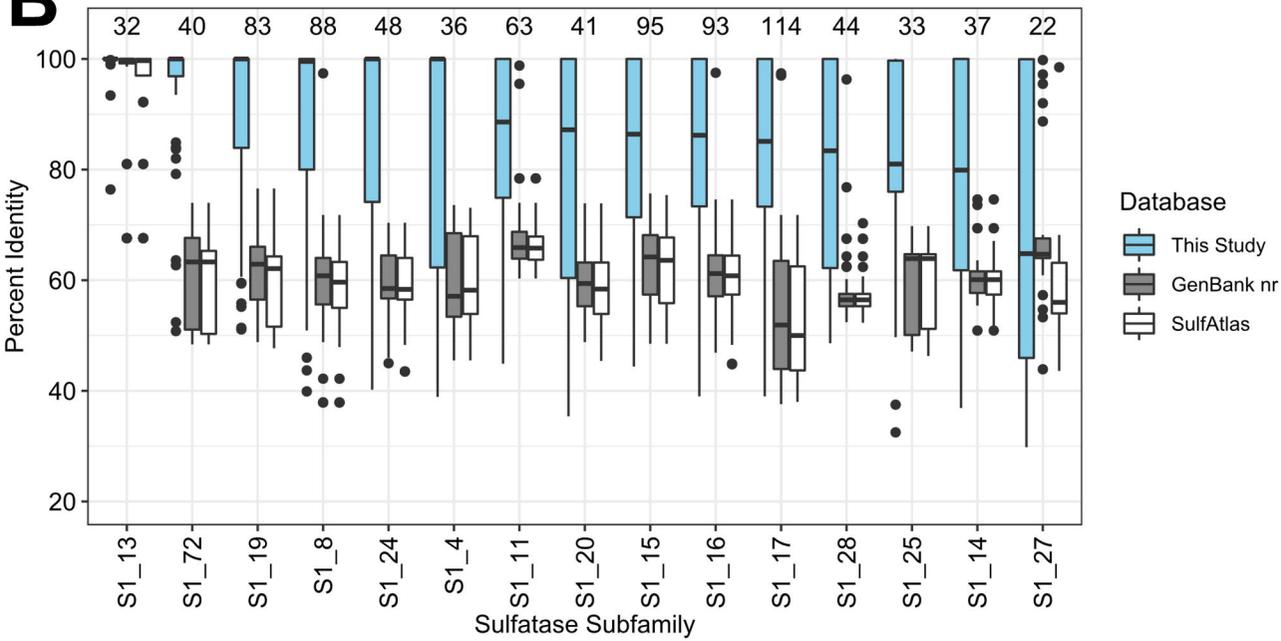


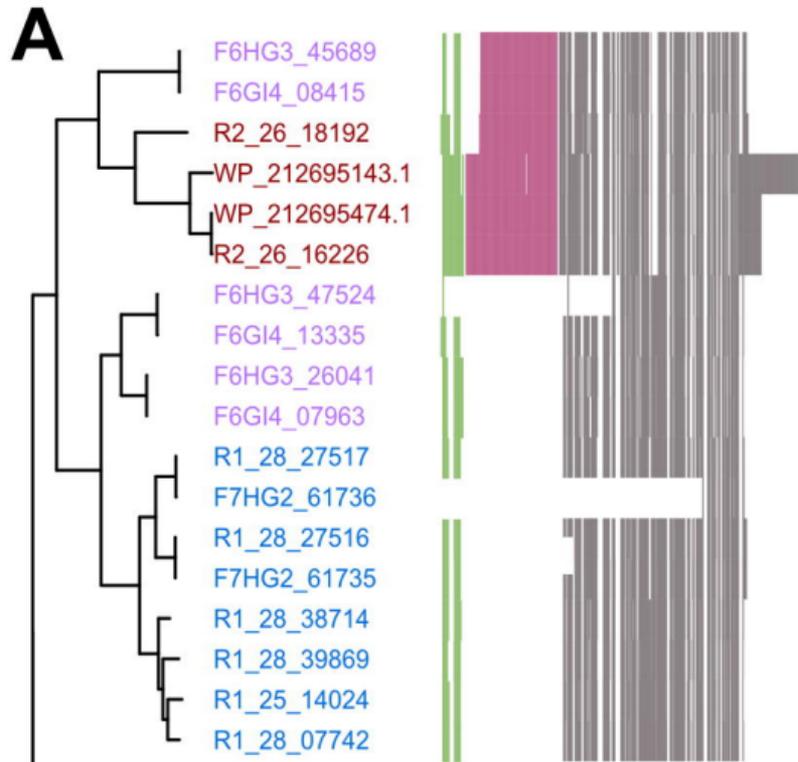
B Enzyme Class



C MAG Source



A**B**



GH86 Taxonomy

- a** Bacillota
- a** Bacteroidota
- a** Verrucomicrobiota

