



UNIVERSITAT_{DE}
BARCELONA

**Metagenomic Exploration of the Effects of Depth
and Temperature on the Microbiome Structure and
Function of the Gorgonian *Eunicella Singularis* and the
Cold Water Scleractinia *Desmophyllum pertusum***

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i la temperatura sobre l'estructura i la funció del microbioma
de la gorgònia *Eunicella singularis* i el corall d'aigua freda
*Desmophyllum pertusum***

Mohammad Mutlaq S. Binsarha



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~

Mohammad Mutlaq S. Binsarhan

A Thesis in the Field of Marine Microbial Ecology

for the Degree of Doctorate of Marine Science

Doctoral Program: Doctorat de Ciències de la Terra

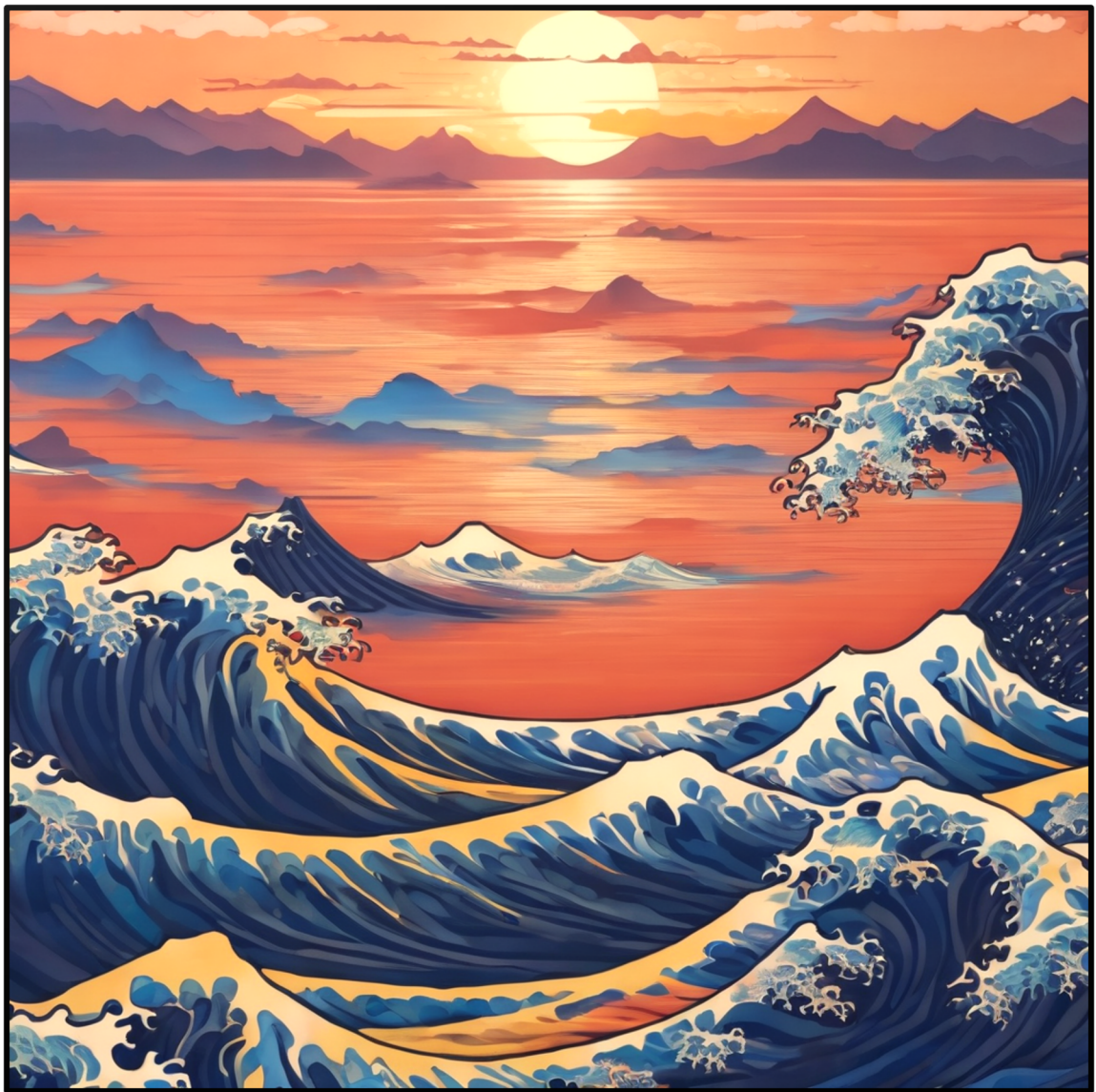
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University of Barcelona

July 2024





“Be like the ocean beautiful, unpredictable, and mysterious.”

Dedication

To my mother, whose unwavering support and love have been my anchor throughout this journey.

To my adviser, Professor Ramiro Logares, for your guidance, patience, and invaluable insights that shaped this work.

To my son, Jasir, who is the spark of my energy and my motivation to be a better version of myself. I hope to make you proud.

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Summary

Corals play an essential role in marine environments and their morphological structure provides microbes with different habitat types. In turn, the microbes provide corals with important compounds that contribute to coral fitness and health. Corals have been suggested to hold distinct microbes within the anatomical layer, such as the Skeleton, Surface mucus layer (SML), Tissue, and Gastric cavity. Furthermore, many factors can influence the structure and function of the microbiome, making it more challenging to understand. Coral age, taxonomy, disease, depth zones, and many other abiotic factors could shape coral microbiomes and are responsible for their stability. Disturbances in the relationship's stability between coral hosts and their associated microbes increase the chance of coral infections and bleaching, leading to mortality. Therefore, studying the influence of each factor on the microbiome could lead to a better understanding of the nature and dynamics of this complex system. However, many questions remain regarding how microbes are acquired and function in corals. In this thesis, we explored the coral microbiome and its relationship with two abiotic variables, depth and temperature. High-throughput meta-omics approaches have been used to investigate coral microbiomes. Some limitations may hinder the full benefits of meta-omics; however, these powerful tools open doors for understanding the coral microbiome.

Our comprehensive analysis of the Mediterranean *Eunicella singularis* microbiome revealed significant differences between shallow and mesophotic colonies at both taxonomic and functional levels. While shallow water colonies prominently featured *Symbiodinium*, essential for coral energy production through photosynthesis, its absence in the mesophotic zone indicates a shift in microbial community structure. In deeper environments, the microbial community exhibited higher abundances of functional genes

related to carbohydrate, energy, amino acid, cofactor, and vitamin metabolism. This potentially allows the microbiome to utilize carbon and nitrogen from various sources, such as glutathione, steroids, fatty acids, and aromatic hydrocarbons, which might help sustain coral nutrition through enhanced nutrient availability. Additionally, Metagenome-Assembled Genomes (MAGs) analysis identified microbiome taxa, such as DT-91 (Order Pseudomonadales) and *Endozoicomonas*, involved in nutrient recycling, vitamin production, and secretion systems, highlighting their role in microbiome fitness. These findings underscore potential microbial adaptation mechanisms to environmental conditions, emphasizing their potential role in facilitating coral resilience and adaptation to different contexts. Further investigations are needed to determine whether these genes are actively expressed in the microbial community and to assess the extent of their influence on both the coral's health and its associated microbiome.

Our study of the potential influence of prolonged thermal stress on the cold-water coral *D. pertusum* revealed a significant impact on the microbiome structure at both taxonomic and functional levels. Metagenomic analyses supported previous research, showing an increase in Rhodobacterales under thermal stress conditions. Moreover, our analyses indicated an increase in the carbon metabolic genes, such as methylotrophy and glycoside hydrolase enzymes, which may destabilize the microbiome and promote the growth of opportunistic pathogenic organisms. Indeed, we found an increase in pathogenic marker genes within the *D. pertusum* microbiome as temperature increased. Interestingly, the microbial taxa associated with these markers, such as those related to type 1 and 3 secretion systems, also increased in abundance in thermally stressed microbiomes. Additionally, we observed an increase in genes associated with diazotrophic activity, including denitrification and nitrification, which could disrupt the nitrogen cycle balance between the coral and its microbiome, potentially increasing the susceptibility to diseases and mortality. Together, these findings underscore the influence of increasing temperature on the taxonomic and functional structure of the cold-water coral microbiome. However, further research is required to investigate the gene expression profiles associated with formaldehyde assimilation, denitrification, and

nitrification. Examining the expression levels of these metabolic pathways would provide deeper insights into their activity and regulation, contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of their roles in the microbiome's response to environmental stressors such as temperature increase.

Resum

Els coralls juguen un paper essencial en els ambients marins i la seva estructura morfològica proporciona als microbis diferents tipus d'hàbitats. Al seu torn, els microbis proporcionen als coralls compostos importants que contribueixen al benestar i la salut dels coralls. S'ha suggerit que els coralls contenen microbis específics dins de les capes anatòmiques, com ara l'esquelet, la capa de mucositat superficial (SML), el teixit i la cavitat gàstrica. A més, molts factors poden influir en l'estructura i funció del microbioma, fent-ne més difícil la comprensió. L'edat del corall, la taxonomia, les malalties, les zones de profunditat i molts altres factors abiòtics podrien modelar els microbiomes dels coralls i són responsables de la seva estabilitat. Les perturbacions en l'estabilitat de la relació entre els hostes del corall i els seus microbis associats augmenten la probabilitat d'infeccions i blanqueig dels coralls, conduint a la seva mortalitat. Per tant, estudiar la influència de cada factor en el microbioma podria portar a una millor comprensió de la naturalesa i la dinàmica d'aquest complex sistema. No obstant això, queden moltes preguntes sobre com s'adquireixen i funcionen els microbis en els coralls. En aquesta tesi, vam explorar el microbioma dels coralls i la seva relació amb dues variables abiòtiques, la profunditat i la temperatura. S'han utilitzat enfocaments metaòmics d'alt rendiment per investigar els microbiomes dels coralls. Algunes limitacions poden obstaculitzar els beneficis complets de les metaòmiques; tanmateix, aquestes eines poderoses obren portes per comprendre el microbioma dels coralls.

La nostra anàlisi exhaustiva del microbioma de l'*Eunicella singularis* mediterrània va revelar diferències significatives entre les colònies superficials i mesofòtiques tant a nivell taxonòmic com funcional. Mentre que les colònies d'aigües poc profundes presentaven de manera destacada *Symbiodinium*, essencial per a la producció d'energia del corall a través de la fotosíntesi, la seva absència a la zona mesofòtica indica un canvi en l'estructura de la comunitat microbiana. En ambients més profunds, la comunitat microbiana va mostrar una major abundància de gens funcionals relacionats amb el

metabolisme de carbohidrats, energia, aminoàcids, cofactors i vitamines. Això possiblement permet al microbioma utilitzar carboni i nitrogen de diverses fonts, com el glutatí, els esteroides, els àcids grassos i els hidrocarburs aromàtics, la qual cosa podria ajudar a mantenir la nutrició del corall mitjançant una major disponibilitat de nutrients. A més, l'anàlisi dels Genomes Obtinguts per Metagenòmica (MAGs) va identificar tàxons del microbioma, com DT-91 (Ordre Pseudomonadales) i *Endozoicomonas*, involucrats en el reciclatge de nutrients, la producció de vitamines i els sistemes de secreció, destacant el seu paper en la salut del microbioma. Aquests descobriments subratllen els mecanismes potencials d'adaptació microbiana a les condicions ambientals, ressaltant el seu paper potencial en la resiliència i l'adaptació dels coralls a diferents contextos. Són necessàries més investigacions per determinar si aquests gens s'expressen activament a la comunitat microbiana i per avaluar l'abast de la seva influència en la salut del corall i el seu microbioma associat.

El nostre estudi sobre la influència potencial de l'estrès tèrmic prolongat en el corall d'aigua freda *D. pertusum* va revelar un impacte significatiu en l'estructura del microbioma tant a nivell taxonòmic com funcional. Les anàlisis metagenòmiques van recolzar investigacions anteriors, mostrant un augment dels Rhodobacterales en condicions d'estrès tèrmic. A més, les nostres anàlisis van indicar un augment en els gens metabòlics del carboni, com la metilotrofia i les enzims glicòsids hidrolases, que podrien desestabilitzar el microbioma i promoure el creixement d'organismes patògens oportunistes. De fet, vam trobar un augment en els gens marcadors de patogenicitat dins del microbioma de *D. pertusum* a mesura que augmentava la temperatura. Curiosament, els tàxons microbians associats a aquests marcadors, com aquells relacionats amb els sistemes de secreció de tipus 1 i 3, també van augmentar en abundància en microbiomes sotmesos a estrès tèrmic. A més, vam observar un augment en els gens associats amb l'activitat diazotròfica, incloent la desnitrificació i la nitrificació, que podrien alterar l'equilibri del cicle del nitrogen entre el corall i el seu microbioma, potencialment augmentant la susceptibilitat a malalties i mortalitat. Aquests descobriments subratllen la influència de l'augment de la temperatura en l'estructura taxonòmica i funcional del

microbioma del corall d'aigua freda. No obstant això, es requereixen més investigacions per explorar els perfils d'expressió genètica associats amb l'assimilació de formaldehid, la desnitrificació i la nitrificació. Examinar els nivells d'expressió d'aquestes vies metabòliques proporcionaria una comprensió més profunda de la seva activitat i regulació, contribuint a una comprensió més completa dels seus papers en la resposta del microbioma als factors d'estrès ambientals com l'augment de la temperatura.



1. INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction

1.1. The history of ocean investigations

Our oceans cover approximately two-thirds of the Earth (Yuh et al., 2011) and play a key role in the global climate (Rahmstorf, 2002). They hold millions of living organisms from all domains of life (Mariño-Tapia et al., 2014). In the early stages of ocean and coral investigation, scholars faced the challenge of overcoming entrenched beliefs in mythology, superstition, and folklore. The earliest credible account of coral can be traced back to Theophrastus (c. 372–c. 285 BC), an Aristotle's successor at the Lyceum in Athens. Theophrastus, based on specimens from the Mediterranean, initially perceived coral as a type of stone, briefly mentioning it in his work on minerals, titled "Peri lithon" (On Stones). The Latin translation, "De lapidus," preserved much of Greek learning in the subsequent Roman era. Theophrastus introduced the term "coral" as "kouralion," later translated into Latin as "curalium" and evolving into "corallo" in Italian, "corail" in French, and equivalent terms in other European languages. The surviving fragment of "Peri lithon" contains the first mention of coral's perplexing nature, describing it as similar to a stone, shaped like a root, and found in the sea.

Theophrastus faced a dilemma akin to Aristotle's (384–322 BC) classification challenges in his work "Historia animalium." Aristotle's observations noted ambiguous characteristics in marine forms, such as corals, which he deemed rocks with a plant-like appearance, leading to their later classification as "lithophytes" (stone+plant). Limited references to coral appeared in Latin literature, notably in Pliny the Elder's "Naturalis Historia" (Natural History), where he highlighted the commercial value of coral in the Mediterranean, Red Sea, and Persian Gulf. Indian incorporation into the Hellenistic Empire led to significant coral trade. Pliny humorously noted the hazards of collecting corals and pearls for wealthy women's adornment despite the dangers posed by sharks.

From ancient times to the late 16th century, corals were perceived as either mineral or plant formations, based on their physical characteristics. Red coral, particularly the flexible species "*Corallium rubrum*," has become a precious gem and staple in jewelry for 2000 years. Initially retrieved by swimming and diving, the practice expanded to the North African coast, as easily accessible areas along the French and Italian coasts were depleted. Red coral stems were harvested, dried, and transformed into gem-like stones for use in jewelry. These prized artifacts were widely distributed in archaeological sites across the ancient world, from Egypt and Persia to Great Britain, India, China, Japan, and various parts of Africa.

In the 18th century, ocean expeditions gained more attention due to the need to discover new commercial routes, for example, James Cook's voyages. This British explorer, known for his voyages from 1768 to 1780, made detailed maps of the Newfoundland. He explored the ocean and achieved the initial documented European encounter with the eastern shores of Australia and the Hawaiian Islands during his three journeys to the Pacific. Additionally, he accomplished the first recorded circumnavigation of New Zealand. This was followed by Benjamin Franklin, who wrote in his letter "Sundry Maritime Observations," the first description of the Gulf Stream, an intense, warm ocean current in the western North Atlantic Ocean. This stream moves north along the coast of Florida and then turns eastward off of North Carolina, flowing northeast across the Atlantic. Benjamin also included in his letter discussions of ship propulsion methods, hull designs, causes of disaster at sea, sea anchors, food at sea, and even the use of propellers to steer balloons. Another expedition was the one led by Alejandro Malaspina (1789-1794), which was a five-year maritime scientific exploration and fully funded by the Spanish government for scientific goals.

Then, Charles Darwin's expedition took place in the 19th century when he sailed on HMS Beagle around the world for a five-year voyage. The primary mission of the

journey, which was sponsored by the British government, was to survey the coastline and chart the harbors of South America to make better maps and protect British interests in the Americas. Darwin took the chance to explore and describe different species from 20 different stops and he successfully described more than 1500 of them. After this long, intensive trip, in 1872 the first scientific expedition took place, The Challenger expedition. During its historic voyage around the world, the expedition conducted 492 deep-sea soundings, 133 bottom dredges, 151 open water trawls, and 263 continuous water temperature observations. Approximately 4,700 previously unknown marine species have been identified to date. In the 20th century, different explorations have been made, such as the Bathyscaphe Trieste dives to the deepest point in the Mariana Trench in 1960. Also, The Ben Franklin (PX-15) drifts submerged for 30 days in the Gulf Stream in 1969.

The big jump in the science and technology fields in the 21st century, such as DNA sequencing and bioinformatics algorithms, has revolutionized the field of marine science and biology. For example, the *Sorcerer II* expeditions (2003-2010) conducted global surveys of prokaryotic metagenomes from the ocean covering 32,000 nautical miles and more than 20 different territories on four continents. In addition, the Malaspina Expedition 2010 (named after the one led by Alejandro Malaspina) was an interdisciplinary research project to assess the impact of global change on oceans and explore their biodiversity, from surface to bathypelagic waters. Also, the expedition TARA Oceans from 2009 to 2013 conducted a large environmental survey of 210 ecosystems in 20 biogeographic provinces, collecting over 35,000 samples from surface and mesopelagic waters. The amount of data generated by these expeditions is massive and enhanced our knowledge of ocean dynamics and diversity. Recently, another expedition, the TARA Pacific Expedition, focused on coral reefs across the Pacific Ocean and used a coordinated sampling effort to address questions at multiple scales using a common suite of samples. For two years (2016-2018), more than a hundred thousand kilometers, including 32 sampling sites and 3000 scuba dives collecting nearly 58,000 samples from different reefs across the Pacific, opened new doors toward understanding

the coral ecosystem. This huge effort highlights the importance of coral reef ecosystems in global ocean health.

1.2. An Overview of the Coral Ecosystem

Coral zones are among the most productive and diverse marine ecosystems (Moberg & Folke, 1999; Mulhall, 2009; Y. Zhang et al., 2015). Corals are fundamental ecosystem designers that support various organisms (Bourne et al., 2016) that host thousands of species, several of which remain unknown (Hoegh-Guldberg, 1999). Estimates indicate that there are more than 60,000 animal species in coral habitats (Reaka-Kudla, 1997). This high-productivity assemblage contains an array of microorganisms, including symbionts, inhabiting coral colonies and participating in various complex interactions with the coral host (Weis et al., 2008). These interactions play a key role in the global carbon cycle (Shi et al., 2021). In addition to the crucial role of corals in preserving high biological diversity, coral reefs also play a critical role in supporting human well-being. They provide economic benefits to coastal areas through various industries, including tourism, fisheries, and pharma. These industries provide jobs and income for local communities, and coral reefs also offer coastal protection, food security, and a source of scientific discovery (Burke et al., 2011).

The phylum Cnidaria comprises approximately 10,000 species. It contains two major groups: Anthozoa and Medusozoa. Most of these are marine species, such as corals and sea anemones in the Anthozoa class, and only a few species are adapted to freshwater (Technau et al., 2015). Moreover, the Anthozoa class includes 234 species that are divided into two subclasses: Hexacorallia, which has six different orders, including anemones, scleractinians, black corals, and octocorallia, which has three distinctive orders: soft coral and sea fans, blue corals, and sea pens (McFadden et al., 2021) (Figure 1).

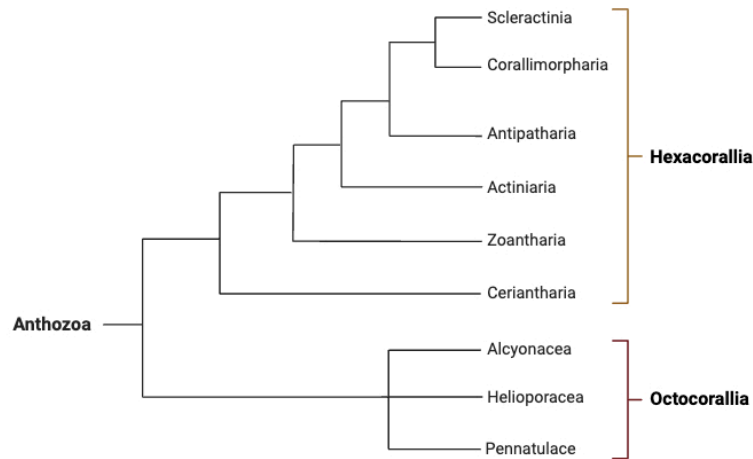


Figure 1: Phylogeny of orders in Anthozoa class, adapted from Quattrini et al. (2020) (Quattrini et al., 2020)

Corals can be polypoid and exist as colonies, clones, or solitary individuals; they may either lack a skeleton or possess a skeleton composed of minerals and/or proteins (Frias-Lopez et al., 2002). Some of them, such as scleractinian corals, secrete a crystal form of calcium carbonate, aragonite, to form their skeletons. However, some types of proteinaceous corals, such as soft and black corals, produce internal small sclerites of calcium carbonate composed of its most stable polymorph, calcite (Rahman et al., 2011), embedded in the coenenchyme (Menzel et al., 2015). Colonial coral polyps are interconnected and work together to exchange nutrients (Bonacolta et al., 2023). Their structure is comprised of two cell layers: an external ectoderm-epidermis and an internal endoderm-gastrodermis. These two layers have an acellular layer separator called the mesoglea, and each of the tissue layers contains numerous cell types, the total number and physiological functions of which are not entirely known. Furthermore, the coral polyp structure comprises a ring of tentacles surrounding the mouth, and the tubular body contains the gastrovascular cavity (Figure 2). The Endosymbiotic algae, when present, reside within gastrodermal specialized cells called ‘symbiocytes’ (Tresguerres et al., 2017), translocating produced organic matter to the coral host (Muscatine & Porter, 1977). Corals can reproduce sexually or asexually by producing gametes (Daly et al., 2003; Plovie, 2009). There are two modes of sexual reproduction, broadcast spawning and brooding. The broadcast spawning mode releases sperm and eggs into the

surrounding water, and fertilization and embryonic development occur externally. In contrast, fertilization occurs internally in the brooding reproduction mode when the released sperm finds its way into another coral colony that holds eggs inside the polyp. Then, the larvae brood internally and mature larvae are released.

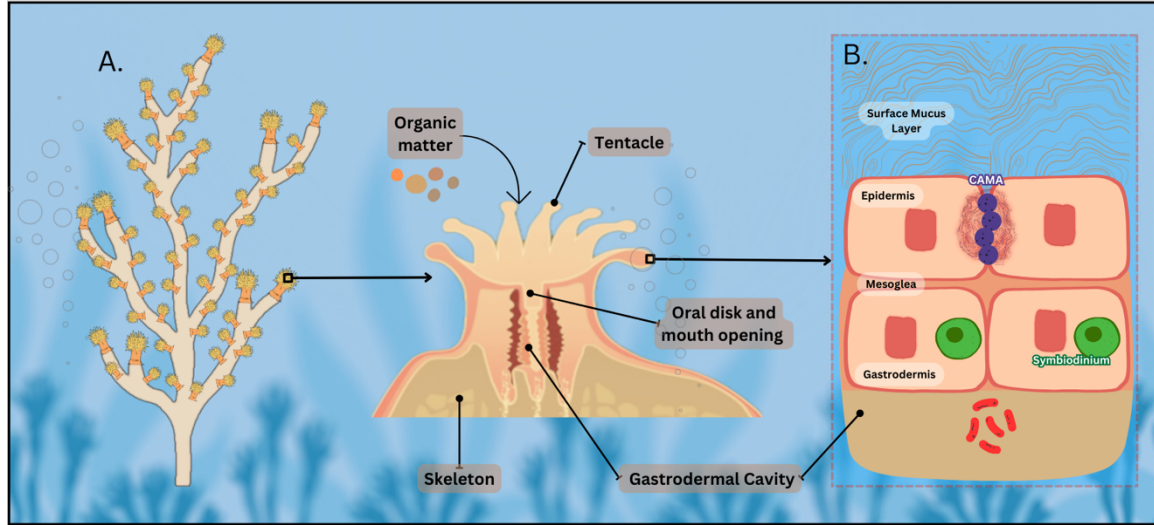


Figure 2: Illustration of the coral polyp anatomy showing **A.** the general coral polyp structure and **B.** the different cellular layers and the *Symbiodinium* residing within the gastrodermal cell symbiocytes

1.3. *Coral Holobiont and Ecosphere*

Coral hosts include distinct microbes in their surrounding environment (Bayer, Neave, et al., 2013; Bourne et al., 2016; van de Water et al., 2017). Many corals have a symbiotic relationship with the photosynthetic dinoflagellate *Symbiodinium* (Weis et al., 2008). They also include a large diversity of symbiotic microbes (Galand et al., 2023), including protists, fungi, archaea, bacteria, and viruses, some of which have species-specific associations (Carlos et al., 2013; Glasl et al., 2016; Hochart et al., 2023; van Oppen & Blackall, 2019). These symbionts are fundamental to almost every aspect of the coral host, including its function and health (Bordenstein & Theis, 2015). They provide many beneficial services to their hosts, such as nitrogen, carbon, and sulfur fixation, as well as antibiotics (Wegley et al., 2007). Specifically, bacteria-dinoflagellate-coral interactions provide access to nutrients and metabolic pathways to the coral host (D Ainsworth et al.,

2015). Furthermore, corals provide different microbial niches, including the inner tissue layers (M. Lesser et al., 2008), surface mucus layers (Kooperman et al., 2007; Rohwer et al., 2002), gastrovascular cavities (Herndl & Velimirov, 1985), and skeleton (Shashar et al., 1997). Each coral tissue layer typically holds a distinct microbial community (Agostini et al., 2012; Apprill et al., 2016; Chiu et al., 2012; Pollock et al., 2018; Rosenberg et al., 2007; M. J. Sweet et al., 2011). In addition, most prokaryotes can be found in the mucus layer (Garren & Azam, 2010) or the skeleton (Yang et al., 2019). The variation in gene composition across the different layers suggests the functional specialization of each microbial community (Kimes et al., 2010). This assemblage of organisms that live with corals constitutes the coral holobiont (Thurber et al., 2009; Water et al., 2018). The global decrease in coral reefs has drawn attention to their microbiome and functions (Rosenberg et al., 2007), as the cnidarian-microbiota interaction is partially understood (Water et al., 2018).

One important association is the coral–microeukaryote interaction. These include ciliates, dinoflagellates, apicomplexans, and chromerids, which can establish either positive or negative interactions with corals (Janouškovec et al., 2012). Furthermore, dinoflagellate-coral interactions are vital to symbiotic corals. For instance, *Symbiodinium* provides the host coral with fixed carbon and organic matter (van Oppen & Blackall, 2019). Another example is the endolithic algae *Ostreobium* sp., which is commonly found in the vast majority of scleractinian corals (Gonzalez-Zapata et al., 2018; Odum & Odum, 1955), including *Symbiodinium*-less stony corals such as *Tubastrea micranthus* (Pernice et al., 2020a). They play an important role in coral hosts. They may fix carbon (Shashar et al., 1997) and exchange photosynthates such as carbohydrates and lipids with coral tissues (Gonzalez-Zapata et al., 2018; Odum & Odum, 1955; Pernice et al., 2020a). This implies that there is a well-established metabolic relationship between endolithic algae and corals; however, the molecular translocations and exchange processes between endolithic *Ostreobium* and coral tissues remain to be investigated (Ricci et al., 2019). In addition to its beneficial role in the coral nutrition cycle, the green alga *Ostreobium* is the most significant agent in the microbial carbonate removal process of coral skeletons,

accounting for up to 90% (Grange et al., 2015; Tribollet, 2008). This process involves dissolving calcium carbonate (CaCO_3), a fundamental component of scleractinian coral skeletons, thereby rendering the coral structure fragile.

Endolithic fungi are assumed to play a role in nitrogen cycling by reducing nitrate and nitrite to ammonia and accumulating ammonia for biosynthesis (Wegley et al., 2007). Ciliates are bacterial grazers (M. Sweet & Bythell, 2012) and are commonly found as part of the coral holobiont. They may opportunistically feed on coral-associated bacteria and control their populations (Bonacolta et al., 2022). Furthermore, they might help to control the abundance of potentially harmful bacteria and other microorganisms, contributing to a healthy coral microbiota. However, ciliates are assumed to be associated with coral diseases, such as skeleton eroding band (SEB) or brown band (BrB) syndrome. In the case of SEB, the ciliate *Halofolliculina corallasia* generates a speckled black band (Page & Willis, 2008); however, in the case of BrB, *Porpostoma guamensis* contributes to visible symptoms (Lobban et al., 2011) like brown zones on the infected tissue. Recent surveys have identified abundant apicomplexan (primary parasitic protist) sequences in many healthy corals (Kwong et al., 2019), which could indicate parasitism (Bourne et al., 2016). The coral-associated alveolate *Chromera velia* shares a common ancestor with dinoflagellates and exhibits ultrastructural characteristics typical of apicomplexans (Kořený et al., 2011). It can establish endosymbiotic or parasitic associations with coral larvae (Cumbo et al., 2013). However, recent studies indicate that these relationships remain unclear (Mathur et al., 2018; Mohamed et al., 2018).

Some unicellular eukaryotic predators, such as thraustochytrids and labyrinthulids, contribute to coral holobionts by regulating the bacterial and archaeal populations. These microorganisms have been observed in the coral mucus layer (Ainsworth et al., 2017) and have been found to exhibit an ecological resemblance to aquatic fungi (Raghukumar & Ravindran, 2012). In addition, these protists may contribute polyunsaturated fatty acids to the coral (Ainsworth et al., 2017). Furthermore,

the coral mucus layer inhibits different types of ciliates, such as *C. verminus* and *Holosticha* sp.; however, they become more abundant in diseased tissues. Ravindran et al. 2020 found that ciliates, when growing at high abundances in bacteria-free mucus substrate, prefer nutrients in mucus instead of bacteria. Additionally, certain ciliates, specifically *Holosticha* sp., have been observed to invade host cells and voraciously consume Symbiodiniaceae cells and tissues (Raghukumar & Ravindran, 2012). Furthermore, certain fungi can invade small-scale calcium carbonate structures and interact with *Ostreobium* cells (R. A. Littman et al., 2009). These fungi are capable of consuming endolithic algae and coral polyps (Golubic et al., 2005; Prog et al., 1995) and are known for their detrimental effects on both stony and soft corals (Alker et al., 2001; Golubic et al., 2005; Priess et al., 2000; Prog et al., 1995; Work et al., 2008). They also contribute to the bioerosion of coral skeletons (Glynn & Manzello, 2015; Tribollet & Golubic, 2011).

Another important interaction involves coral prokaryotes. Archaea typically display low abundance in the coral microbiome, yet they carry essential functions, such as nutrient recycling. The most prevalent archaeal phyla are *Thaumarchaeota*, *Euryarchaeota* (Huggett & Apprill, 2019), and *Crenarchaeota*, which contribute to nitrogen fixation by removing ammonia through nitrification, denitrification (Siboni et al., 2008), and ammonia oxidation (Siboni et al., 2008; Wegley et al., 2007). Other common archaea in the coral microbiome are anaerobic methanotrophs and anaerobic nitrate reducers (Siboni et al., 2008; Wegley et al., 2004). In contrast, bacteria are more abundant, and their symbiosis is vital for coral health and adaptation to environmental fluctuations (van de Water, Voolstra, et al., 2018). The bacterial classes Gammaproteobacteria, Alphaproteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Cyanobacteria, Firmicutes, and Tenericutes are the dominant bacteria in corals (Huggett & Apprill, 2019).

Corals hold distinct bacterial communities (Bourne et al., 2016) with specific roles, such as nutrient fixation. For example, specific cyanobacteria can fix nitrogen in nitrogen-limited waters surrounding corals (M. Lesser et al., 2008). Despite their multiple

benefits, bacteria can cause coral diseases. An example of a negative bacterial interaction is Black Band Disease. It is characterized by a thick microbial layer developed on top of coral tissue that is typically dominated by one or two types of cyanobacteria, sulfate-reducing bacteria such as *Desulfovibrio* sp., sulfur-oxidizing bacteria such as *Beggiatoa* sp. (Sharma & Ravindran, 2020; Weil et al., 2016) and members of *Arcobacter* (Meyer et al., 2017). However, some bacterial community members in corals can play a significant role in strengthening coral immunity and controlling pathogens (Villela, 2020) through the production of antibiotics (Bourne et al., 2009). In addition, it has recently been suggested that probiotics can help treat unhealthy corals by providing them with antimicrobial substances (Teplitski & Ritchie, 2009). For instance, *Serratia marcescens*, a pathogen associated with whitepox disease, produces Glycosidases and N-acetylglucosidase to utilize the coral mucus layer as a source of nutrition. As a protection mechanism, native coral microbes are believed to reduce *S. marcescens* growth and inhibit its enzymatic activity by blocking chemical signals and disrupting chemical transporters (Krediet et al., 2013). Overall, this symbiotic relationship is crucial for the stability, function, and protection of corals (Hagedorn et al., 2015).

Moreover, there is a wide variety of bacterial communities in the coral skeleton, and the skeletal environment is more diverse in prokaryotes than coral tissues or mucus (Pollock et al., 2018). The predominant bacterial classes in the skeleton are Alphaproteobacteria and Gammaproteobacteria (Marcelino & Verbruggen, 2016; Meron et al., 2012). Furthermore, filamentous marine cyanobacteria, including *Plectonema terebrans*, *Mastigocoleus testarum*, and *Halomicronema excentricum*, were among the earliest prokaryotes identified from green bands in coral skeletons (Pernice et al., 2020b). The presence of bacteriochlorophylls in the green and deeper bands of coral skeletons indicates a high abundance of cyanobacteria and anoxygenic phototrophic bacteria (Magnusson et al., 2007; Ralph et al., 2007). However, there have been limited investigations into the range of bacteria in coral endoliths, and these studies have frequently overlooked the possible variability in bacterial diversity within this compartment of corals (Pernice et al., 2020b).

1.4. What shapes the coral microbiome?

Several biotic and abiotic factors influence coral microbial communities. Among biotic factors, coral age, taxonomy, diseases, and other microbiome members play a significant role in shaping microbiome structure. The coral host itself can affect the diversity of the microbiome through mechanisms such as promoting growth by providing essential nutrients (Lima et al., 2023) or releasing antimicrobial substances that hinder bacterial growth within the mucus layer (Bakshani et al., 2018). Moreover, the involvement of other microbiome members, such as *Halobacteriovorax* spp. (Welsh et al., 2017) and viral phages may shape the bacterial community (Teplitski & Ritchie, 2009). Furthermore, the surrounding environmental conditions may also influence the microbiome structure of a wide range of coral species (Pantos et al., 2015). Conditions include factors such as water depth, geographical location, seasonal variations, chemical fluctuations in the surrounding water, disturbances in marine sediments, and temperature alterations. Furthermore, corals are subjected to some of these factors daily (Ainsworth et al., 2010), which can affect the stability of the coral microbiome (Pantos et al., 2015; Villela, 2020).

1.4.1. Coral Age

Multiple hypotheses have been proposed to understand coral microbial selection mechanisms and to determine whether this process is genetically or environmentally modulated. One hypothesis suggests that the bacterial community is vertically transmitted from parents to offspring during the brooding period before larvae are released into the water (Sharp et al., 2012), after which the coral acquires other bacterial taxa from the surrounding environment (Ricardo et al., 2016). Another hypothesis suggests that corals acquire their bacterial communities directly from the environment during broadcast spawning (Leite et al., 2017; Ricardo et al., 2016). Corals can obtain their associated bacteria by using both strategies (van Oppen & Blackall, 2019). However, coral larvae may have a higher microbial diversity (Epstein, Torda, et al., 2019; Lema et al., 2014; R. Littman et al., 2009) and be more dynamic (Damjanovic et al., 2019). In turn, the adult

colony shows stability in its microbial composition compared to the juvenile stage (Hernandez-Agreda et al., 2018). The observed disparity in microbial composition between juvenile and adult coral colonies suggests that coral age can influence microbiome diversity. However, the specific role of the microbiome in juvenile coral remains unclear. Metabolomics can provide insights into the dynamic nature and functional aspects of coral microbiomes at various stages of life.

1.4.2. Taxonomy

Researchers have proposed that the two main Scleractinia coral divisions, Robusta and Complexa, have species-specific microbial communities (Chu & Vollmer, 2016; van de Water et al., 2015; Wegley et al., 2007). Previous studies have suggested that coral species may contain few species-specific core bacteria. For example, *Spirochaetales* dominate the red coral microbiome and are stable at both the spatial and temporal scales (van de Water, Allemand, et al., 2018). In contrast, *Cladocora caespitosa*, which is deemed the only true reef in the Mediterranean Sea, has different dominant bacteria belonging mainly to Alphaproteobacteria and Gammaproteobacteria (Rubio-Portillo et al., 2018). Gammaproteobacteria dominate the Red Sea coral, *Acropora* spp., microbiome, especially *Endozoicomonas* (Bayer, Neave, et al., 2013), which appears as ubiquitous coral symbionts (Hochart et al., 2023). Pollock et al., 2018 (Pollock et al., 2018), hypothesized that corals, throughout their evolution, have selected some microbial species as phylosymbiotic members. The term phylosymbiosis refers to the relationship between a group of phylogenetically related hosts and symbiotic organisms. Pollock et al. found that the order of scleractinian corals showed signs of microbial phylosymbiosis in tissues and skeletons but not in the mucus layer. In Octocorals, evidence of microbiome phylosymbiosis has been observed. It has been suggested that species of *Eunicella*, *Leptogorgia*, and *Paramurcia* share certain bacterial orders, such as Alteromonadales and Oceanospirillales, particularly the family *Endozoicomonadaceae* (Keller-Costa et al., 2021). However, *Eunicella* species, for example, exhibit indications of phylosymbiosis with Sphingomonadales (Keller-Costa et al., 2016) and Poribacteria (Keller-Costa et al., 2021). In contrast, *Leptogorgia* species display a phylosymbiotic relationship with

Mollicutes (Keller-Costa et al., 2021). Additionally, *Paramurcia* species demonstrate phyllosymbiosis with Rhodobacterales and Flavobacteriales (Bonacolta et al., 2023).

Furthermore, a huge effort has been made over the past two years to sample from 32 different sites across the Pacific (Tara Pacific expedition) (Belser et al., 2023). They sampled two scleractinian coral species, *Pocillopora meandrina* (977 colonies) and *Porites lobata* (945 colonies), and one hydrocoral, *Millepora platyphylla* (619 colonies). Using these samples, Galand et al. 2023 analyzed their microbiomes and revealed a high presence of one microbial ASV belonging to Endozoicomonadaceae in most coral samples. However, some low-abundance ASVs were also observed, showing a sort of specification with coral species. For instance, *Millepora* was associated with Cytophagales and Kiloniellales, *Porites* with Vibrionales and Rhodobacterales, and *Pocillopora* with Cytophagales and Vibrionales, with prevalences of 90% and 87%, respectively (Galand et al., 2023). Environmental gradients in water quality, light, and temperature can influence coral microbial communities more strongly than coral taxonomy (Hernandez-Agreda et al., 2016; R. A. Littman et al., 2009). Moreover, in the early life stages of coral colonies, it has been suggested that the environment is the main factor determining the coral microbiome, not coral species (Epstein, Torda, et al., 2019; Lema et al., 2014; R. Littman et al., 2009). In conclusion, the evolutionary history of corals may have played a significant role in shaping the diversity of their microbiomes, particularly the skeletal and tissue microbiomes. Understanding the taxonomic preferences of the coral microbiome provides valuable insights into the ecological and evolutionary relationships between corals and their associated microbes.

1.4.3. Disease

The relationship between coral hosts and dinoflagellates is well known, and dysbiosis, a shift in the composition and diversity of the associated microorganisms, can cause bleaching and coral diseases. Identifying the causative agents of coral diseases can be challenging because of the complex nature of coral holobionts. Some of the diseases like Black Band Disease can infect both Hexacorallia and Octocorallia. However, many

diseases were found to be species-related (Table.1). For example, Stony Coral Tissue Loss Disease (SCTLD) can infect Hexacorallia (Aeby et al., 2019). This is a serious issue for Florida and Caribbean reefs in the 21st century, with the potential to cause substantial damage to ecosystem services and affect economies. Stony Coral Tissue Loss Disease (SCTLD) results in widespread coral mortality, affects several coral species, and displays variable disease symptoms depending on the species, including differences in tissue loss rates, lesion morphology, and occurrence (Aeby et al., 2019). Although the transmission sources and causative agents of the disease are not entirely clear, it is evident that seawater is involved in the transmission (Alvarez-Filip et al., 2022). In addition, some SCTLD-associated bacterial taxa, such as Alteromonadales, Vibrionales, Peptostreptococcales–Tissierellales, and Rhodobacterales, may play a role in disease progression (Rosales et al., 2023). Microscopic analysis of SCTLD-affected coral tissues did not reveal the presence of bacteria that contributed to tissue death. Instead, the examination indicated the death of coral cells and endosymbiotic dinoflagellates, suggesting a breakdown in the symbiotic relationship between the host and endosymbionts. It remains uncertain which of the two dies first, leading to the death of the other (Work et al., 2021).

Another example of disease-specificity is Aspergillosis. It is believed to be caused primarily by *Aspergillus sydowii* and infects Octocorallia, especially, Sea Fan (*Gorgonia* spp.) (Weil et al., 2016). A molecular study comparing the genetic structure of *A. sydowii*, including isolates from diseased corals, humans, and environmental sources, found that it is a single global population with sufficient gene flow to prevent differentiation across geographic locations or sources (K. Kim & Rypien, 2015). Nevertheless, certain fungi, such as *Penicillium chrysogenum* and *P. mallochii*, have been detected in afflicted colonies and have also been discovered in unaffected gorgonian corals (X.-Y. Zhang & Qi, 2019). These findings imply that these fungi are integral constituents of thriving microbial communities. The factors that lead to aspergillosis or the development of other fungal pathogens in coral reefs are unknown (Soler-Hurtado et al., 2016).

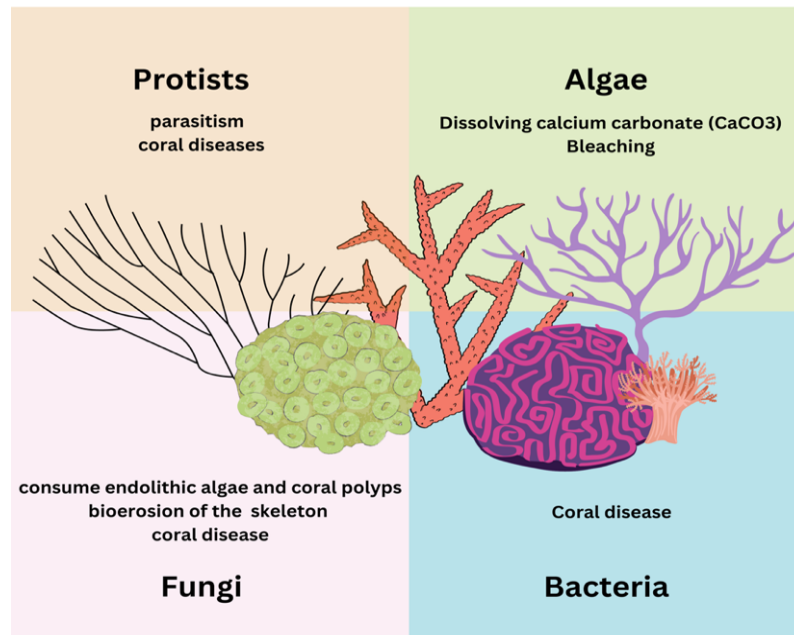


Figure 3: The negative interactions within the coral holobiont, highlighting the roles of different components. Algae could contribute to coral fragility either by dissolving the coral skeleton or loss of symbiosis; protists play a role in coral parasitism and disease; fungi are involved in coral skeleton and tissue damage; and certain bacteria are associated with various coral diseases.

Numerous studies have been conducted to determine the etiological agents of coral diseases. Nonetheless, the causative agents of several coral diseases are unknown, and they may provide insights into the microbiome structure of diseased corals, such as White Band Disease (WBD), which has been linked to potentially associated microbes, such as Vibrionales and Rickettsiales (Linares et al., 2016; C. S. Pereira et al., 2012). Black-band disease (BBD) is a polymicrobial disease consisting of diverse members of four functional groups, with no conclusive primary pathogens identified (Richardson, 2004). Trichoderma and Penicillium fungi are also thought to cause disorders such as fungal protozoan syndrome (FPS) (Cerrano et al., 2000) and Black Necrotic Syndrome (BNS) (Morrison-Gardiner, 2002). However, most of these studies have struggled to identify functional alterations in the microbiome or the processes by which pathogens infiltrate coral tissues and influence the microbiome.

Table.1: Some coral diseases are classified by specificity to Hexacorallia or Octocorallia and potential causative agents

Disease	Hexacorallia	Octocorallia	Causative Agent
White Plague (WP) I,II,III	+	-	Bacteria, Ciliates
Black Band Disease (BBD)	+	+	Bacteria
White Band Disease (WBD) I,II	+	-	Bacteria, Ciliates
Aspergillosis (ASP)	-	+	Fungi
Fungal-Protozoan Syndrome (FPS)	-	+	Fungi, Ciliates
Black Necrotic Syndrome (BNS)	-	+	Fungi
Gorgonian Labyrinthulomycosis (LAB) and Multifocal Purple Spots (MFPS)	-	+	Protozoan parasite genus <i>Aplanochytrium</i>
Stony Coral Tissue Loss Disease (SCTLD)	+	-	Bacteria

Moreover, coral health is intricately linked to its surrounding environment (Aeby et al., 2020), and any alterations can lead to dysbiosis (Maher et al., 2019), which can result in a range of ailments, such as tissue lesions, bleaching, and tissue loss (Mera & Bourne, 2018). Consequently, these disturbances have a significant impact on the microbial communities of affected species. Additionally, regular monitoring of the coral host and its response can provide valuable insights into disease processes. For example, analyzing coral samples regularly, especially, in locations that are more susceptible to anthropogenic activities, and pre-bleaching periods. However, given the complex structure of holobionts, this process is challenging. Visual symptoms are actively used for the diagnosis and identification of coral diseases. Therefore, there is an urgent need for improved approaches such as metagenomics, metatranscriptomics, and analyses to enhance our understanding of these illnesses and develop appropriate mitigation strategies.

1.4.4. Depth

Environmental variations in water quality, light, and temperature are thought to profoundly influence the microbial communities within corals (Hernandez-Agreda et al., 2016; R. A. Littman et al., 2009). In this context, depth is regarded as a multifaceted environmental factor that encompasses various gradients such as light and temperature.

The categorization of coral ecosystems based on their depth within the ocean has identified three distinct categories: shallow corals (<30m), upper mesophotic corals (30-60m), and lower mesophotic corals (>60m) (Bongaerts et al., 2010, 2015; Kahng et al., 2010) (Figure 4). Considerable work has been done on tropical water corals, including scleractinian and soft corals, compared with cold-water corals (CWC). Recently, they have attracted the interest of many coral researchers because they could potentially provide predictions about the state of corals in the face of global ocean changes, such as rising temperatures and acidification. Deep-sea corals, which are widely distributed worldwide at depths exceeding 50 m, play a crucial role as ecosystem engineers (Davies & Guinotte, 2011; Middelburg et al., 2015a; Roberts et al., 2006), and are vital contributors to biodiversity. As inhabitants of the deep ocean, they rely on the transportation of organic matter from the sunlit ocean surface (Cathalot et al., 2015; Oevelen et al., 2009).

Recent studies have suggested notable divergence in the microbial composition of corals across different water depths (van de Water, Voolstra, et al., 2018). In tropical-water corals, Prada et al. 2022 conducted a study to examine how depth variation affects the coral microbiome of two warm-water coral species, *Orbicella franksi* [7-8m] and *Orbicella annularis* [3-4m]. To investigate the impact of depth on these species microbiomes, they transplanted the *O. annularis* at ~9m and *O. franksi* at ~4m depth. They have discovered that Gammaproteobacteria, particularly the genus *Endozoicomonas*, exhibit higher levels of enrichment at shallow colonies microbiome. It has been proposed to dualistically metabolize dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP) to produce both dimethylsulfide (DMS) and DMSP as carbon sources for growth and survival (Tandon et al., 2020a). Additionally, the family Alteromonadaceae and order Acidimicrobiales were also found to be more abundant in shallow regions (Prada et al., 2022). It hypothesized that Alteromonadaceae can neutralize the harmful effects of oxidative stress caused by reactive oxygen species (ROS) in corals using enzymatic antioxidants such as catalase, peroxidase, and superoxide dismutase (Dungan et al., 2021).

Additionally, a study by Glasl et al. in 2017 (Glasl et al., 2017) revealed that in *Madracis pharensis*, the prokaryotic community at 15m differs from that at 55 and 85 m in depth. They indicated that the presence of Chloroflexales bacteria was strongly linked to *M. pharensis* at a depth of 15 m, but their relative abundance sharply declined as the depth increased towards the upper mesophotic zone. However, this order is known to be a member of the anoxygenic photosynthesis family (Saghaï et al., 2020) and has mostly been linked to communities associated with hot springs (Hanada, 2014; Ward et al., 2018). Interestingly, Chloroflexales were found completely absent in the *Madracis pharensis* microbiome from the lower mesophotic zone (Glasl et al., 2017). In contrast, the Amoebohilaceae bacterial family was identified as a depth-related taxon of *Madracis pharensis* microbiome at 55 and 85 m, and its relative abundance within *M. pharensis* increased with increasing depth (Glasl et al., 2017). They also found alterations in the *Symbiodinium* community (type B7 in the shallow layers is completely replaced by type B15 in the mesophotic habitats) and prokaryotic community composition. It is worth mentioning that the deepest recorded photosynthetic corals (172 m depth) harbored Symbiodiniaceae together with a diverse community of bacteria, and endolithic algae from the genus *Ostreobium* (Rouzé et al., 2021). An additional example of shallow-water corals in warm environments is *Acropora* spp., whose microbiome is primarily constituted by *Endozoicomonas* (Bayer, Neave, et al., 2013), which is a ubiquitous coral symbiont (Hochart et al., 2023). These are examples of tropical water corals showing depth-variable differences in microbiome composition.

These variations were also detected in the temperate-water corals. For example, *Cladocora caespitosa*, which is deemed the only true reef in the Mediterranean Sea, has different dominant bacteria belonging to the Bacteroidetes, Alpha, and Gammaproteobacteria classes (Rubio-Portillo et al., 2018). These colonies were collected at a shallow depth of ~7m. The Rhodobacterales are the most abundant order in the Alpha- class while Flavobacteriales and Sphingobacteriales dominate Bacteroidetes. Interestingly, when the water becomes colder and deeper, the coral microbiome diverges.

Another example is the temperate *Eunicella labiata* microbiome. At depth ~15m, it shows enrichment of Oceanospirillales – mainly Endozoicomonas – followed by Rhodobacterales and Actinomarina (Keller-Costa et al., 2017, 2021). Another survey targeting the 16s rRNA of *Eunicella singularis* was conducted at a depth of approximately 35m. The findings indicated that the predominant component of the core microbiome was Endozoicomonas. Additionally, the microbiome exhibited a locally diverse bacterial population, including Burkholderiales, Mycoplasmatales, Spirochaetales, and Vibrionales (van de Water et al., 2017). Moreover, an analysis of another *Eunicella* species, *E. cavolini*, at different depths (24, 30, and 41m), revealed a consistent dominance of *Endozoicomonas* across all depths, with a few depth-correlated taxa such as Aquimarina and Myxococcales (Bayer, Arif, et al., 2013).

The cold-water coral *Primnoa pacifica* microbiome at ~16m was dominated by Rhabdochlamydiaceae (Goldsmith et al., 2018). Moreover, Spirochaetales dominated the cold-water red coral *Corallium rubrum* microbiome, which was collected from ~ 20 m (van de Water, Allemand, et al., 2018). Furthermore, coral species inhabiting mesophotic zones may possess unique microbiomes (Meyer et al., 2017). When diving deeper, the microbial community of the corals appeared to be different from that of the upper sea layers. For instance, the microbiome of the cold-water coral species *Desmophyllum pertusum*, formerly classified as *Lophelia pertusa* (Linnaeus, 1758), was dominant at ~300 m depth by the uncultured Alpha-proteobacteria of Rhizobiales (Jensen et al., 2019). In the Baltimore Canyon, *Paramuricea placomus* colonies were collected from a depth range of 379–382 m and the microbiome was examined. All examined colonies appeared to share Alpha-, Beta-, Delta-, Epsilon-, and Gammaproteobacteria (Kellogg et al., 2016). Additionally, the microbiome of the deep-sea coral *P. resedaeformis* was studied in a canyon approximately 400–550 m in depth. This investigation revealed the substantial presence of various families within the Proteobacteria phylum, notably including *Xanthomonadaceae*, *Pseudomonadaceae*, *Pseudoalteromonadaceae*, and *Moraxellaceae* (Goldsmith et al., 2018). In the abyssal coral (at depths between 3,000 and 6,000 m), Quintanilla et al. 2020 (Quintanilla et al., 2022) found that Primnoidae and

Isididae microbiomes are dominated by *Terasakiellaceae* and *Spongiibacteraceae* bacteria. Interestingly, they reported that *Terasakiellaceae* ASVs are associated with *Primnoidae* corals (Quintanilla et al., 2022).

1.4.5. Additional Abiotic stressors

Significant variations were observed in the composition of microbial communities inhabiting coral hosts, both spatially and temporally. Despite this variability, the core microbiomes of individual coral hosts exhibit distinct specificities and remarkable stability across different spatiotemporal scales. Furthermore, Dunphy et al. (2019) observed an increase in microbial community dissimilarity with the geographical location of the coral host, suggesting that regional processes, such as dispersal limitation and spatiotemporal environmental heterogeneity, may significantly influence microbial community composition. However, it has been proposed that the dissimilarity observed among geographically separated corals can be primarily attributed to variations in the phylotypes of Gammaproteobacteria (Dunphy et al., 2019). Additionally, some microbiome taxa such as *Endozoicomonas* and *Campylobacteraceae* may play a significant role in driving differences in microbiome structure across coral genera (Dunphy et al., 2019; Hochart et al., 2023).

Recently, the influence of geographical distribution on coral microbiome has been investigated across the Pacific Ocean. The coral microbiomes of *Pocillopora meandrina*, *Porites lobata*, and *Millepora platyphylla* were significantly correlated with geographical distance, indicating that local site-specific environmental conditions play a crucial role in shaping the microbiome composition of colonies (Galand et al., 2023). Furthermore, the soft coral *Scleronephthya gracillimum* showed significant diversity and variation in associated bacterial communities across different geographical locations. In *S. gracillimum* from Korea and Japan, the dominant group was *Endozoicimonaceae*, whereas *Mycoplasma* was dominant in *S. gracillimum* from Taiwan. Notably, corals from Taiwan had a lower relative abundance of *Endozoicimonaceae* but greater diversity (Woo et al., 2017). Nevertheless, by narrowing the focus to the core microbiome, it is possible

to reduce the occurrence of false positives and negatives by disregarding the inherent variability of non-core microorganisms (Dunphy et al., 2019). Moreover, differences in the strength of host identity—defined by the uniqueness and stability of the microbial communities associated with each coral species—could be used to infer the susceptibility of each species to environmental disturbances and disease outbreaks. This provides crucial insights for conservation and management strategies.

Furthermore, some coral species show high diversity and rapid seasonal changes in their associated microbial communities (C.-P. Chen et al., 2011). A comparative study of three coral genera from reefs near Bocas del Toro, Panama, conducted by Dunphy et al. (2019), found a high abundance of Gammaproteobacteria in December, whereas in April and October, they were mostly absent. Another investigation of the *Acropora pruinosa* microbiome over different seasons by X. Yu et al. (2021) reported seasonal variations in its composition. The results demonstrated the dominance of Proteobacteria in spring, autumn, and winter, whereas Bacteroidetes was dominant in summer (X. Yu et al., 2021). Moreover, 12 OTUs were identified as part of the core microbiome. These 12 bacterial OTUs were shared among the samples across all seasons. The dominant core bacteria showed seasonal changes in their abundance. The bacterial BD1-7 clade was dominant in autumn (86%) and summer (71%), while *Rhodococcus* was dominant in spring (76%) and winter (36%). The seasonality of the microbiome was analyzed for the whole and core microbiomes. The highest abundance of the core microbiome was recorded in the autumn, accounting for > 81% of the total microbiome. The lowest abundance was observed in spring, with less than 5% of the total microbial community. However, it remains unclear whether the dynamics of bacterial composition affect the functionality of the microbiome. In addition, analyzing the microbiome genes diversity and expression between seasons may enhance our understanding of the microbiome.

Environmental disturbance of cnidarian-algae symbiosis can cause expulsion of endosymbiotic *Symbiodinium* from the coral host as a response to stress (Ainsworth et al., 2008; Leggat et al., 2006). Studies suggest that continuous climate change and

anthropogenic pollution play a role in changing the microbial community assemblage associated with coral species (Y. Zhang et al., 2015). Therefore, future ocean conditions may accelerate reef deterioration and render corals more fragile (Reyes-Nivia et al., 2013). Corals usually sustain their nitrogen requirements through heterotrophic feeding and/or by absorbing dissolved inorganic nitrogen from surrounding water (Morrow et al., 2018). Moreover, the reduction in the post-bleaching photoinhibition process and recovery time was correlated with the increased nitrogen acquired through heterotrophy (Ferrier-Pagès et al., 2010; Grottoli et al., 2006; Hoogenboom et al., 2012). Interestingly, the increase in nitrifying bacteria (diazotrophic) during thermal stress (Cardini et al., 2016) suggests a link between bleaching and available nitrogen in the surrounding water (Pogoreutz et al., 2017; Vega Thurber et al., 2014; Wooldridge, 2013). Consequently, researchers have assumed that increased nitrogen intake for corals could accelerate coral recovery following a bleaching event (Morrow et al., 2018). Nevertheless, increases in water temperature and light exposure limit the nitrogen uptake ratio and may cause corals to increase the excretion of organic matter into the surrounding water (Böttjer et al., 2017; Godinot et al., 2011). In addition, the elevated water temperature and reduction in water pH were assumed to limit phosphate and nitrate uptake rates (Godinot et al., 2011). Consequently, the enrichment of organic matter and nitrogen in the water (M. P. Lesser, 2007) with the increase in temperature and light intake, and the mutualistic relationships between coral and the endosymbiotic algae *Symbiodinium*, lead to bleaching (Godinot et al., 2011; M. P. Lesser, 2007).

Plastics are another type of stressors. The impact of plastics and other pollutants on corals has recently gained increasing attention. According to Lamb et al. (2018), corals entangled with plastics have a 20-fold higher likelihood of exhibiting signs of disease. Plastic debris can negatively affect corals in various ways, such as depriving them of light and causing anoxia, and may provide a foothold for pathogens to invade (Lamb et al., 2018). Furthermore, toxicities such as petroleum toxicity and heavy metal exposure affect coral health and lead to coral injuries and death (Stoskopf et al., 2022). Petroleum hydrocarbon contamination causes dysbiosis and disruption of the microbial

population, which can injure corals and alter the complex balance and functional diversity within coral holobionts (P. H. F. Pereira et al., 2023). Furthermore, a study by Gissi et al. (2019) indicated that the coral microbiome may undergo dysbiotic alterations due to exposure to Ni and Cu. However, there are notable deficiencies in our understanding of how the microbiome and cnidarian host react to stress, particularly in the context of metal exposure (Gissi et al., 2019).

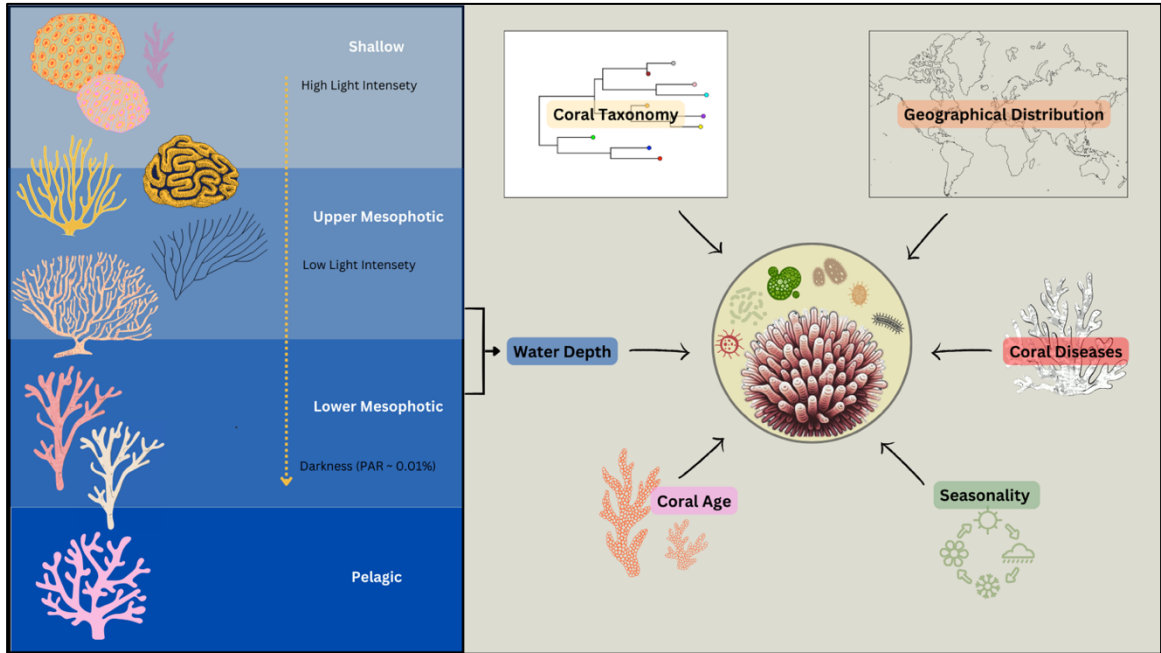


Figure 4. Schematic representation of the primary factors influencing the coral microbiome. The left panel shows the different depth zones within coral habitats.

1.5. *Omics-Based Research on the Coral Microbiome*

As mentioned previously, coral reefs depend on healthy coral holobionts (Bourne et al., 2016); however, the dynamics of this delicate and complex interaction between coral and the microbiome are affected by environmental disturbances (Planes et al., 2019a). This disturbance causes dysbiosis of the microbiome, which can have substantial consequences for coral and the entire reef (Belser et al., 2023). Integrating multi-omics data, such as genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics, epigenomics, and

other omics fields, is crucial for understanding the biocomplexity of corals and their microbial symbionts (Reddy et al., 2023). This approach provides key insights into the resilience, acclimatization, and environmental adaptation of corals and coral reefs (Reddy et al., 2023), although this is more challenging for eukaryotes because of their larger genomes. In addition, eukaryotic genomes are more complex than prokaryotic genomes, with extensive non-coding regions, repetitive sequences, and introns. Additionally, sequences of bacterial origin can contaminate eukaryotic genome assemblies because environmental samples contain DNA from all domains of life. Contamination can also occur from DNA extraction kits or laboratory environments. In this section, I underscore the importance of employing omic-based approaches in coral microbiome studies and provide examples from previous research, highlighting their main findings in addition to some of the limitations and possible solutions.

Metabarcoding has opened doors for exploring microbes that cannot be cultured in the laboratory; however, it only identifies taxa. In turn, metagenomics can be used for the metabolic profiling of microbiomes. Unlike genomics, which focuses on the genetic material of a single organism, metagenomics analyzes the genetic material of entire communities in a given sample by generating large numbers of short metagenomic reads (short DNA sequences). It is useful for examining the genetic composition of microbial populations associated with coral hosts by allowing researchers to sequence and analyze the collective genomes of microorganisms. This approach helps identify the diversity and functional capabilities of the microbial communities, understand their interactions with coral hosts, and assess their roles in coral health and disease. Furthermore, constructing gene libraries for coral microbiomes will increase our knowledge of their functional diversity, providing valuable information about potential metabolic pathways and enzymes. Consequently, this allows researchers to hypothesize and investigate the complex microbial interactions within the microbiome (Planes et al., 2019b). In addition, metagenomics can also be used for taxonomic profiling of the microbiome using marker genes (such as 16S and 18S rDNA) (Salazar et al., 2021a; Vaultot et al., 2022) by

mapping them to reference databases such as SILVA (Quast et al., 2012), PR2 (Guillou et al., 2012), and the Global Ocean DB (Obiol et al., 2020).

Metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) would help to understand the role of microbiome members. To illustrate, Robbins et al. (2019a) used MAGs to describe the potential role of the stony coral *Porites lutea*. They recovered 52 high-quality genomes of different microbiome components, including the dinoflagellate symbiont *Cladocopium* C15, Archaeal, and bacterial genomes. Based on the functional annotation of the encoded genes in the *Cladocopium* MAG, they obtained a view of its metabolic capacity in synthesizing some amino acids that cannot be synthesized by the coral (Shinzato et al., 2011, 2014), in addition to their role in nutrition acquisition from the surrounding water. Furthermore, they highlighted the role of archaea and bacteria in producing essential vitamins (group B) that are required for growth by both the coral host and its associated dinoflagellates. These vitamins are essential and cannot be synthesized by corals or algae (Croft et al., 2005; Salem et al., 2014). They also suggested that the prokaryotic community might be involved in carbon fixation which was previously thought that coral only acquires that from predation or their endosymbiotic *Symbiodinium*. Interestingly, they obtained information about the potential interaction between the different microbiome members, in this case, the *Cladocopium* and prokaryotes, in sulfur cycling, such as catalyzing dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP) into dimethyl sulfide (DMS) (Robbins et al., 2019a; Sunda et al., 2002). Collectively, these findings indicate that metagenomics serves as a potent tool for enhancing our knowledge and understanding of intricate dynamics within the holobiont.

Furthermore, metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) can be used to analyze the genomic characteristics of specific taxa and compare populations of the same taxon (Hochart et al., 2023). *Endozoicomonas*, for example, is a ubiquitous bacterium associated with most coral species (Neave et al., 2016a). Neave, Michell, et al. (2017), used single cells and metagenomes from three different scleractinian corals to generate novel *Endozoicomonas* MAGs. They found that this symbiont bacterium is involved in

the assimilation of ammonia through the synthesis of glutamine and glutamate. However, MAGs show different production capacities for some essential amino acids (Neave, Michell, et al., 2017; Price et al., 2014). In addition, *Endozoicomonas* was found to encode a phosphoenolpyruvate-dependent sugar phosphotransferase (PTS) system with specific subunits of lactose and cellobiose, suggesting a potential role in consuming degrading algal cells, particularly *Symbiodinium* algae (Neave, Michell, et al., 2017). In addition, it may play a role in communication between microbial cells through chemotaxis (Lux et al., 1995) or quorum sensing (C. S. Pereira et al., 2012).

Another application of metagenome-assembled genomes is the investigation of coral-associated microbial aggregates (CAMA). Wada et al. 2022 (Wada et al., 2022) constructed two MAGs from individual CAMAs belonging to the genus *Endozoicomonas* to study their genomic functional features. They predicted that 37 proteins in each MAG were related to single-species biofilm formation and quorum sensing. In addition, these MAGs exhibited nearly complete components of various secretory systems, including the general twin-arginine protein translocation (Tat) and types I–III and VI secretion systems (SSs). These proteins and secretion systems potentially facilitate aggregation (Cassan et al., 2021) in coral tissues, biofilm formation (Linares et al., 2016), and pathogenicity traits (Bernard et al., 2010). Additionally, MAGs were screened for eukaryotic repeat domains, identifying 26 proteins with ankyrin repeats and 13 proteins with tetratricopeptide repeats, suggesting potential roles in facilitating host-symbiont interactions. Furthermore, these *Endozoicomonas* MAGs from CAMAs were capable of sequestering and cycling phosphate between coral holobiont partners (Wada et al., 2022).

Moreover, metagenomics has been used to study coral strategies for host bacteria and the specification of host-bacterial associations. For example, it has been assumed that *Pocillopora* is associated with *Endozoicomonas* clade A (Neave, Rachmawati, et al., 2017). However, it has recently been found that in some geographical locations, *Pocillopora* is associated with different *Endozoicomonas* clades such as clades B and C (Hochart et al., 2023). In addition, Hochart et al. (2023) conducted a large-scale study

across the Pacific Ocean using samples from the TARA Pacific expedition (Belser et al., 2023) on three coral genera, *Millepora*, *Pocillopora*, and *Porites*, and generated 24 *Endozoicomonadaceae* MAGs belonging to two genera: *Endozoicomonas* and *Parendozoicomonas*. They suggested that different coral genera harbor distinct *Endozoicomonadaceae* species. However, this distinction could be influenced by co-evolutionary history and environmental factors, leading to diverse communities through the rearrangement of prevalent *Endozoicomonas* phylotypes (Tandon, Chiou, et al., 2022a). For example, some coral species may undergo microbial shuffling to confer selective advantages, although further investigation is required (Tandon, Chiou, et al., 2022a). In addition, functional analysis of these MAGs revealed metabolic capacities such as the biosynthesis of cofactors, catabolizing dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP) into dimethyl sulfide (DMS) (Tandon et al., 2020b), and chitin degradation, a widely available polysaccharide in the ocean (Keller-Costa et al., 2022). However, these metabolic pathways varied across the host lineage, associated *Endozoicomonas* clade, and available nutrition sources. These findings suggest that coral-bacterial associations appear diverse, ranging from stable co-dependent relationships established over evolutionary time to flexible opportunistic associations influenced by the environment (Hochart et al., 2023).

The popularity of metagenomic approaches in coral research has resulted in the publication of many studies that have proposed significant hypotheses regarding the roles of microorganisms in stress and bleaching, such as the hypothesis of polygenic evolution (Rose et al., 2018). However, these hypotheses are primarily based on correlational data derived from complex datasets, which makes it challenging to identify and fully understand the essential components of stress response. Additionally, generating data from various species without consistent experimental conditions makes it difficult to compare the datasets. To address this challenge, standardizing data processing and analysis across datasets could involve developing common protocols for data normalization, quality control, and statistical analysis that are applicable to different coral species and experimental conditions. The Tara Pacific expedition (Planes et al., 2019b)

took the initiative, proposed a standardized protocol, and built the largest database of coral reef multi-omics data (Lombard et al., 2023). They have used a systematic sampling of two species of scleractinian corals and one hydrocoral in addition to collected water and aerosol samples, along with environmental context data sourced from taxonomic registries, gazetteers, almanacs, climatologies, operational biogeochemical models, and satellite observations (Lombard et al., 2023; Planes & Allemand, 2023). In addition, they used a specific genetic material extraction protocol for metagenomics, including an additional enzymatic step by adding lysozyme, mutanolysine, and lysostaphine and incubation for 1h at 37 °C before the Proteinase K step. This will help to achieve the best lysis of the bacterial and archaeal components of the microbiome (Belser et al., 2023).

Limited microbial DNA is another challenge when dealing with the high volume of sequences generated by the coral host. One way to address this issue is to sequence more deeply and generate more reads to obtain more biological information on coral-associated microorganisms. For instance, Tandon, Ricci, et al. (2022) applied deep sequencing to investigate two reef-building coral skeleton microbiomes, *Porites lutea* and *Isopora palifera*. They sequenced a high number ($\pm 1.3 \times 10^9$) of read pairs and constructed ~400 MAGs, including archaeal MAGs with > 90% completeness and < 10% contamination from the skeleton, some of which are unique to coral species. They found that the skeletal microbiome could use an array of eukaryotic-like proteins (ELPs), such as TPRs and ARPs, to interact with coral and associated microeukaryotes (Nguyen et al., 2014). The presence of various microbial ELPs might indicate diverse roles and different importances (Tandon, Ricci, et al., 2022). Additionally, it has been suggested that the abundance of ELPs is driven by different factors, i.e., the abundance of ARPs is more associated with bacterial lifestyles such as obligate intracellular (Jernigan & Bordenstein, 2014), whereas TPRs are linked to phylogenetic history (Jernigan & Bordenstein, 2015). In addition, their findings elucidated the presumed functional impact of the skeletal microbiome on essential metabolic processes including nitrogen fixation, dissimilatory and assimilatory nitrate, and sulfate reduction (Tandon, Ricci, et al., 2022). This comprehensive view of the functionality of the skeletal microbiome sheds light on some

aspects of the complex microbiome interaction, contributing to an enriched understanding and providing new perspectives in microbiome research.

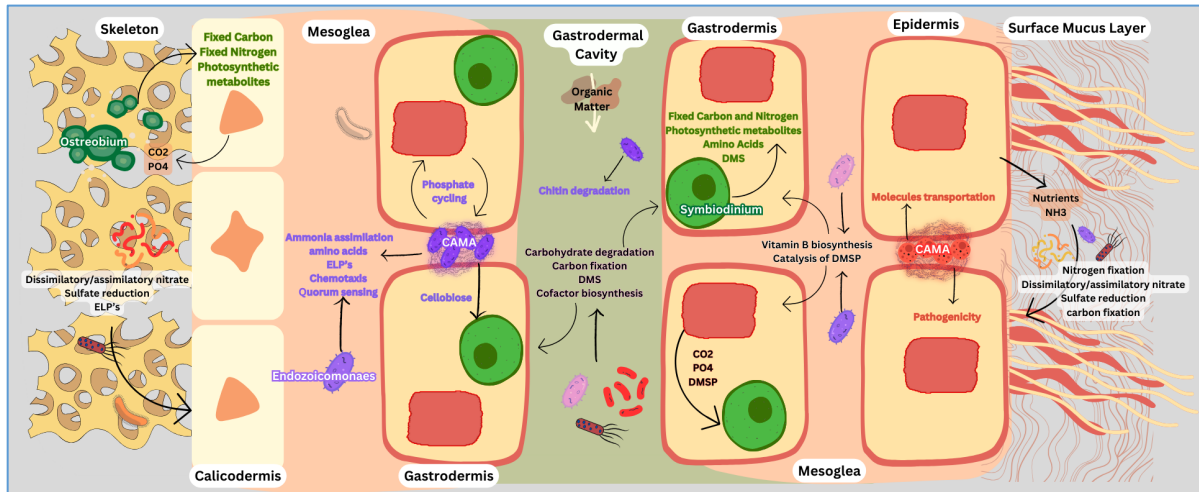


Figure 5. An illustration of coral anatomy indicates the potential roles of the microbiome within each microbial niche of the coral host, derived from metagenomic insights in coral microbiome studies.

Despite this, the popularity of meta-omic techniques in coral research has resulted in the publication of many studies that have proposed significant hypotheses regarding the roles of microorganisms in stress and bleaching, such as the hypothesis of polygenic evolution (Rose et al., 2018). Therefore, metagenomics could help coral disease research and provide valuable insights into microbiome characteristics. For example, metagenomics has been used to understand the microbial community dynamics of SCTLD. Rosales et al. (2022) compared the microbial community of healthy, diseased, and unaffected tissues from four coral species: *tephanocoenia intersepta*, *Diploria labyrinthiformis*, *Dichocoenia stokesii*, and *Meandrina meandrites*. Their results showed the presence of ciliates associated with coral diseases (Eaton et al., 2021), and genetically characterized them (Rosales et al., 2022). This provides an advantage and supports the previous histological findings of SCTLD (Landsberg et al., 2020; Meyer et al., 2019a). In addition, they retrieved 16 high-resolution MAGs that were associated with SCTLD and defined specific metabolic pathways of potential interest. In addition, MAGs were more abundant in diseased tissues, such as Campylobacterales, Rhizobiales, and Rhodobacterales. These MAGs orders have been previously reported in diseased loose

tissue (Meyer et al., 2019a). Another study conducted by Cárdenas et al. 2022) investigated the prolonged exposure of the endolithic communities of two reef-building corals (*Goniastrea edwardsi* and *Porites lutea*) to thermal stress. Neither coral species showed taxonomic variation between the control and heat-treated subjects within the endolithic microbes. However, a comparison of the two endolithic microbiomes showed that *G. edwardsi* had larger functional diversity than *P. lutea*, especially in carbon fixation pathways (Cárdenas et al., 2022). Nevertheless, *P. lutea* showed higher nitrogen assimilation under stress conditions. Their results suggested that the two endolithic communities might have used different sources of carbon for energy production and metabolic functions under thermal stress (Cárdenas et al., 2022; Sangsawang et al., 2017). These studies provide an example of the application of metagenomics in coral diseases and bleaching investigations.

Meta-transcriptomics identifies the genes that are actively expressed in the microbiome. This technique has provided a significant amount of data in coral research and presents an opportunity to identify crucial pathways in the microbial community to understand their roles in coral ecosystems and their interactions with coral hosts. In coral omics, microarrays and RNA-seq have gained popularity for profiling coral transcriptomes to uncover gene expression patterns related to thermal stress (Cziesielski et al., 2019). By identifying differentially expressed genes (DEGs), researchers can investigate responses to various environmental conditions (Barshis et al., 2013; Hrdlickova et al., 2017) and help advance coral investigations (Y. Zhang et al., 2019). For example, Daniels et al 2015 (Daniels et al., 2015), have explored the stony coral *Orbicella faveolata* holobiont response to white plaque disease (WPD). The transcriptomic analysis of the microbiome indicated an increase in gene expression of heat-shock proteins and metal transporters suggesting the acquisition/transport of metals released from damaged host cells. Also, their results suggested the expression of multiple stress and virulence genes linked to *Alteromonadaceae*, *Rhodobacteraceae*, *Flavobacteriaceae*, *Enterobacteriaceae*, and *Vibrionaceae*, pointing toward an opportunistic nature of these bacteria (Daniels et al., 2015). Although the main causative

agents of WPD are still ambiguous (Chimetto Tonon et al., 2017), understanding the functional role of the coral microbiome is crucial for understanding their interactions in the context of expressed genes.

Another study conducted by Avila-Magaña et al. (2021) used metatranscriptomic to investigate the impact of thermal stress on coral holobiont: *Pseudodiploria clivosa*, *Orbicella faveolata* and *Siderastrea radians*. Each coral species hosts a species-specific, symbiotic dinoflagellate. In addition to the differences in some key biological processes in thermally stressed corals, symbiotic algae showed different gene expression in response to thermal stress (Avila-Magaña et al., 2021). Multiple photosynthesis-related genes were differentially expressed, indicating variations in the photodamage and photoinhibition responses. The thermotolerant *Breviolum* B5 exhibited overexpression of *psbI* and pentatricopeptide repeat-containing protein *mrl1* genes, suggesting a strategy focused on PSII core complex stabilization and RuBisCO transcript regulation to withstand higher temperatures without compromising algal photosynthetic capacity (Avila-Magaña et al., 2021; Ikeuchi et al., 1995; Johnson et al., 2010). In contrast, *Symbiodinium* A3 displayed an intermediate ability to sustain photosynthesis under heat stress, prevent chlorophyll breakdown, and maintain the PSII repair rates. This is in contrast with the more sensitive response of *B. faviinorum*. This evidence supports *Breviolum* B5 as a thermotolerant photosymbiont, *Symbiodinium* A3, which exhibits an intermediate response, whereas *B. faviinorum* is more sensitive to heat stress (Avila-Magaña et al., 2021).

Although meta-transcriptomics has only been employed in a limited number of cases, its integration with other meta-omics methodologies can validate gene expression patterns, enable the quantification of their effects, and offer insights into novel metabolic and symbiotic interactions. Mass-spectrometry-based techniques, such as proteomics and metabolomics, have led to groundbreaking discoveries in holobiont research (Mohamed et al., 2023). Metabolomics research has provided new insights into the interactions between coral holobionts (Lohr et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2021a). For instance, platelet

activation factors were found to increase at coral-algal interfaces, suggesting their involvement in these interactions (Quinn et al., 2016). Certain lipid classes, such as betaine lipids and diacyl glycerides, have been linked to earlier episodes of coral bleaching and can serve as indicators of disease (Deutsch et al., 2021; Roach et al., 2020). Furthermore, dipeptides have been identified as indicators of heat stress in corals (Williams et al., 2021b). These metabolites consist of various chemical groups and can have a significant impact on the microbiome of the surface mucopolysaccharide layer (SML) (Ochsenkühn et al., 2018). One notable metabolite that has been identified is estrogen, which not only regulates stress responses, but also modifies microbiome composition (Stien et al., 2020; Vilela et al., 2021). Proteomics has been instrumental in examining how both hosts and symbionts respond to heat stress, unveiling novel thermal stress molecular biomarkers like the dipeptides lysine–glutamine and arginine–glutamine (Williams et al., 2021a). However, the absence of standardized coral metabolomics methods, limited chemical reference libraries, and a lack of knowledge of metabolite functions pose major challenges.

One of the issues is the influence of the extraction techniques on the identified compounds. While some metabolites are prone to degradation, others are not efficiently extracted (Andersson et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2020). To overcome some of these limitations, Reddy et al., 2023 enhanced the extraction method by modifying the Matyash lipid extraction method, followed by ¹H NMR and LC-MS analysis of the non-polar and polar metabolites (Andersson et al., 2019; Sostare et al., 2018), and the extraction yields were maximized by liquid-liquid partitioning of the freeze-dried material using a biphasic solvent mixture MTBE/MeOH/H₂O. This allows the achievement of a broad, complete metabolic overview of coral holobiont (Reddy et al., 2023). They applied this technique to natural populations of two reef-building coral genera, *Pocillopora* spp. and *Porites* spp., and one hydrocoral, *Millepora* cf. *platyphylla*, from the TARA Pacific expedition (Belser et al., 2023). They identified 24 compounds by NMR, including osmolytes, and over 200 lipids by MS analysis of corals. Although the metabolic profiles varied among coral genera, they remained consistent within the genotypes. Despite the

recognized influence of endosymbiotic dinoflagellates (Symbiodiniaceae) on the metabolomic signature of coral holobionts, these dinoflagellates alone did not explain all observed differences. This indicated the collective impact of various coral holobiont members and their interactions with the environment.

1.6. Current Limitation of Meta-omics

The primary objective of coral omics is to identify the fundamental genes and species involved in the response to various stressors and to elucidate the relationship between variations in this response and differences in stress resilience. The vast majority of studies have focused on tropical and subtropical stony corals; however, temperate and cold-water corals need to receive more attention in coral omics studies. Furthermore, despite the advantages of metagenomics, some limitations must be overcome, such as the presence of a significant number of genes with unknown functions, referred to as 'dark genes,' in corals and algae (Cleves, Shumaker, et al., 2020). For example, in dinoflagellates, approximately one-third of the genes are unannotated, and only a small fraction of these uncharacterized proteins have a known domain, which limits our ability to infer their functions and understand the biological processes and pathways in which they are involved (Stephens et al., 2018). Conversely, traditional molecular biology and biochemistry methods for characterizing gene or protein function are time-consuming and lack high-throughput (Mohamed et al., 2023). Utilizing gene networks has demonstrated to identify hypothetical proteins with potential significance, and could offer insights into their importance (Cleves, Tinoco, et al., 2020). In addition, the functionality of these proteins can be explored using methods such as alpha-fold (Ma et al., 2022). Therefore, building a marine gene database that includes corals is required. Recently, a global ocean gene catalog that includes more than 317 million gene groups was released. This open-source database will enhance our knowledge of the diversity and role of different microbes in different marine habitats, including coral microbiome (Laiolo et al., 2024).

Furthermore, meta-transcriptomic techniques are potentially powerful; however, several challenges hinder their widespread use. One major hurdle is the high concentration of rRNA in the collected RNA samples, leading to a significant reduction in the quantity of mRNA, which is the main focus of transcriptomic research. Efforts have been made to address this issue by removing ribosomal RNA efficiently (Peano et al., 2013). Another challenge is the instability of mRNA, which is a well-known problem that can affect sample integrity before sequencing (Aguar-Pulido et al., 2016). Moreover, distinguishing between host and microbial RNA remains challenging, despite the availability of various enrichment kits. Computational methods can be employed if the host's reference genome is accessible, as demonstrated by Pérez-Losada et al. (Pérez-Losada et al., 2015) in their research on the human airway microbiome and host-pathogen interactions.

Finally, a limitation arises from the restricted coverage of transcriptome reference databases. Although metabolomics is a promising field with lower costs than sequencing, it has several limitations (Lu et al., 2020). This has been difficult to improve because of major hurdles in identifying metabolites with low abundance and many hidden metabolites usually found in biological processes (Vohsen et al., 2019). The complexity of chemical formulae and structures poses the biggest challenge in mass spectrometry-based metabolomics, where annotations can only be reliably confirmed with comparisons to known standards (Mohamed et al., 2023). Connecting metabolites with their corresponding generating organisms is a key challenge in studying holobionts. Although statistical correlation of metabolite and amplicon sequencing data can help with this endeavor (Jorissen et al., 2021), it is only useful for identifying distinct secondary metabolites. Another key challenge is determining whether a metabolite is produced by the host or the microbiome, making their identification and assignment to specific organisms more difficult. Metabolomic results must be combined with other omics data to determine the association between specific genes, enzymes, or pathways with a particular metabolite. Therefore, new approaches that deal with integrated omics are required to address these challenges (Aguar-Pulido et al., 2016).

1.7. Thesis Objectives

This thesis aims to enhance the current knowledge of the coral microbiome in the context of environmental change and the potential influence of these changes on the coral microbiome and, therefore, their health and resilience. To have a comprehensive view of the topic, we have reviewed coral biology, coral microbiome, and advanced technology that has improved our understanding of the coral microbiome. In addition, we reviewed the main biotic and abiotic factors that could potentially influence the stability and resilience of the corals and their microbiome. Also, we discussed the current advances in the coral microbiome studies and current limitations which give a better view of the current gaps and remaining unknown aspects.

Through reviewing the coral microbiome, we have noticed that there are limited studies that have used primerless, deep shotgun metagenome sequencing to determine the influence of environmental gradients (i.e., depth) on octocoral, specifically, gorgonian corals. Interestingly, the gorgonian coral *Eunicella Singularis* is the only symbiotic gorgonian in the Mediterranean and can live with (in shallow depths) and without (in mesophotic depths) Symbiodinium. This makes it important to understand the dynamics of microbiome functions between symbiotic and asymbiotic communities. Therefore, we investigated the effects of depth on the diversity and function of *Eunicella singularis* microbiomes to address this gap by, specifically, analyzing microbiomes from both shallow (12 m) and mesophotic (57 m) environments using deep-sequencing metagenomics. Our study sought to answer the following questions regarding the microbiome of *Eunicella singularis*:

- (i) Does the composition of dominant species vary with depth?
- (ii) Are there potential functional differences in the microbiomes at different depths?

- (iii) What are the likely functional roles of the main members of the microbiome at various depths?

As climate change threatens ocean life, especially, corals, the study of the elevated temperature is crucial. While many investigations have focused on the tropical and subtropical corals, less attention has been given to the cold water coral species. Therefore, we will study the impact of prolonged elevated water temperature on the microbiome of the cold-water coral, the hexacorallia scleractinian *Desmophyllum Pertusum*. To accomplish this, a 60-day controlled laboratory experiment was conducted in which coral samples were exposed to three different thermal conditions: 10°C (control temperature), 13°C, and 15°C. To conduct a comprehensive metagenomic analysis of the microbiome response to temperature increases, two coral colonies were collected from each temperature treatment at the beginning (day 1) and end (day 60) of the study. Given the anticipated abundance of Rhodobacterales, our hypothesis suggests that rising temperatures will:

- (i) impact the microbiome's taxonomic and functional structure
- (ii) Drive bacterial assemblages towards increased prevalence of opportunistic pathogenic bacteria.
- (iii) Disruptions in the microbial nitrogen cycle will lead to increased abundance and activity of denitrification genes and associated microbes.



2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

In this thesis, two separate projects were conducted to achieve the objectives of this study. The first project investigation aimed to survey whether the water depth influences the taxonomical and functional structure of the temperate water soft coral *Eunicella singularis*. The second project aimed to study the impact of thermal stress on the cold water scleractinian coral *Desmophyllum pertusum*. Each project has different sampling methods and experimental setups (Figure 6). However, both investigations shared the same bioinformatics and downstream data analysis. This section will describe first the sampling process and DNA extraction of each experiment, then, the bioinformatics analysis.

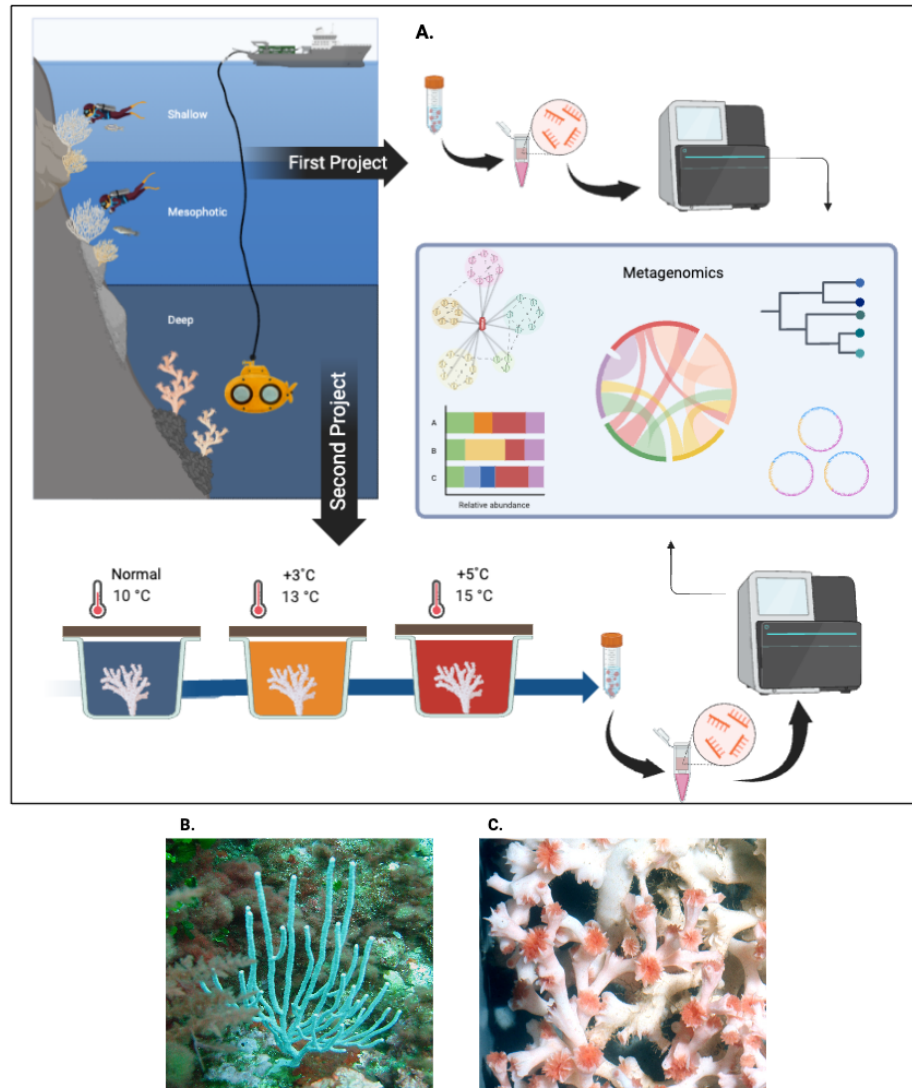


Figure 6: A. The research approach. The targeted coral species B. *Euncilla pingularis* (picture by: Matthieu Sontag) and C. *Desmophyllum Pertusum* (picture by: Alan J. Southward)

2.1. Coral specimen collection DNA Extraction and Library

Construction

2.1.1. Eunicella singularis

Samples were collected from the Banyuls Sur Mer coast – South of France – by scuba diving at different depths (shallow: 12 meters, and mesophotic: 57 meters) in December 2020. Branches (10-15 cm each) of 10 Mediterranean *Eunicella singularis* colonies were sampled (5 shallow; E_12m_1 to E_12m_5, and 5 mesophotic; E_57m_1 to E_57m_5). DNA extraction was done with the Zymo DNA kit following the standard protocol. The extracted DNA was shotgun sequenced using *Illumina*, aiming for a high coverage per sample (Novaseq 2*150 bp, > 80 Gb/sample). Sequencing was done at Macrogen in Korea. The high sequencing depth aims to obtain more information about the microbiome, as we expect that most of the reads will come from the coral. Sequences have been deposited at the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA; <https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena>) under the accession number PRJEB61841.

2.1.2. Desmophyllum pertusum

Five colonies of *Desmophyllum pertusum* were collected at a depth of 800 m in the Lampaul canyon of the Bay of Biscay, North-east Atlantic Ocean (N.47°36.703, W07°32.192) during the ChEReef research cruise in August 2021. These colonies were obtained using the remotely operated vehicle (ROV) Ariane from the R/V Thalassa and were maintained in oxygenated seawater at a temperature of 10°C using a cooling unit (ICE400, Aquavie, Connaux, France). After transportation to the laboratory (Banyuls Oceanological Observatory), the corals were acclimated to laboratory conditions for 5 months in aerated 80 L tanks, supplied with filtered (5 µm) seawater pumped from 10 m depth and fed three times a week with *Artemia salina* nauplii and marine snow plankton diet. Following this acclimatization period, the *D. pertusum* colonies were cut into nubbins containing 3-13 living polyps, glued onto PVC blocks using an aquatic epoxy

resin (Hold Fast Sand, Aquarium System, Sarrebourg, France), and transferred to experimental tanks.

To examine the effects of warming on the *D. pertusum* coral holobiont, colonies were exposed to three distinct temperature conditions (10, 13, and 15°C) for 60 days. The temperature of 10°C served as the control, representing the *in situ* temperature, while 13°C (+3°C increase) represented the *in situ* temperature in the Mediterranean Sea. Furthermore, 15°C (+5°C) represented a severe warming scenario, approaching the presumed upper thermal tolerance limit for this species (Brooke et al., 2013). The experimental procedures adhered to the protocol outlined in (Chapron et al., 2021). A total of 22 to 24 nubbins were randomly allocated to each of the three 36L experimental tanks, ensuring sufficient spacing between nubbins to prevent any contact between different colonies and polyps (Orejas et al., 2019). Each experimental condition consisted of four distinct colonies. For metagenomic analysis, two nubbins were selected at each sampling time to conduct microbiome analyses.

Each experimental tank was equipped with a small water pump (NJ400, Nawa Jet, Loreggia, Italy) to maintain a constant flow rate of 3 cm s⁻¹ and facilitate water mixing. To ensure stable temperature regulation, each coral tank was placed within a larger water bath tank. Additionally, a temperature probe connected to a temperature controller (Biotherm Eco, Hobby Aquaristik, Gelsdor, Germany, precise at 0.1°C) was installed in each coral tank, along with a cooling unit (ICE400, Aquavie, Connaux, France) in the water bath. The temperature in each tank was autonomously monitored every 30 minutes using an IBUTTON probe and manually checked twice a day using a digital thermometer (Checktemp thermometer, Hanna Instrument, Woonsocket, USA). The pH, oxygen concentrations, and salinity were measured manually twice a week using probes (C3010 Multi-parameter analyzers, Consort). Before temperature changes, the nubbins were acclimated for two weeks in the experimental aquaria. Subsequently, the water temperature in the experimental tanks was gradually adjusted over 10 days until the desired temperatures were reached, following the protocol outlined by Naumann et al.

(Naumann et al., 2014). Throughout the entire experiment, the feeding routine was consistently maintained.

For the extraction of DNA, individual polyps, encompassing the skeleton, tissues, and mucus, underwent initial crushing with a sterile hammer. Subsequently, they were ground in tubes containing a garnet matrix and mechanically lysed using a FastPrep Instrument (MP, Biomedical, Illkirch-Graffenstaden, France). DNA extraction followed the manufacturer's instructions using the Maxwell Blood DNA Purification Kit LEV and the Maxwell 16 MDx Instrument (Promega, Madison, WI, United States). Next, Illumina shotgun sequencing was carried out to achieve a high coverage per sample (Novaseq 2*150 bp, > 80 Gb/sample) at Macrogen in Korea. The primary goal of this sequencing approach was to gather additional insights into the microbiome, with the anticipation that the coral would account for the majority of the reads. The sequences have been submitted to ENA and can be accessed using the accession number PRJEB68224.

2.2. *Bioinformatic analyses*

The bioinformatics analysis is mainly composed of three main streams: Taxonomic classification, Gene-Centric, and Genome Centric (Figure 7). The taxonomic classification includes the extraction of the SSU rRNA and mapping it against reference databases. The gene-centric analysis focuses on the functional and taxonomic annotation of the genes from the community, which gives an overview of the metabolic pathways that are present in the microbiome and the taxa contributing to them. Lastly, the genome-centric analysis allows the reconstruction of genomes from metagenomic samples.

2.2.1. *Read quality check, trimming, and taxonomic profiling*

Read quality checks and adapter removal were performed using Cutadapt [v1.16] (Martin, 2011) (minimum length = 75, quality cutoff = 20, nextseq-trim = 20, max-n = 0) (Martin, 2011). The taxonomic diversity in metagenomes was determined using mTAGs, a bioinformatic tool that performs taxonomic annotation of metagenomic reads that

belong to the ribosomal RNA, using a 97% similarity threshold to assign reads to Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) (Salazar et al., 2021b). Different databases have been used to assign taxonomy, such as SILVA [SILVA-128] for prokaryotic and eukaryotic reads (Quast et al., 2012) and the PR2 (Protist Ribosomal Reference) database [4.14.0] (Guillou et al., 2012) for protist reads. For protists - to increase accuracy - the initial step involved extracting the V4 region from mTAGs and aligning the reads against a specifically curated in-house eukaryotic V4 database (Obiol, 2020). This database was implemented to enhance the precision of protistan mTAGs' classifications (Obiol et al., 2020). SeqKit [v0.16.0] was used to extract sequences, and the eukaryotic mTAGs were then aligned against the PR2 database using USEARCH [v.9.2.64] (Edgar, 2010) (id = 0.97, mincols = 105, strand = both, top_hits_only, -maxaccepts = 0, maxrejects = 0).

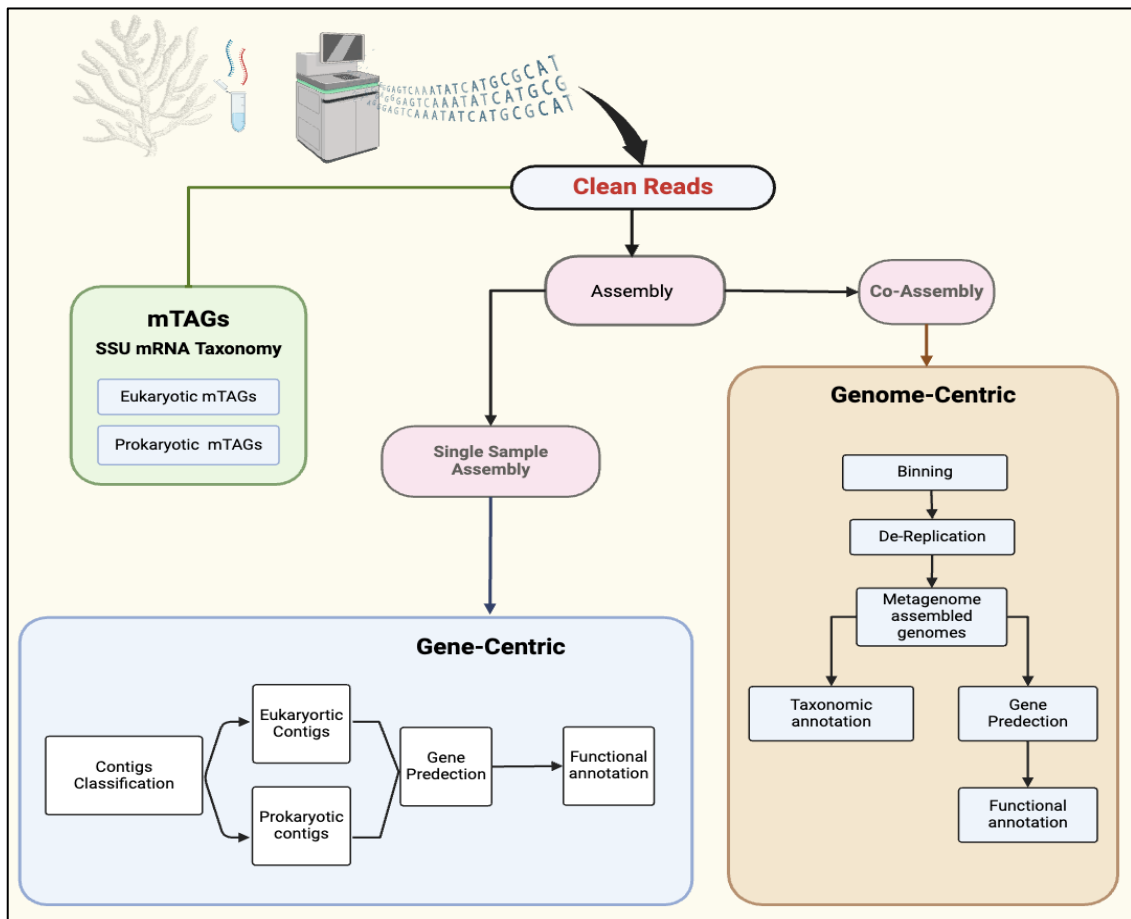


Figure 7: The main pathways of metagenomic reads processing

2.2.2. Assembly, gene catalog construction, and annotation

The single sample assemblies of the clean metagenomic reads were performed using MEGAHIT [v1.2.8], a fast de novo assembler for large and complex metagenomics data sets (D. Li et al., 2015a), using a *meta-large* preset. Prokaryotic and eukaryotic contigs were identified and separated with EukRep [v0.6.5] (West et al., 2018), using a minimum contig size of 2000 bp. Eukaryotic exons (hereafter, “genes”) were predicted on eukaryotic contigs with MetaEuk [v1-ea903e5] (Levy Karin et al., 2020), using the following parameters: metaeuk-val= 0.0001, metaeuk-tcov= 0.6, maximal E-Value= 100, min-length= 40, min-exon-aa= 20. In turn, prokaryotic Open Reading Frames (ORFs; hereafter “genes”) were predicted on prokaryotic contigs with MetaGeneMark [v3.38] (Zhu et al., 2010) and Prodigal [v2.6.3] (Hyatt et al., 2010). MetaGeneMark predicted both partial and complete genes, while Prodigal predicted only complete genes. Only genes ≥ 250 bp were included in the downstream analyses. Prokaryotic and eukaryotic genes from the different samples were pooled separately, and redundancy was removed by clustering them at 95% identity and 80% alignment coverage of the shorter fragment using 'linclust' (Steinegger & Söding, 2017a), from MMseqs2 [v.9-d36de] (Steinegger & Söding, 2017b).

The taxonomic annotation of prokaryotic genes was performed with the taxonomy module from MMseqs2 using the Genome Taxonomy DataBase (GTDB) [v89] (Parks et al., 2020). The eukaryotic genes were taxonomically classified with the ‘taxonomy’ module from MMseqs2 [v11-e1a1c] using EukProt [v2], a database of genome-scale predicted proteins from various eukaryotes, including Cnidaria (Richter et al., 2022). Predicted genes were functionally annotated using Diamond [v0.9.22] (Buchfink et al., 2015), with a maximum expected value of 0.1, against the KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes) database [v2019-02-11] (Kanehisa, 2019). Then, KEGG gene hits were linked to KEGG KOs with an in-house script. This linked the KEGG gene hits with their KEGG KO numbers using the file ‘ko_genes-sorted-by-gene.list’ located in the KEGG public database path in the cluster MARBITS.

Metagenome reads were back-mapped to the catalogues using the BWA aligner [v0.7.17] (H. Li & Durbin, 2009) , unmapped reads were discarded and we considered a mapping quality threshold of 10. The number of aligned counts per gene was obtained using HTSeq [v0.13.5](Anders et al., 2015) (max-reads-in-buffer= 10^{11} , stranded = no, nonunique = all). Read counts per gene were normalized by gene length and the geometric mean abundance of 10 selected single-copy genes in each sample for prokaryotes (Salazar et al., 2019) or metagenome size in gigabases for microbial eukaryotes. Normalized gene abundance tables were generated, including the abundance of each gene in each sample. The corresponding functional abundance tables were generated by adding all normalized abundances of all genes annotated to a specific KEGG function. In addition, Diting [v0.9], (Xue et al., 2021), was used to investigate the relative abundance of metabolic and biogeochemical functional pathways in the prokaryotic community.

2.2.3. Metagenome Assembled Genomes (MAGs) construction and annotation

Metagenomes were co-assembled using MEGAHIT [v1.2.8] (D. Li et al., 2015b). Then, clean reads were mapped against the co-assembled contigs using BWA [v0.7.17] (H. Li & Durbin, 2009) to obtain contig abundance. Co-assemblies were binned using three binning programs: MetaBAT [v2.12.1] [55] (minContig = 2500), MaxBin [v2.2.5] (Y.-W. Wu et al., 2014) (min_contig_lenght = 2500, max_iteration = 50, prob_threshold = 0.9), and CONCOCT [v0.4.2] (Alneberg et al., 2013) (Length_threshold = 2500, clusters = 400) considering contigs with >2500 bp length. The three pools of bins were co-refined using Metawrap [v1.3-4bf5f8a], (Uritskiy et al., 2018), considering genome completeness of >50% and contamination of <10%. Furthermore, COMEBin [v1.0.4] (Wang et al., 2024), was used as an additional binner algorithm with the default parameters. The constructed bins were dereplicated to select the best representative genomes, hereafter MAGs, using dRep [v2.3.2] (Olm et al., 2017), with specific parameters: an Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) threshold of 90% for the creation of primary clusters utilizing MASH and an ANI threshold of 99% for the formation of secondary clusters.

The quality of the constructed MAGs was assessed using both CheckM and CheckM2. CheckM (Parks et al., 2015) is a bioinformatics tool for assessing the quality of genomes recovered from isolates, single cells, or metagenomes. It provides robust estimates of genome completeness and contamination by using collocated sets of genes that are ubiquitous and single-copy within a phylogenetic lineage. In contrast, CheckM2 (Chklovski et al., 2024) is a bioinformatics tool that assesses bin quality using machine learning. It employs two distinct machine-learning models to predict genome completeness. The 'general' gradient boost model demonstrates a commendable ability to generalize and is specifically designed for application on organisms that are not adequately represented in GenBank or RefSeq. On the other hand, the 'specific' neural network model exhibits greater accuracy in predicting completeness for organisms that are closely related to the reference training set. CheckM2 utilizes a cosine similarity calculation to automatically determine the most suitable completeness model for each input genome. CoverM (Woodcroft et al., n.d.) was used to calculate the relative abundance of the MAGs by backmapping reads.

CompareM was used to compare the differences between genomes. The taxonomic classification of MAGs was performed using GTDB-Tk [v1.5] (Chaumeil et al., 2020). Prokka [v1.14.6] (Seemann, 2014), was used for the functional annotation of MAGs. EnrichM [v0.5.0] (Joel A Boyd, 2019) (DB = enrichm_database_v10, cutoff = 0.5), was used to identify and quantify enriched genes and pathways in metagenomic samples. Also, to investigate the KEGG functional modules' completion in MAGs. In addition, METABOLIC, a program that predicts metabolic and biogeochemical functional features from multiple genomic datasets, was used to reconstruct metabolic pathways and generate detailed diagrams of biogeochemical cycle pathways (including nitrogen, carbon, sulfur, and other elements). This allowed for a thorough analysis of the metabolic capabilities and environmental interactions of the microbial communities under study. Bioinformatics analyses were performed at the Marine Bioinformatics Service

(MARBITS; <https://marbits.icm.csic.es>) of the Institute of Marine Sciences (ICM-CSIC) in Barcelona.

2.3. *Statistical analysis*

All analyses and visualizations were conducted using the statistical computing environment 'R' (4.3.1). The data and tables were processed using 'Tidyverse' (Wickham et al., 2019). We calculated the average abundance of data tables (mTAGs) to obtain a representative measure of the microbial taxa present. We applied a 0.05 percentile threshold (P5) to focus on the most significant data, filtering out the lowest 5% of values. This threshold was chosen to exclude the least abundant and potentially less relevant taxa, thereby reducing noise and improving the clarity of subsequent analyses. After filtering, the mTAGs data were normalized to standardize the dataset, ensuring that variations due to differences in sequencing depth or sample size were minimized. This normalization step helped enhance the comparability of the data, allowing us to identify and analyze the most relevant and abundant taxa more accurately. The normalization process included calculating the sum of the counts of all filtered mTAGs across the samples. Subsequently, the counts of mTAGs were divided by the corresponding sum of all counts to obtain normalized data for further analysis. Relative abundance was calculated using the function 'make_relative' from the package 'Funrar' (Grenié et al., 2017). Moreover, Niche breadth was applied to assess the microbial niche breadth using the 'MicroNiche' package (Finn et al., 2020). Niche breadth is a concept in ecology that describes the range of ecological or environmental conditions that a species can tolerate or exploit. More specifically, niche breadth refers to the range of resources that a species can use, such as food sources, habitats, or environmental conditions, and how specialized or generalized a species is in its resource use. Species with a narrow niche breadth are specialized and can only survive under specific ecological or environmental conditions, while species with a broad niche breadth are generalists and can tolerate a wider range of conditions (Finn et al., 2020).

Ecological statistical analyses were performed using the R packages 'Vegan' (Oksanen et al., 2022), and 'Ecodist' (Goslee & Urban, 2007). The Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index was employed to quantify differences between samples based on their gene composition, mTAGs (metatranscriptomic assigned genes), and functional gene profiles. This index measures the compositional dissimilarity between samples by considering the presence and abundance of various features. Using the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix, we performed principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) to visualize the relationships and differences among the samples in a reduced-dimensional space. PCoA helps identify patterns and clustering of samples based on their genetic and functional characteristics. To statistically test for significant differences in the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix between sample categories (e.g., different depths or environmental conditions), we conducted permutational multivariate analyses of variance (PERMANOVAs) with 999 permutations. PERMANOVA is a robust method that assesses whether the observed dissimilarities between groups are greater than would be expected by chance, providing a p-value to indicate the significance of the differences. By using 999 permutations, we ensured a rigorous and reliable assessment of the overall differences between sample categories.

Diversity was estimated using the Shannon index, and community richness was estimated using the Chao1 index. The Shannon index considers both the number of species present and their relative abundance. The Chao1 index estimates the overall number of species found in a specific environment or community. It uses the number of singletons (species represented by a single individual or sequence) and doubletons (species represented by two individuals or sequences) observations to estimate the total number of species in a community. The Chao1 estimator assumes that rare species are more likely to be missed during sampling than abundant species and uses this information to make predictions about the number of species that are not observed. In addition, a t-test and Wilcoxon rank-sum test were used to analyze the statistical differences between the two variable points, and the Kruskal–Wallis (K–W) test was used to test possible statistical differences between the three variable points.

To further examine and visualize the abundance of MAGs, the R package 'metacoder' (Foster et al., 2017) was used to visualize, calculate, and compare differences between time point groups. The Log2 median ratio and Wilcoxon Rank-Sum test were used to assess the significance of these differences, and the Kruskal–Wallis (K–W) test was used to test possible statistical differences between the three thermal conditions. The coefficient of variation (CV), a statistical measure of the relative variability of data points in a dataset, each MAG was used to identify the most varied MAGs based on the highest corresponding CV values. It calculates the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean and allows for the comparison of variability between datasets. The low CV suggests low variability relative to the mean and the high CV suggests high variability relative to the mean

To determine the functional genes (KO's) that contributed most to the dissimilarity of the different microbiomes in both investigations, similarity percentage analysis (SIMPER) and differential abundance analysis were performed on KEGG abundances. SIMPER assesses the most differentiating KO's among groups of samples based on a ranked dissimilarity matrix, calculated, in this case, using the Bray-Curtis index. The enrichment of KEGG pathways and modules of the identified KO's based on SIMPER were analyzed using the R package 'clusterProfiler' (G. Yu et al., 2012). The differential abundance analysis for the identified KEGG genes was conducted using the 'lmFit' and 'eBayes' functions from the 'limma' package (Ritchie et al., 2015). This analysis involves comparing the abundance of features, such as genes, across different sample groups to identify significant differences. The 'lmFit' was applied to fit a linear model to the gene abundance data, incorporating potential covariates or experimental factors. Subsequently, the 'eBayes' function was utilized to compute moderated statistics, facilitating the identification of differentially abundant genes across different sample groups or conditions. Lastly, all results were visualized using 'ggplot2' (Wickham, 2016) and 'circlize' (Gu et al., 2014).



3. RESULTS

3.1. *Gorgonian Eunicella singularis* Microbiome analysis

The Gorgonian corals of the Mediterranean sublittoral ecosystems play a vital role in maintaining ecological balance, with disturbances potentially affecting the entire benthic ecosystem (Ezzat et al., 2013). Their presence facilitates numerous biochemical interactions and influences a diverse array of organisms across various water depths, ranging from continental shelves to deep-sea environments (van de Water et al., 2017). Among these corals, *Eunicella singularis*, also known as sea whip, is an octocoral photophilic species. It typically inhabits horizontal or sub-horizontal substrates and is found within a depth range of 10–70 m across the Western Mediterranean, Adriatic, and Aegean seas (Ghanem et al., 2018; Gori et al., 2011). Notably, *E. singularis* is unique as the sole Mediterranean gorgonian specimen known to harbor symbiotic *Symbiodinium* dinoflagellates. This symbiotic relationship supplies coral with energy through photosynthesis-driven metabolites and aids in the absorption of dissolved nutrients, enabling coral growth in shallow nutrient-poor environments (Pernice & Levy, 2014). In return, coral provides *Symbiodinium* with phosphorus, inorganic nitrogen, inorganic carbon, and habitat (Asgari, 2014).

Shallow colonies (approximately 10m in depth) of *E. singularis* can establish a symbiotic relationship with *Symbiodinium*, which contributes to the coral's energy demand (Gori, Viladrich, et al., 2012) and fulfills respiratory requirements through symbiont photosynthesis (Ezzat et al., 2013; Schubert et al., 2016). However, with increasing depth, the population density of *Symbiodinium* decreases, along with reduced chlorophyll levels (Forcioli et al., 2011), and it is completely absent in mesophotic colonies (Gori, Bramanti, et al., 2012). This disparity in *Symbiodinium* abundance highlights the importance of autotrophic processes in meeting the energy needs of shallow colonies, thereby significantly contributing to their ecological success by maximizing nutrient acquisition (Schubert et al., 2016). In contrast, in deeper areas, *E. Singularis* relies more on heterotrophy than autotrophy to meet its energy demands (Schubert et al., 2016).

While *Symbiodinium* dinoflagellates play a crucial role in coral symbiosis, other members of the microbiome, particularly coral-associated prokaryotes, also contribute significantly to coral health and fitness (Bordenstein & Theis, 2015). The coral associated bacteria are distinct from those in surrounding seawater (Bayer, Neave, et al., 2013; Bourne & Munn, 2005; van de Water, Allemand, et al., 2018). Investigations of different coral species have highlighted species-specific core bacteria (*i.e.*, bacteria that tend to be present in the microbiome of all coral colonies). Indeed, *Eunicella* spp. have shown signs of phyllosymbiosis with Sphingomonadales (Keller-Costa et al., 2016) and Poribacteria (Keller-Costa et al., 2021). However, it is assumed that environmental gradients in water conditions, such as light, nutrient concentrations, and temperature, exert a notable influence on coral microbial communities (Keller-Costa et al., 2017, 2021). Numerous investigations have examined the impact of these stressors on the microbiome of *Eunicella*. For instance, a survey conducted using metabarcoding targeting the 16s rRNA gene on *Eunicella singularis* at a depth of approximately 35 m revealed that the core microbiome is primarily composed of the bacterium *Endozoicomonas*. The microbiome also contains diverse bacterial populations, including Burkholderiales, Mycoplasmatales, Spirochaetales, and Vibrionales (van de Water et al., 2017). Bayer *et al.* (Bayer, Arif, et al., 2013) delved into the microbiome of *Eunicella cavolini* at 24, 30, and 41m depth. They consistently observed the dominance of *Endozoicomonas* across all depths, accompanied by depth-correlated variations in *Aquimarina* and Myxococcales (Bayer, Arif, et al., 2013).

Another study on *Eunicella verrucosa* investigated the impact of depth within a range of 6–27 m (Ransome et al., 2014). Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) and clone libraries revealed the prevalence of Gammaproteobacteria, particularly within the genus *Endozoicomonas*, across various depths. Significantly, the shallow samples (6–9 m) displayed a bacterial community that was less similar and more diverse than that of the mesophotic samples (Ransome et al., 2014). Rivière *et al.* (La Rivière et al., 2015) investigated the impact of seasonality, specifically summer and winter, on the bacterial community of *E. singularis* using terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (T-RFLP) of the 16S rRNA gene. Despite finding no significant disparities in the bacterial

community between summer and winter, the analysis of 165 clones from *E. singularis* revealed a predominance of Gamma-proteobacteria associated with the *Hahellaceae* family within the order Oceanospirillales (La Rivière et al., 2015).

Previous research has proposed that factors such as the physiology and fitness of the coral host are associated with the diversity and metabolic functions of microorganisms. Associated microbes have been proposed to provide many beneficial services to their hosts, such as nitrogen, carbon, sulfur fixation, and antibiotic production (van de Water, Allemand, et al., 2018). However, most octocoral studies have primarily focused on changes in microbiome taxonomic diversity, with limited exploration of how environmental changes affect the metabolic capacity, leaving significant gaps in our knowledge (Keller-Costa et al., 2021, 2022). Keller-Costa et al. (2021) conducted a pioneering study utilizing shotgun metagenome sequencing to explore the taxonomic, functional, and secondary metabolism characteristics of prokaryotic communities in octocorals. Their comparative analysis of healthy, necrotic octocorals, seawater, and sediment metagenomes revealed variations in the microbiome composition across different sampling groups. Specifically, they observed an increase in the abundance of *Flavobacteriaceae* and *Alphaproteobacteria* in the necrotic *E. gazella* microbiome. In turn, healthy corals exhibited a prevalence of eukaryotic-like proteins (ELPs), suggesting mechanisms for host-symbiont recognition and stable partnerships within octocorals. ELPs are believed to facilitate communication and mutualistic interactions between the coral host and its symbiotic organisms. For example, symbiotic microbes harbor ELPs to interact with the coral host and establish symbiosis without eliciting the host's immune response. By recognizing specific molecular signatures on these symbionts, ELPs enable corals to differentiate between beneficial and potentially harmful organisms (Pushpakumara et al., 2023). Conversely, the necrotic microbial community showed an increase in pathogenic features such as nitric oxide reductase and type VI secretion system genes, facilitating host invasion, virulence, and immune system attack.

3.1.1. Metagenomes and gene composition

In total, 430.6 Gb of sequencing data were obtained for the 10 *Eunicella Singularis* metagenomes (approximately 3×10^8 short reads per sample). The single-sample assemblies generated ca. 17.6×10^6 contigs for all samples. We identified 12.3×10^6 eukaryotic (70%) and 5.2×10^6 prokaryotic contigs (30%). The number of eukaryotes and prokaryotic contigs was higher in the shallow samples. However, the average eukaryotic contig size in shallow samples was larger than that in mesophotic samples. In contrast, the mesophotic samples' average prokaryotic contig size was larger than that in the shallow samples (Supplementary Figure 1; Supplementary Table 1).

After removing the predicted genes assigned to Anthozoa, the Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) of the eukaryotic genes ($n = 266741$) indicated a significant impact of depth on gene composition (Figure 8A) (PERMANOVA, $R^2 = 0.6$, $p = 0.007$). The shallow samples had a higher mean gene diversity (Shannon index = 12.0; SD = 0.03) than the mesophotic samples (10.7; SD = 0.04) [t -test p -value = 9.66×10^{-11}] (Figure 8B). In addition, the shallow samples showed a higher mean Chao1 richness (196679, SD = 2059) than the mesophotic samples (82850, SD = 1894) [t -test p -value = 2.81×10^{-13}] (Figure 8C). Depth also influenced the prokaryotic gene composition (PERMANOVA, $R^2 = 0.63$, $p = 0.009$) (Figure 8A). The shallow samples had a higher average prokaryotic gene diversity (Shannon index, 13.0; SD = 0.03) than the mesophotic samples (12.3; SD = 0.04) [t -test p -value = 6.29×10^{-6}] (Figure 8B). The shallow samples had a higher average Chao1 gene richness (545776.8, SD = 10554) compared to the mesophotic samples (332615.6, SD = 7042) [t -test p -value = 2.6×10^{-9}] (Figure 8C).

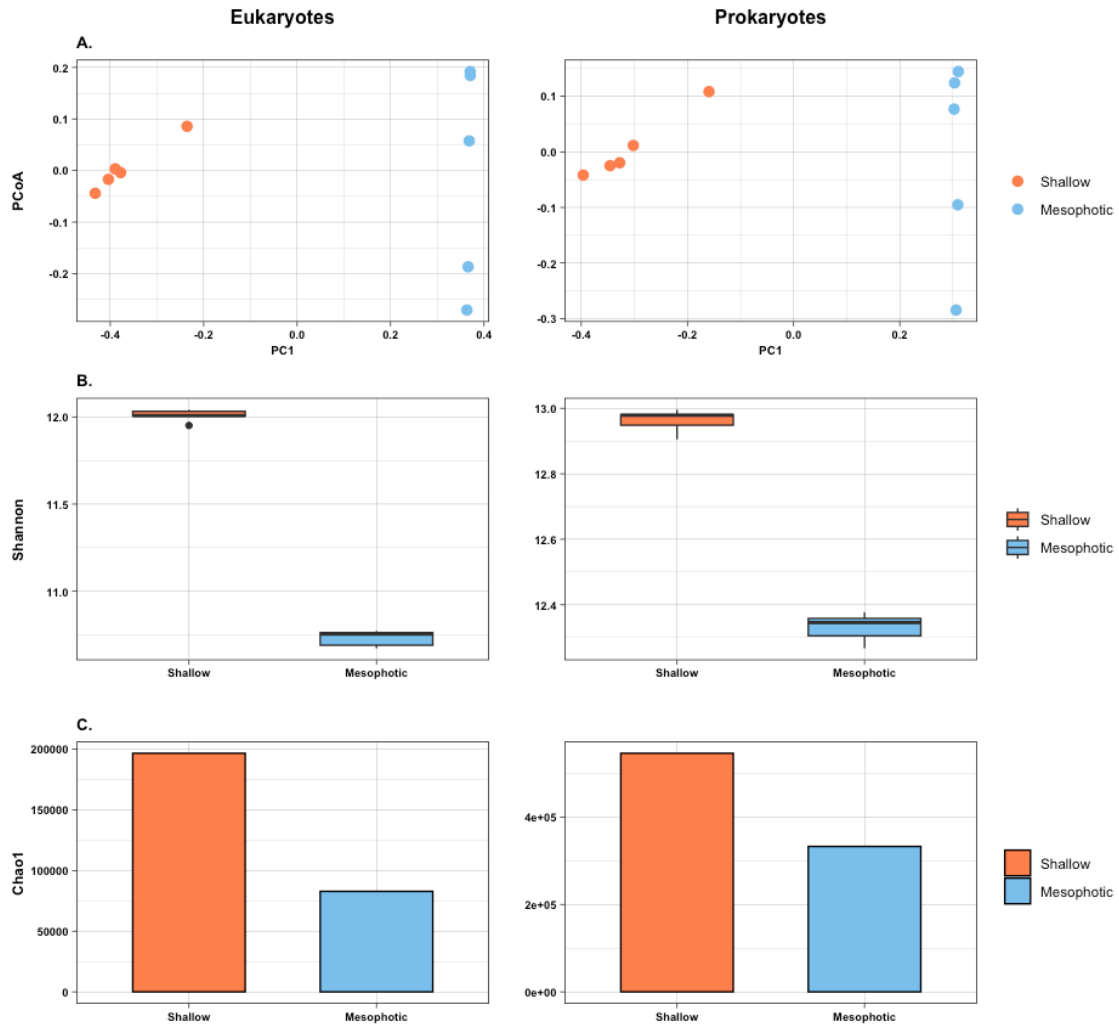


Figure 8. Effects of depth on the gene composition of the *Eunicella singularis* microbiome. **A.** PCoA ordination based on Bray-Curtis of eukaryotic and prokaryotic gene compositions. **B.** Box plot showing eukaryotic and prokaryotic gene diversity (Shannon index). **C.** Eukaryotic and prokaryotic gene richness estimates (Chao1).

3.1.2. Taxonomic composition of the coral microbiome

The mTAG analysis (rRNA SSU metagenomic fragments) yielded 1,924,784 mTAGs. These reads consisted of 27% Opisthokonta (mostly coral), 15% prokaryotes, 2% alveolates, and 1% other microeukaryotes, with the remaining 38% being unaligned or unassigned mTAGs. We excluded mTAGs identified as Cnidarian, unaligned, or unassigned from the downstream analysis. The PCoA results indicated clusters of

samples corresponding to the two depths, indicating clear differences in coral microbiome composition between the shallow and mesophotic samples (PERMANOVA, $R^2 = 0.57$, $p = 0.008$) (Figure 9A). The shallow samples had higher microbial mTAGs richness and diversity (Chao1 $\mu = 162$; Shannon $\mu = 4.72$) than the mesophotic samples (Chao1 $\mu = 94$; Shannon $\mu = 4.18$) [Chao1 $p = 0.0007$; Shannon $p = 0.005$] (Figure 9B, C).

The curated taxonomic annotation revealed that the gorgonian microbiomes were composed of six main microbial phyla, including one eukaryotic (Dinoflagellata) and five prokaryotic phyla. Among the microbial eukaryotes, 33,279 mTAGs were taxonomically identified, as Dinoflagellates comprising $\sim 99\%$ of eukaryotic mTAGs. Among the dinoflagellates, the dominant genus was *Symbiodinium*. Moreover, the prokaryotic community was comprised of four bacterial classes: Alphaproteobacteria, Gammaproteobacteria, Bacilli, and Bacteroidia. Among the bacteria, the prevailing genus at both depths was *Endozoicomonas*, encompassing approximately 97% of the overall prokaryotic mTAGs, followed by the genus *Bermanella*, constituting approximately 2% of the sequences. Notably, although most prokaryotic communities were dominated by these two genera, approximately 1% of the bacterial mTAGs belonged to additional taxonomic groups. They encompassed the BD1-7 clade, *Sphingomonas*, *Mycoplasma*, *Thalassolituus*, *Halioglobus*, *Spiroplasma*, and *Aquimarina* (Figure 10A, Supplementary Table 2).

Furthermore, we analyzed the niche breadth of these microbial taxa across shallow vs. mesophotic samples using Levins' approach (Finn et al., 2020). Taxa distributed across habitats at both depths were identified as generalists (Levins. $B_n > 0.9$, $p\text{-value} \geq 0.05$), whereas taxa that were not evenly distributed across depths were identified as specialists (Levins. $B_n < 0.5$, $p\text{-value} < 0.05$). *Symbiodinium* and *Spiroplasma* were classified as shallow-water specialists, whereas BD1-7, *Thalassolituus*, and *Aquimarina* were identified as mesophotic specialists. The genera *Endozoicomonas*, *Bermanella*, *Halioglobus*, *Mycoplasma*, and *Sphingomonas* were identified as depth

generalists, indicating that they were distributed across both depths (Figure 10B; Supplementary Table 3).

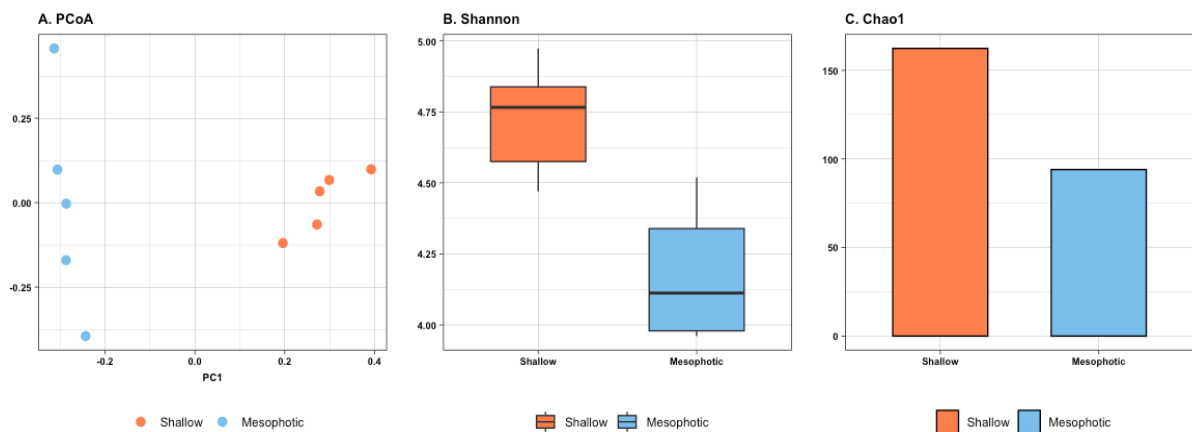


Figure 9. Microbial community composition based on mTAGs. A. PCoA ordination based on based on Bray Curtis distance. B. Community diversity of Shallow and Mesophotic communities C. Richness of Shallow and Mesophotic communities.

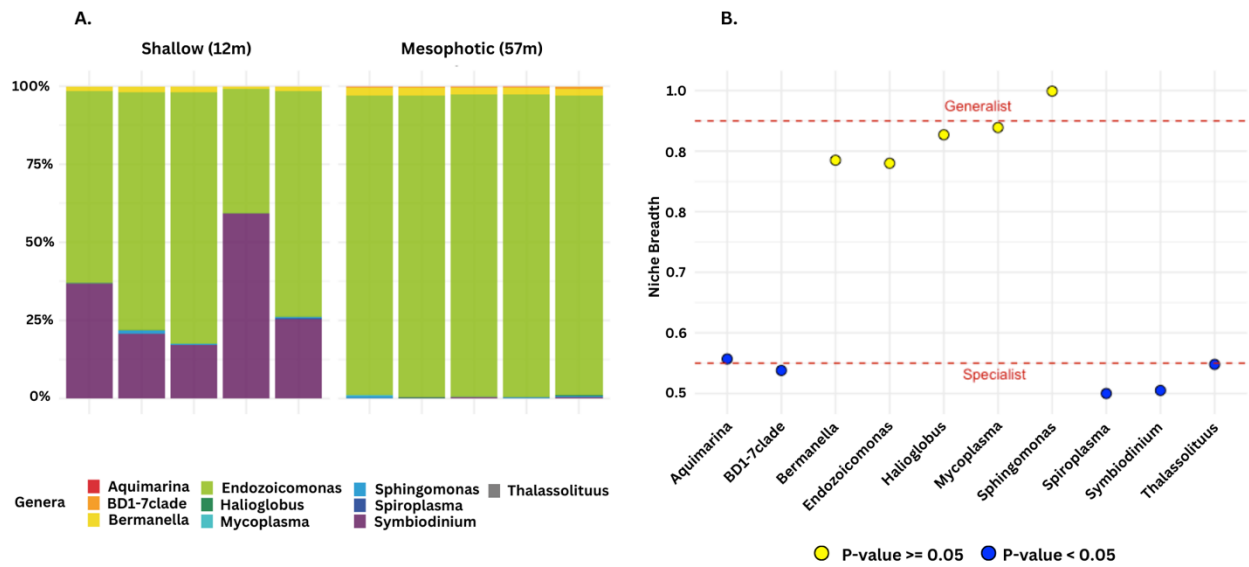


Figure 10. Taxonomic composition of *E. singularis* based on mTAGs. A. Relative abundance of the most abundant genera in shallow vs. mesophotic samples. B. Computed niche Breadth of the most abundant microbial genera.

3.1.3. Microbiome functional gene structure

Functional annotation of *Symbiodinium* resulted in 1,003 KEGG orthologs (KO's) (hereafter KEGG). *Symbiodinium* functional genes were absent from the mesophotic samples in accordance with the results of the taxonomic analysis. We identified 53 potential metabolic pathways, most of which were found to be shared with the prokaryotic community except for these three pathways: photosynthesis (ko00195), carbon fixation in photosynthetic organisms (ko00710), and nitrogen metabolism (ko00910) (Supplementary Table 4).

The functional annotation of prokaryotic genes against KEGG resulted in 3,129 KEGG after removing the low-abundance ones. Overall, there was no significant difference in the prokaryotic KEGG composition between depths (PERMANOVA, $p = 0.19$; Chao1 t-test $p = 0.54$; Shannon's t-test $p = 0.07$). We further investigated the enrichment of the KEGG pathways and modules. We identified 91 metabolic pathways in the prokaryotic community, 82 of which were shared across depths. In addition, the prokaryotic community in mesophotic samples showed a higher abundance of KEGGs related mainly to KEGG pathways in four metabolic categories: carbohydrates, energy, amino acids, and cofactors and vitamin metabolism (Supplementary Figure 2). Some of the pathways that were found to have a higher abundance ($p_{\text{adj}} < 0.05$) in mesophotic samples were central metabolism (Glycolysis, Gluconeogenesis), oxidative phosphorylation (NADH-quinone oxidoreductase, cytochrome c oxidase (cbb3-type), and other prokaryotic cytochrome c oxidase), and the secretion system (Type III Secretion, Type II Secretion, Sec-SRP, and Twin arginine targeting) (Figure 11; Supplementary Table 5).

Three KEGG pathways were found only in shallow samples, including photosynthesis (ko00195, ko00196) and phosphonate and phosphinate metabolism (ko00440) ($q\text{-value} < 0.05$) (Supplementary Table 4). Furthermore, six pathways were limited to the mesophotic prokaryotic community: steroid degradation (ko00984), pentose and glucuronate interconversion (ko00040), methane metabolism (ko00680),

pinene, camphor, and geraniol degradation (ko00907), C5-Branched dibasic acid metabolism (ko00660), and glycerophospholipid metabolism (ko00564) (q-value < 0.05) (Supplementary Table 4).

We identified 49 KEGG modules - functional units within a metabolic pathway that execute specific biological functions (Kanehisa, 2000) - in the prokaryotic community, 44 of which were shared across different depths. However, four KEGG modules were enriched in shallow samples (q-value < 0.05). These modules include phylloquinone biosynthesis (M00932), NAD(P)H: quinone oxidoreductase (M00145), glycogen degradation - glycogen to glucose-6P (M00855), and lysine degradation - L-lysine to glutarate to succinate/acetyl-CoA (M00857). In contrast, only one module showed higher enrichment in mesophotic samples: catechol meta-cleavage (M00569).

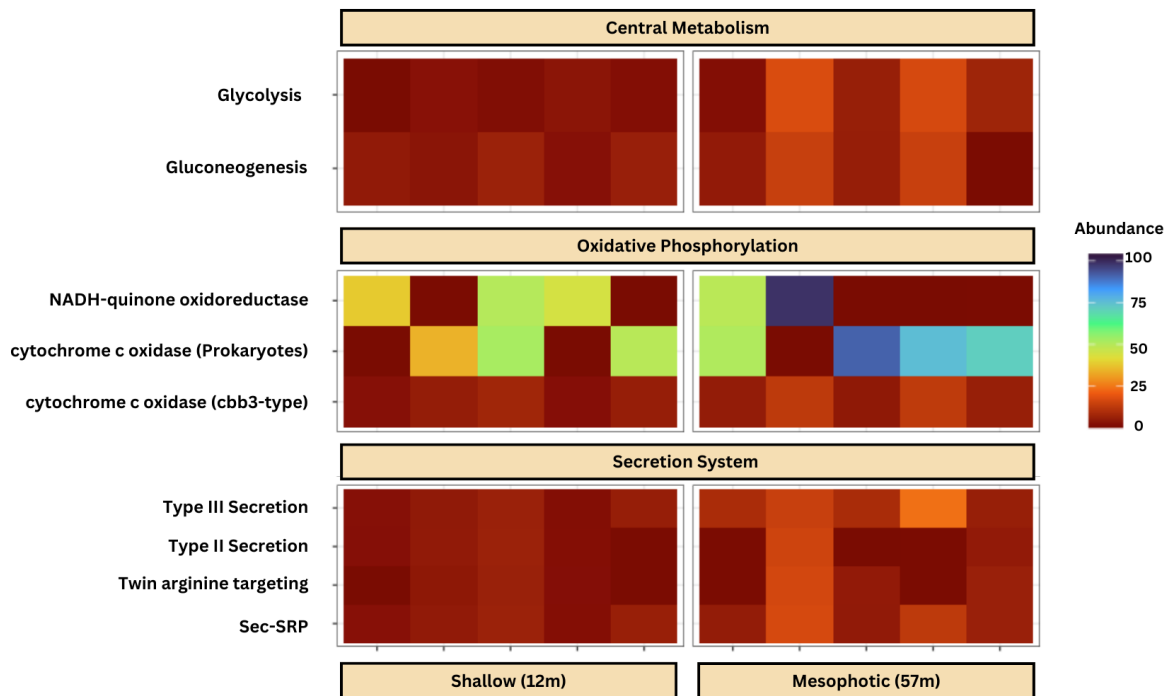


Figure 11. The relative abundances of some metabolic pathways varied with depth in the prokaryotic community.

We further aimed to identify potential metabolic pathways that were common but variable between prokaryotes and Symbiodinium. A total of 1,132 KOs were present in both Symbiodinium and prokaryotes. Among these KOs, 10 exhibited a noticeable

abundance and varied significantly between the two depths (adj. P-value < 0.01). Some of these KOs were relatively more abundant in shallow samples and related to amino acid metabolism (K00558, K17398), carbohydrate and carbon metabolism (glycolysis/gluconeogenesis K01007, starch and sucrose metabolism K01179, carbon fixation K01601(*rbcL,ccbL*)), and photosynthesis (K02689 and K02705). Conversely, the mesophotic community showed higher relative abundances of K00232 (lipid metabolism), K00681 (amino acid metabolism), and K08678 (carbohydrate metabolism) (Figure. 12A, Supplementary Table 6).

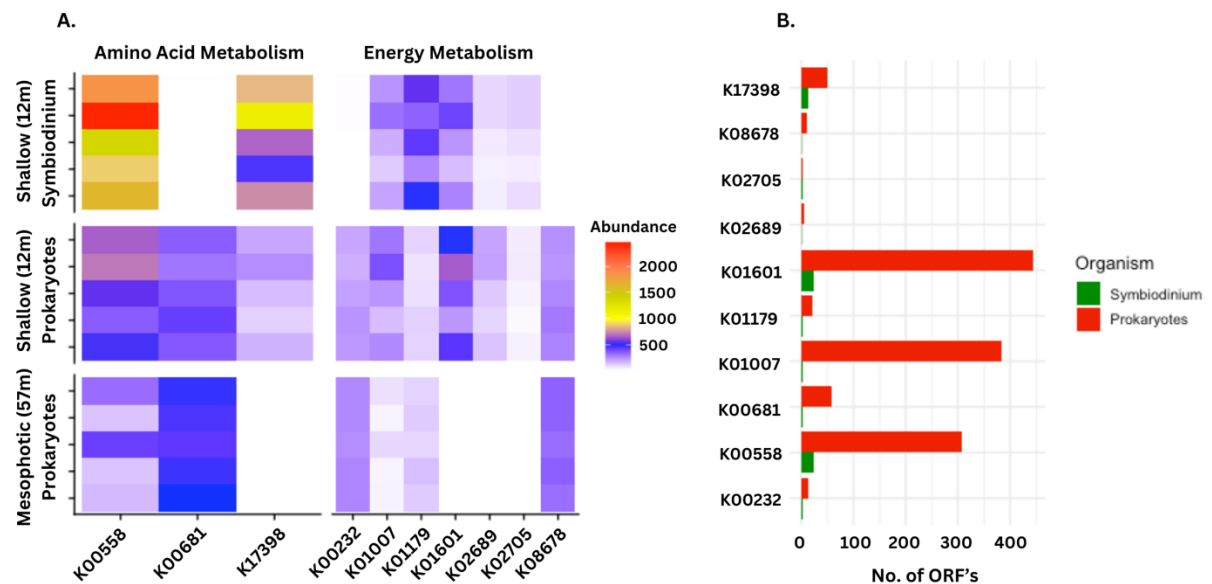


Figure 12. Relative abundance of KOs found in both *Symbiodinium* and prokaryotic communities of *Eunicella Singularis* across depths (A). The number of genes (ORFs) annotated for each KO in *Symbiodinium* and prokaryotic communities (B).

In addition, we searched for open reading frames (ORFs) related to each of these functions. Interestingly, *Symbiodinium* showed a high number of genes annotated as DNA (cytosine-5)-methyltransferase 1 (K00558), DNA (cytosine-5)-methyltransferase 3A (K17398), and ribulose-bisphosphate carboxylase large chain (K01601) (Figure 12B). Finally, we compared the pathways shared between *Symbiodinium* and the associated prokaryotic community and found 52 shared pathways. The photosynthetic pathway (ko00195) was only found in shallow samples, indicating the absence of photosynthetic activity in the mesophotic community, as expected. In contrast, the mesophotic

prokaryotic community metabolic pathways showed higher KOs diversity for the metabolism of cofactors and amino acids pathways (Supplementary Figure 3).

3.1.4. Metagenome Assembled Genomes (MAGs) analysis

We recovered 15 de-replicated prokaryotic MAGs (99% similarity) with completeness values ranging between 66.28% and 99.65% (mean ~ 83%) (Supplementary Table 7). The other 15 MAGs belonged to six bacterial classes: Cyanobacteria, GCA-001730085, Spirochaetia, Gammaproteobacteria, Alphaproteobacteria, and Bacilli. As expected, one MAG belonging to Endozoicomondaceae (MAG.25993) was dominant at all depths with more abundance in mesophotic. Interestingly, one *Endozoicomonas* MAG (MAG.17) that we retrieved had a low abundance, which did not differ between depths and thus probably did not correspond to the dominant *Endozoicomonas* identified by mTAGs. The comparison between the two MAGs, 17 and 25993, showed a significant degree of genetic similarity, with 556 orthologous genes and an orthologous fraction of 28.53%. The mean amino acid identity of 55.43 and a standard deviation of 13.35 indicate a moderate similarity between the protein-coding genes of these two genomes, albeit with some variability. This suggests that these genomes may belong to closely related taxa or have a shared evolutionary history. The other MAGs did not show statistical differences between the depths in mapped reads abundance (Reads Per Kilobase per Million mapped reads; RPKM) ($p < 0.05$), except for MAG.12, Pseudomonadales (genus DT-91), which showed higher abundance in mesophotic samples despite its low read abundance (Figure 13). Unfortunately, the 16S rRNA genes were not retrieved for most of the MAGs, hindering our ability to accurately link the most abundant MAG, identified as Endozoicomonadaceae, with the mTAGs results. This absence of 16S rRNA sequences prevented essential robust phylogenetic analysis needed to confirm the taxonomic identities and associations between MAGs and mTAGs.

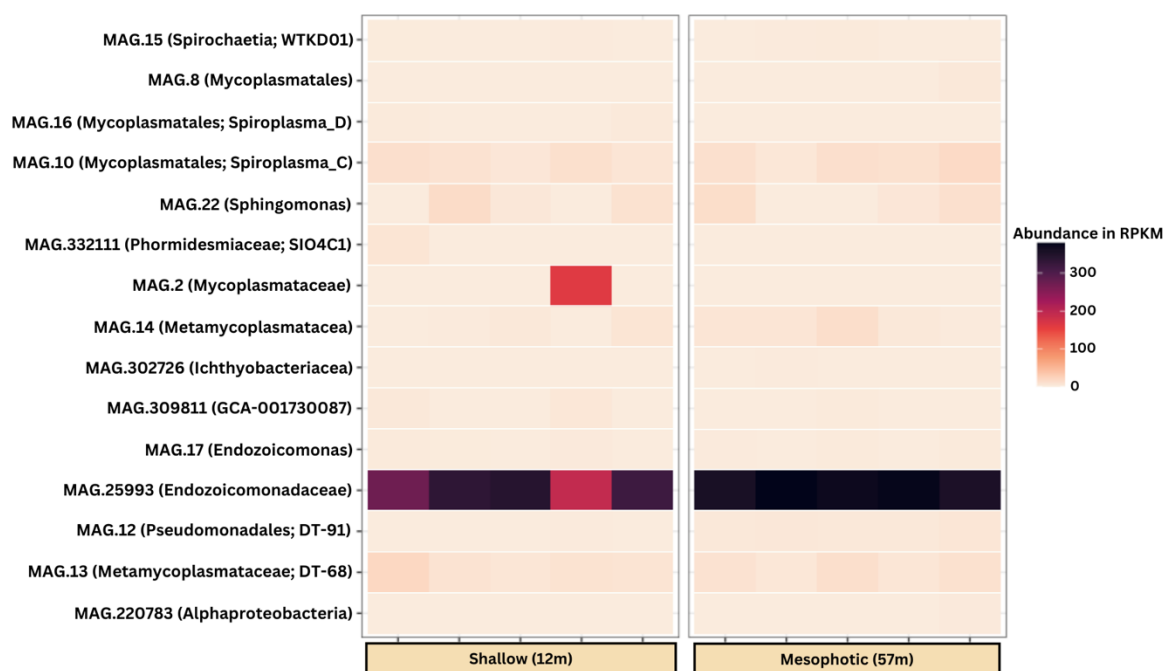


Figure 13. Abundance (in reads per kilobase per million mapped reads; RPKM) of 15 MAGs reconstructed from *E. singularis*.

We further explored the potential contribution of MAGs to previously identified metabolic functions of the microbiome. While most MAGs encoded proteins involved in central metabolism (Glycolysis, Gluconeogenesis), few MAGs encoded genes related to oxidative phosphorylation. For example, NADH-quinone oxidoreductase was found only in MAG.22 (*Sphingomonas*). In addition, the cytochrome cbb3-type was found in MAG.22 (*Sphingomonas*), MAG. 17, and 25993 (*Endozoicomonadaceae*) only.

Cofactor and vitamin metabolism, such as menaquinone (K₂), pantothenate (B₅), pyridoxal (B₆), biotin (B₇), and cobalamin (B₁₂), were found in only six MAGs: *Phormidesmiaceae* (genus SIO4C1), *Pseudomonadales* (genus DT-91), *Pseudomonadales* (genus *Endozoicomonas*), GCA-001730085, and *Sphingomonadales* (genus *Sphingomonas*). The MAG of the genus DT-91 (Order *Pseudomonadales*) had complete modules of vitamin and cofactor metabolism, such as biosynthesis of B₅, B₆, B₇, and B₁₂. In addition, *Endozoicomonadaceae* MAGs exhibited biosynthesis modules for several

vitamins, such as B₁, B₆, B₇, and K₂. Other MAGs also showed complete modules for vitamin and cofactor metabolism, including B₇ and K₂.

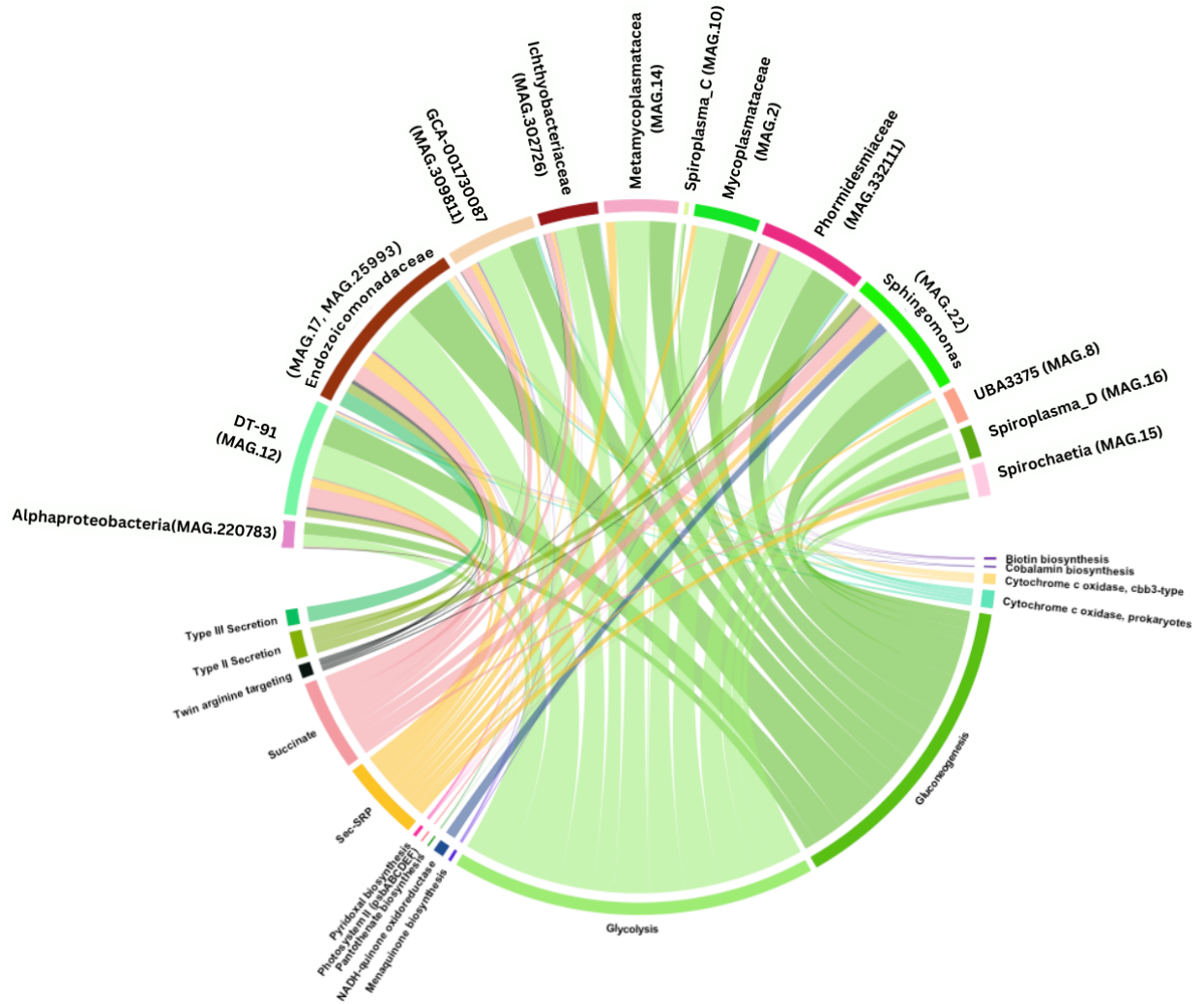


Figure 14. Chord graph for the 15 MAGs illustrating their contribution to metabolic pathways in the *E. singularis* microbiome. It connects each MAG with pathways based on the KEGG KOs encoded in their genomes.

Furthermore, eight MAGs were found to encode secretion system genes. For example, the twin-arginine translocation (Tat) system was found in eight MAGs such as MAG.12 (Pseudomonadales, genus DT-91), MAG 17 and 25993 (Endozoicomonadaceae), MAG.22 (Sphingomonas), MAG.220783 (Alphaproteobacteria), MAG.302726 (Ichthyobacteriaceae), MAG.309811 (GCA-001730086), and MAG.332111

(Phormidesmiaceae). Additionally, the type II secretion system was found in the MAG.12 (Pseudomonadales, genus DT-91), MAG 17 and 25993 (Endozoicomonadaceae), MAG.22 (Sphingomonas). In contrast, the Type III secretion system was only found in MAG 17 and 25993 (Endozoicomonadaceae)(Figure 14; Supplementary Table 8).

3.2. *Scleractinia Desmophyllum pertusum microbiome analysis*

Cold water corals (CWC), also known as deep-sea corals, are frequently found in the submerged topographic structures of submarine canyons where they establish reef formations (Chapron et al., 2018). These ecosystems are vital habitats within the mesophotic zone, supporting diverse species and exhibiting greater biodiversity and biomass than the surrounding seabed (Buhl-Mortensen et al., 2016; Sundahl et al., 2020). Colonial scleractinians or stony corals can construct substantial reef structures (Roberts, 2019). Our species of interest *Desmophyllum pertusum*, an asymbiotic scleractinian coral species (Emblem et al., 2012) previously known as *Lophelia pertusa* (Linnaeus, 1758), is a CWC species that forms reefs and serves as a biodiversity hotspot in the deep ocean (Baussant et al., 2022). It is a globally distributed scleractinian coral that creates critical three-dimensional habitats in the deep ocean (Schleinkofer et al., 2019). Their main depth distribution is mainly 200-1000m (Le Goff-Vitry et al., 2004) at temperatures between 4 and 12 °C (Davies et al., 2008). However, their distribution is influenced by diverse environmental factors, such as dissolved oxygen levels and temperature (Hebbeln et al., 2020). They are typically located on continental margins and are generally present, but not limited to the Northeast Atlantic and southeastern regions of North America (Tong et al., 2022).

D. pertusum is an opportunistic feeder (Mueller et al., 2014) that prefers productive and high-current zones (Davies et al., 2008). In addition, it relies on its microbiome to cycle nutrients, degrade organic carbon, fix nitrogen (Galkiewicz et al., 2011), and reduce some end products of coral anaerobic metabolism (Neulinger et al., 2008). Molecular and culture-based methods have been used to investigate bacterial communities associated with *D. pertusum* (Kellogg et al., 2017; Meistertzheim et al.,

2016; van Bleijswijk et al., 2015). For example, the involvement of the *D. pertusum* microbiome in nitrogen cycling and the transfer of fixed nitrogen and inorganic carbon into coral tissues has been demonstrated using isotope tracers (Middelburg et al., 2015b). In addition to its role in nutrition, the *D. pertusum* microbiome plays a role in enhancing the resilience of corals against pathogens through antibiotic production (Kellogg et al., 2009). Therefore, the stability of this symbiotic relationship is vital, and disturbance of the interaction between corals and their microbiome due to environmental stressors can impact coral health (Peixoto et al., 2017).

In recent years, there has been an increase in the literature on deep-sea corals (Kellogg et al., 2017). This surge in attention can be primarily attributed to growing conservation concerns, as numerous cold-water coral habitats coincide with regions where commercial fishing or oil and gas drilling activities occur (Järnegren et al., 2017). In addition, predictions of future climate scenarios suggest that deep ocean environments will experience a more rapid increase in temperature, approximately 3 °C, by the end of the century (Sweetman et al., 2017) compared to surface waters (Brito-Morales et al., 2020). Unfortunately, these organisms, including *D. pertusum*, are highly susceptible to these stressors because of their low resistance to disturbances, slow recovery rates, and poor resiliency (Matos et al., 2021). For example, ocean acidification has been proposed to increase *D. pertusum* vulnerability and reduce colony development (Vad et al., 2017). Similarly, increased ocean temperatures affect resilience to environmental conditions (Weinnig et al., 2020).

Alterations in environmental conditions, such as increased water temperature, impact the health of cold-water corals (CWC) across multiple fronts. These changes influence various aspects, including shifts in microbiome composition, alterations in organic carbon fluxes, changes in respiration rates, modifications in feeding behavior, and impacts on skeletal biomineralization, potentially rendering CWCs more vulnerable (Chapron et al., 2021; Dodds et al., 2007; Gori et al., 2014; Naumann et al., 2014). However, our understanding of the functions of CWC-associated microbiome and its potential metabolic responses to these environmental stressors remains incomplete and

requires further investigation. Chapron et al. (2021) found that the microbiome of *D. pertusum* exposed to an increased water temperature (15C°) was dominated by bacteria of the order *Rhodobacterales*, which has been proposed as an indicator of thermal stress (Pootakham et al., 2019). Interestingly, some *Rhodobacterales* were able to use methanol as a carbon source through methanol assimilation (Sargeant et al., 2016), suggesting its influence on the carbon cycle.

It has been reported that the presence of chemoautotrophic and nitrogen-fixing microorganisms in the CWC microbiome maintains nitrogen balance and efficiently recycles nitrogen (Middelburg et al., 2015b). However, the specific microbes responsible for nitrogen cycling remain to be identified (Kellogg et al., 2017). This harmony between microbes and their host corals is susceptible to environmental changes. It has been proposed that increased seawater temperature leads to consistent increases in diazotroph abundance and diversity in coral reefs, potentially affecting the nitrogen cycle (Santos et al., 2014). This dysbiosis in the microbiome due to increasing water temperature may affect organic carbon fluxes and the nitrogen cycle. In addition, similar to other corals, the *D. pertusum* microbiome can contain opportunistic pathogenic components (Weinbauer et al., 2019), which have been reported in the cold-water microbiome (Penn et al., 2006). Due to thermal stress, *D. pertusum* modifies its microbiome and loses its species specificity (Thurber et al., 2009). This shift may encourage opportunistic pathogens to transition the microbiome toward the pathobiome (Ezzat et al., 2021; Thurber et al., 2009), which has been recognized to be more prevalent in cold-water corals under stress (Röthig et al., 2017), thereby leading to coral death (Chapron et al., 2021). However, further investigation is needed to fully understand the changes that occur in the microbiome.

3.2.1. Overview of metagenomic samples

The single sample assembly generated 27.88x10⁶ contigs, featuring a total of 15.39x10⁶ eukaryotic and 12.47x10⁶ prokaryotic contigs. The total eukaryotic contig size was ~ 1.37x10⁷ bp, with an N50 value of 2044 bp representing the sequence length of the shortest contig at 50% of the total assembly length. The cumulative length of prokaryotic

contigs reached a substantial $\sim 7.11 \times 10^9$ bp, derived from 12.47×10^6 contigs, with an N50 of 1396 bp (Supplementary Table 9).

Furthermore, we conducted a thorough analysis, focusing specifically on the prokaryotic community, using the prokaryotic gene catalog. Additionally, we analyzed prokaryotic gene composition across different environmental conditions and time points. The prokaryotic gene collection exhibited differences among the three environmental conditions (10°C, 13°C, and 15°C) at each time point (days 1 and 60). Analysis of prokaryotic gene composition revealed discernible profiles associated with each treatment. We identified a significant temporal influence on microbial community gene composition (PERMANOVA, $F = 2.44$, $p = 0.004$) (Supplementary Figure 4). However, the Shannon diversity and Chao1 richness were not statistically significant between the time groups (Shannon t -test p -value = 0.32, Chao1 t -test p -value = 0.28) or thermal treatments (Shannon K-W p -value = 0.17, Chao1 K-W p -value = 0.49).

3.2.2. mTAGs taxonomy and abundance

We investigated the taxonomic variation of the microbiome among time points and treatments using mTAGs. We obtained a total of 5,895,633 mTAGs; the majority were unaligned ($\sim 87\%$), and only $\sim 13\%$ had a taxonomic annotation: eukaryotic ($\sim 9.9\%$), and prokaryotic ($\sim 2.6\%$). The high percentage of unaligned sequences might be due to limitations in the method, such as insufficient mTAG generation, or the incompleteness of the reference database used for alignment. Our interest lies in the prokaryotic community; therefore, we excluded other mTAGs from the rest of the analysis. The prokaryotic mTAGs ($n = 155,370$) showed differences in the taxonomic composition of the microbiome between the two-time points, day 1 and day 60 (PERMANOVA, $F = 4.45$, $p = 0.007$) (Figure 15A). In day 1 samples, the microbiome showed similar taxonomic composition, which could be due to several factors like insufficient time for the microbiome to respond to new conditions, the initial similarity in microbial communities across samples, minimal variation introduced by the experimental conditions, natural stability of the coral microbiome, or technical and sampling

variability. Interestingly, the order Vibrionales was present in all treatment samples at the two-time points; however, on day 60, it was found at a low abundance at 10 °C and increased abundance at 13 and 15 °C. In addition, the microbiomes of the samples after 60 days showed taxonomic variation between the treatments (Figure 15B). Some microbial orders were abundant in the 10 °C samples, including Alteromonadales (~27%), Cellvibrionales (~15%), and Chitinophagales (~12%). However, other microbial orders showed an increase in relative abundance with increasing temperature, especially at 15 °C, such as Rhodobacterales (~35%), Dadabacteriales (~12%), Campylobacterales (~10%), and Rhodospirillales (~8.5%) (Figure 15B; Supplementary Table 10).

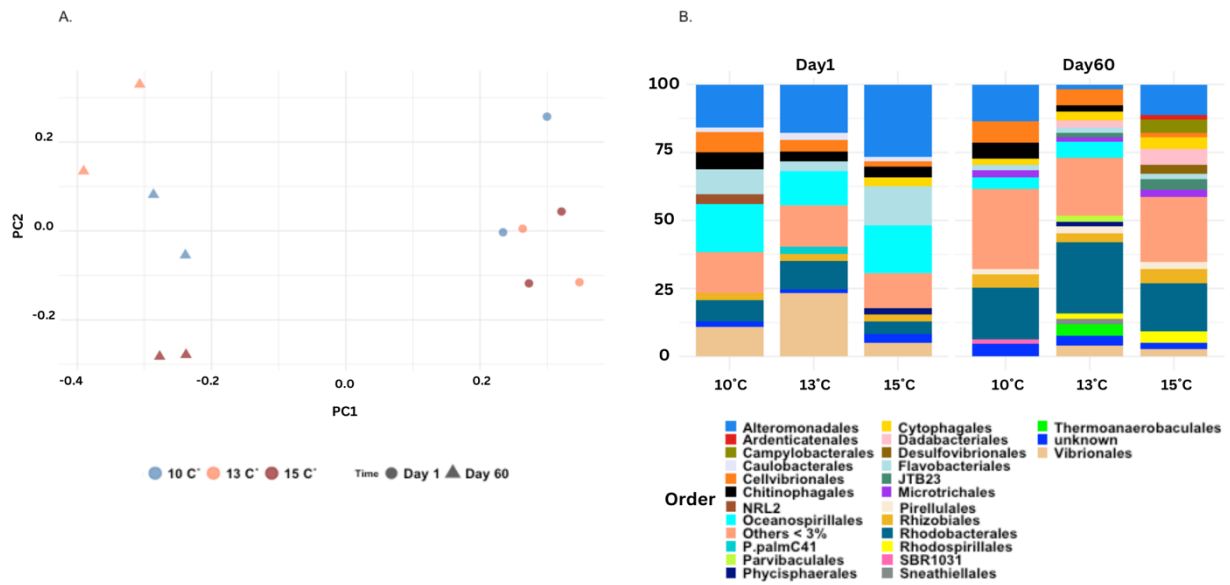


Figure 15: Prokaryotic community composition A. Non-metric multi-dimensional scaling (NMDS) based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities among the prokaryotic mTAGs compositions of *D. pertusum* samples. Two clusters of prokaryotic SSU-rRNA genes (n= 155370) were observed at the start (day 1) and end (day 60) of the experiment at 10°C, 13°C, and 15°C. B. Relative abundance of the mTAGs at the order level showing the variation of the microbiome taxonomic composition between samples between day 1 and day 60 and between the thermal treatments.

3.2.3. MAG taxonomy and abundance

We recovered 281 de-replicated (99% similarity) metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) belonging to 20 phyla. The most abundant phyla were Proteobacteria – Alpha (~37%) and Gamma (~22%), followed by Planctomycetota (~13.5%), and Bacteroidetes (~8.5%). In addition, a few MAGs belonged to the phylum Actinobacteria (2.8%),

whereas the remaining 41 MAGs included Myxococcota (~2.8%), Chloroflexota (~2.1%), Desulfobacterota (~1.8%), and other phyla. More than 42% of the MAGs had genome completeness above 90%, with the highest-quality genome belonging to the order Opitutales (completeness of 100%) (Supplementary Figure 5, Supplementary Table 11). Moreover, the MAGs' abundance (RPKM, Reads Per Kilobase per million total sequences) showed variation between the two temporal groups, revealing significant differences in the abundance distribution of MAGs between days 1 and 60 (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, $p < 0.05$) (Supplementary Figure 6, Supplementary Table 12). We identified 14 MAGs with the most abundance variation over temporal and thermal scales. Some of these MAGs showed higher abundance in day 60 samples, such as some MAGs of the orders Rhodobacteraceae – genus *Mangrovicoccus* (MAG.31), UBA4486 (MAG.45), Cytophagales (MAG.174,137), Pseudomonadales–genus *Porticoccus* (MAG.18,193), and Alteromonadaceae – genus *Glaciecola* (MAG. 256). This variation between the two temporal groups, especially between the control temperature (10C°) on day 1 and the experimental group on day 60, could be related to the acclimation to experimental conditions. Surprisingly, one colony showed an increase of one MAG abundance within its microbiome (MAG.245) belonging to Mycoplasmatales in both temporal groups at 10C° that was not detected in the other colonies (Supplementary Figure 7).

Since we were interested in the impact of prolonged thermal stress on the microbiome, we focused hereafter on the changes in the microbial community on day 60 across the different thermal treatments (10C°, 13C°, 15C°). The MAGs RPKM abundance showed a significant variation between the three thermal conditions (K-W p -value $< 2.2e-16$) (Figure 16A). Six MAGs showed an increased abundance with thermal stress: Rhodobacteraceae – genus *Sedimentalea* (MAG.184) and genus *Mangrovicoccus* (MAG.31,41,73), UBA4486 (MAG.45), and Desulfobacterota_D (MAG.259). In turn, a few MAGs showed decreasing abundance with increasing temperature, such as Pseudomonadales, genus *Porticoccus* (MAG.18,193), Mycoplasmataceae (MAG.245), Alteromonadaceae, genus *Glaciecola* (MAG. 256), Cytophagales (MAG.137,174), Alphaproteobacteria, and (MAG.146) (K-W p -value = $7.03e-11$) (Figure 16B).

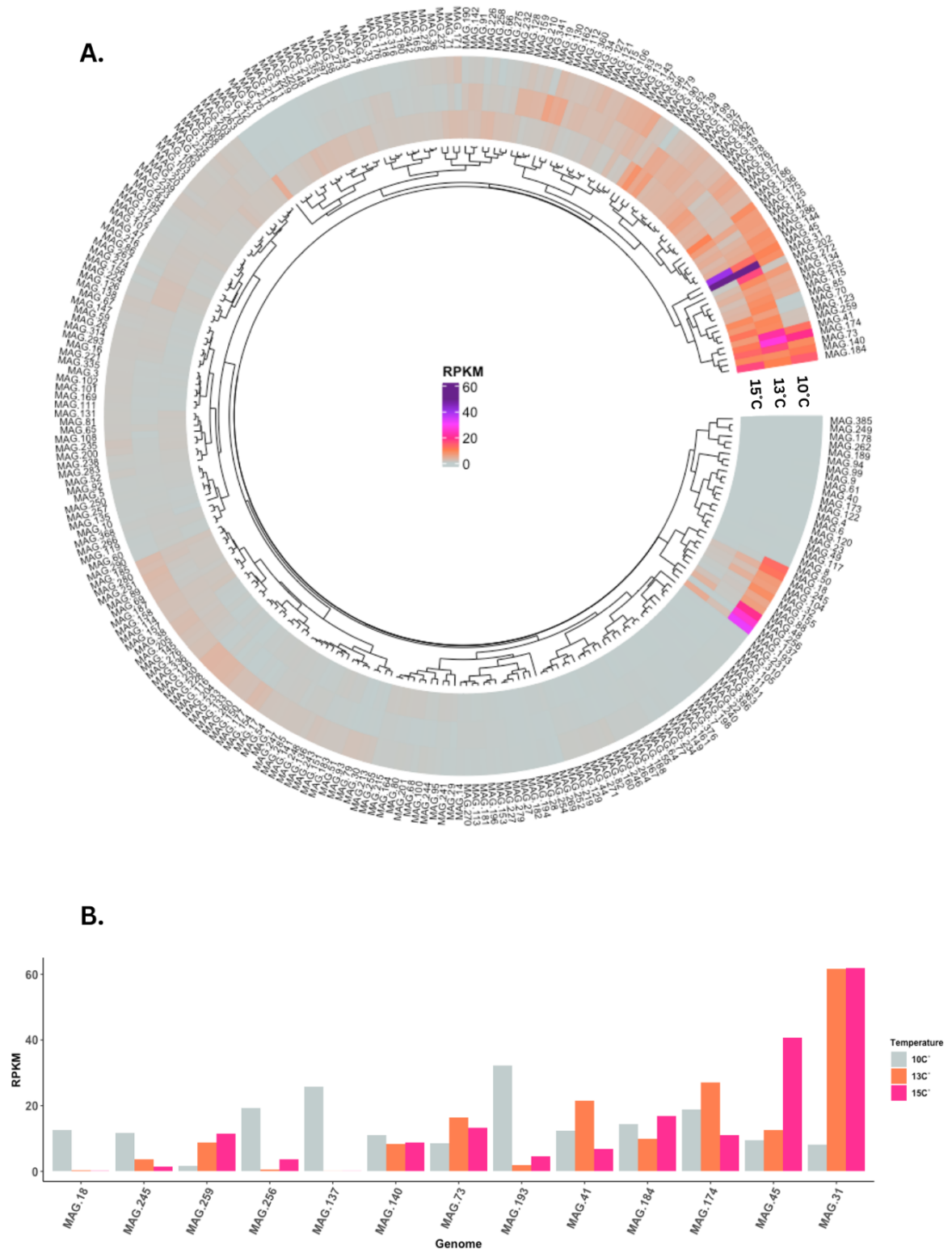


Figure 16: MAGs abundance across thermal conditions **A.** Circular heatmap of MAGs abundance (RPKM) on day 60 illustrates the distribution of MAGs across different thermal treatments (10°C, 13°C, 15°C); **B.** Bar chart of the most variants MAG RPKM between the three thermal conditions.

Functional analysis of the metagenomic samples

We functionally annotated 1,780,113 ORFs to 7363 KOs. We analyzed the samples based on their normalized KO compositions across environmental conditions and time points. Although the KO compositions exhibited differences between the two temporal groups on days 1 and 60, these differences were not statistically significant (PERMANOVA p -value = 0.5). Therefore, we proceeded with the analysis using data from day 60 samples to determine the influence of thermal conditions on coral microbiome function after the incubation period. We performed a SIMPER analysis to identify potential KOs that differed significantly in abundance between the 10 °C, 13 °C, and 15 °C samples. The results identified 454 KO pathways that showed a significant difference (p -value < 0.05), including 26 KOs, which were found to contribute to five enriched (q -value < 0.05) (Figure 17; Supplementary Table 13).

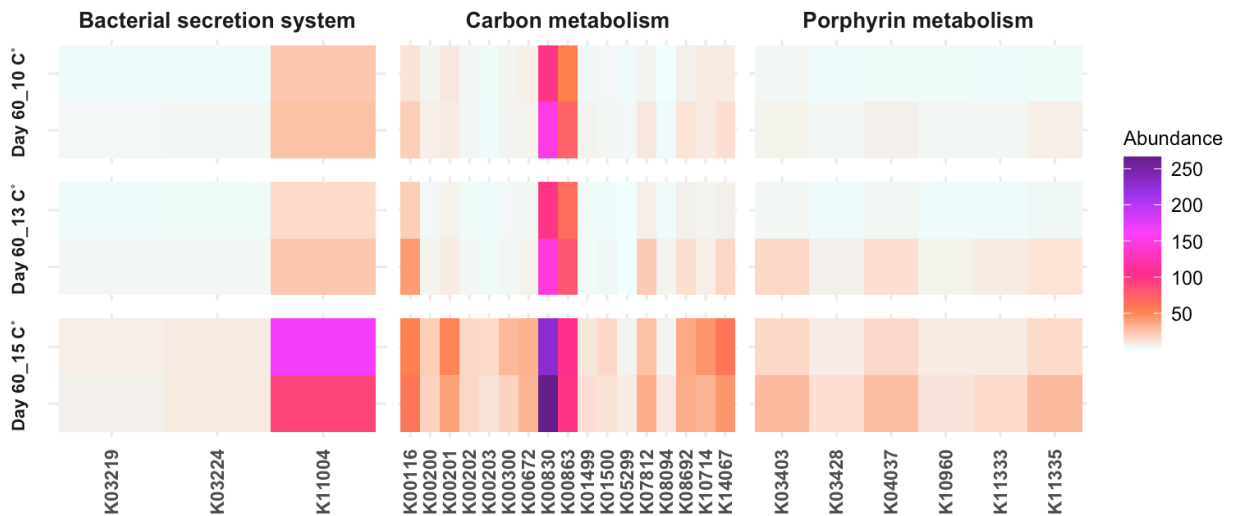


Figure 17: The Enriched KEGG pathways identified based on SIMPER analysis between 10°C, 13 °C, and 15 °C on day 60 show a potential increase in gene abundance highlighting the increase in gene abundance of metabolic pathways: bacterial secretion system, porphyrin metabolism, and carbon metabolism.

These five metabolic pathways are related to three categories: the bacterial secretion system, porphyrin metabolism, and carbon metabolism. The bacterial secretion system includes three KOs: K03219 - type III secretion protein, K03224 - ATP synthase in type III secretion protein, and K11004 - ATP-binding cassette, hemolysin transporter (T1SS), which had the highest abundance. Moreover, the Porphyrin metabolism

pathways include K03403 - magnesium chelatase subunit H, K03428 - magnesium-protoporphyrin O-methyltransferase, K04037 - light-independent protochlorophyllide reductase subunit L, K10960 - geranylgeranyl-bacteriochlorophyllide a reductase, K11333(chlorophyllide a reductase subunit X), and K11335 - chlorophyllide a reductase subunit Z.

Furthermore, 17 KOs were found to be related to carbon metabolism. Some of these KOs are related to methane metabolism, such as K00680 - formylmethanofuran--tetrahydromethanopterin N-formyltransferase, K00201 - formylmethanofuran dehydrogenase subunit B (*fwdB*, *fmdB*), K07812- trimethylamine-N-oxide reductase cytochrome c (*torZ*), K00300 - methylenetetrahydrofolate/methylenetetrahydromethanopterin dehydrogenase (*mtdA*), K08692 - malate-CoA ligase subunit alpha (*mtkB*), and K00830 - alanine-glyoxylate transaminase (*AGTX*) (Figure 17). Other KOs include K00116, malate dehydrogenase, which is related to carbon metabolism, and K01500 - methenyltetrahydrofolate cyclohydrolase, which is related to the carbon fixation pathway.

Additionally, some of these KOs, which have been identified by SIMPER analysis, were found to be part of the KEGG modules of formaldehyde assimilation (serine pathway), such as K00830, K08692, and K14067. Therefore, we investigated the presence of all functional genes related to the mentioned module. Interestingly, we found a complete formaldehyde assimilation (serine pathway) module in our data (Supplementary Figure 8).

Given the significant findings in our analysis of KOs pathways, particularly in carbon metabolism, we decided to delve deeper into the functional aspects of carbohydrate metabolism by investigating the carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes) database. This analysis aimed to uncover the functional capabilities related to carbohydrate degradation and elucidate the metabolic adaptations of the microbiome to environmental stressors. The SIMPER analysis of the annotated CAZy showed an increase in the abundance of some Glycoside Hydrolase families such as β -1,6-

glucosidase (GH30), Mannosyl-glycoprotein endo- β -N-acetylglucosaminidase (GH85), β -D-arabinofuranosidase (GH116), and α -amylase (GH119) (Supplementary Figure 9, Supplementary Table 14). These enzymes are involved in the breakdown of complex carbohydrates into simpler sugars.

Furthermore, given the previously noted increase in Rhodobacterales MAGs, we suspect this increase might have an influence on the nitrogen cycle genes within the coral microbiome. Therefore, we investigated functional gene abundance related to the nitrogen cycle, such as dissimilatory/assimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA/ANRA), (*nap*, *nas*, *nar*, *nrf*), denitrification (*nir*, *nor*, *nos*), nitrogen fixation (*nif*, *vnf*), and nitrification (*amo*, *hao*) (Supplementary Figure 10, Supplementary Table 15). These functions showed an increased abundance with increasing temperature on day 60 (K-W *p*-value = 0.012) (Figure 18). There was almost no change in the nitrification genes. Also, one gene (*nifD*) showed higher abundance in the control temperature of 10°C than in thermal stress conditions. Interestingly, there was a decrease in the abundance of most of these genes at 13 °C compared to the 10°C and 15 °C except for nitrogen fixation genes (*nifH*, *vnfH*, *nifK*) that showed an increase with the thermal stress. In contrast, most nitrogen cycle genes had the highest abundance at 15°C with thermal stress such as dissimilatory/assimilatory nitrate reduction (*narG*, *napA* and *B*, and *nas*), denitrification genes (*nirK*, *norB*, and *nosZ*), and nitrogen fixation genes (*nifH*, *vnfH*, *nifK*) (Figure 18).

Moreover, we investigated the taxonomy of the ORFs annotated to key nitrogen genes. Most of the ORFs related to dissimilatory/assimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (*nap*, *nas*, *nar*, *nrf*), denitrification (*nir*, *nor*, *nos*), and nitrogen fixation (*nif*, *vnf*) were taxonomically annotated to Alpha and Gamma-proteobacteria. In contrast, nitrification (*amo*, *hao*) genes were mostly annotated to Gamma-proteobacteria (Figure 19). Most of the Alphaproteobacteria taxa belong to the orders Rhodobacterales Rhizobiales, while most Gammaproteobacteria belong to Pseudomonadales, and Enterobacterales.

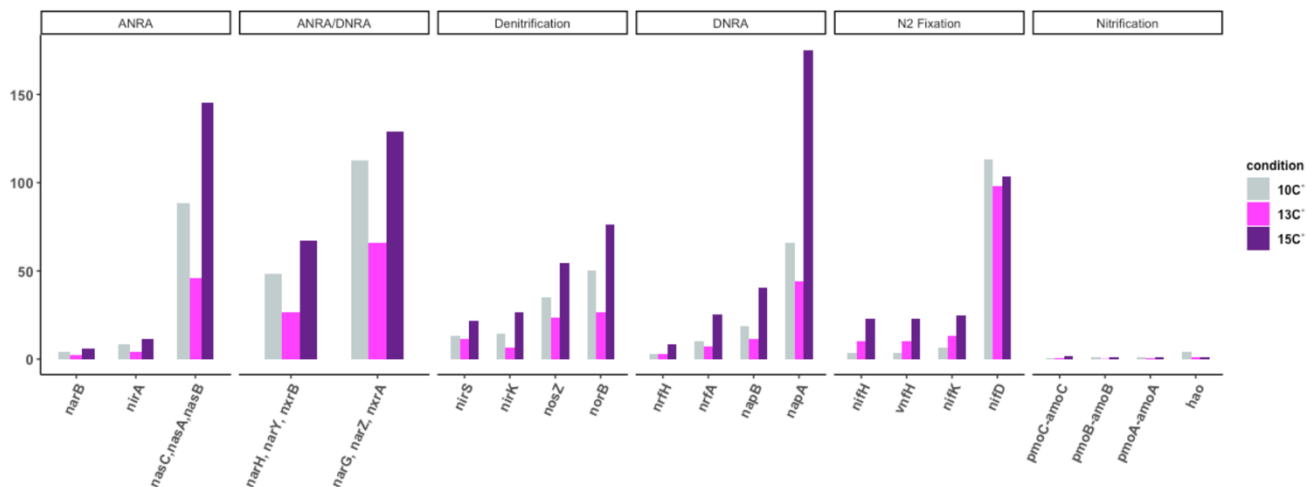


Figure 18: Nitrogen cycle genes abundance bar plot across thermal conditions on Day 60. It showed an abundance increase with the prolonged temperature increase in some genes related to dissimilatory/assimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (ANRA, DNRA), denitrification, and nitrogen. The y-axis represents the gene abundance and the x-axis represents genes.

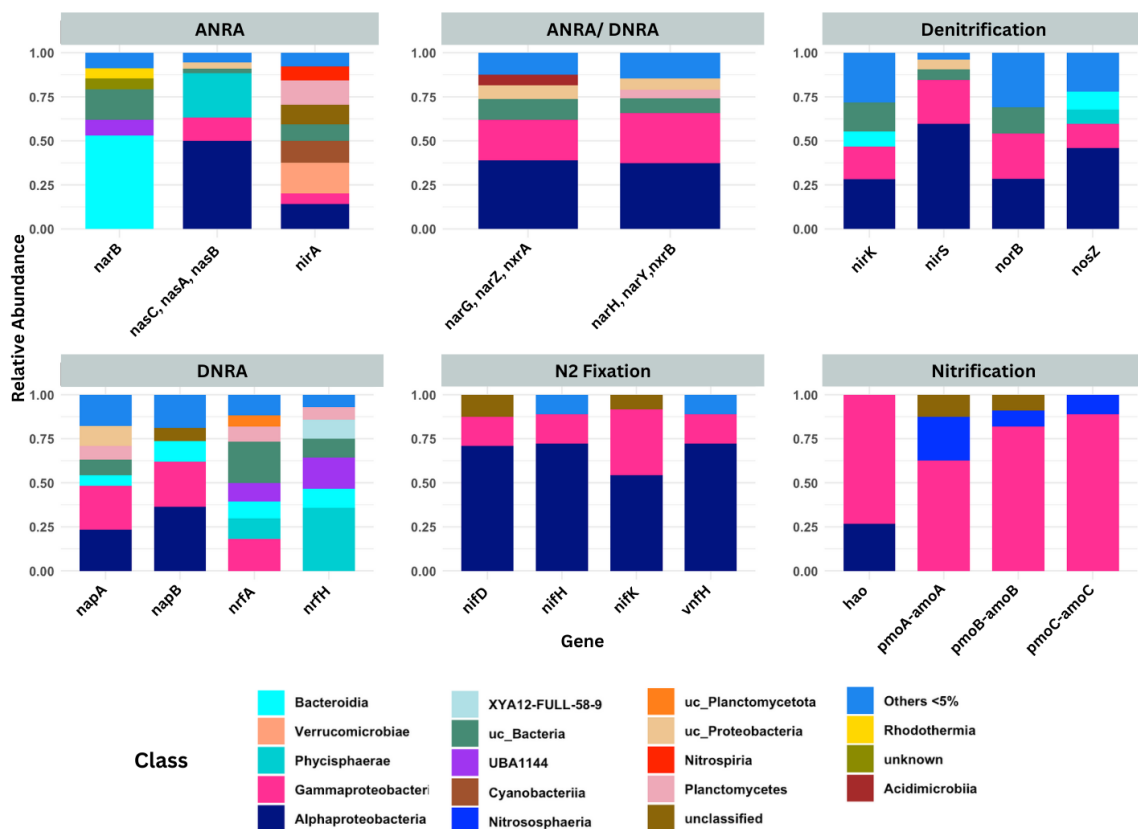


Figure 19: Relative abundance of nitrogen ORFs taxonomy at the class level. Each plot represents a nitrogen cycle pathway with the responsible key genes. The category (Others <5%) represents taxa that have been assigned to less than 5% of ORFs.

3.2.4. MAGs functional profiling

We further investigated the potential contribution of MAGs to previously identified KEGG functions. Many MAGs participated in carbon metabolism and bacterial secretion systems (Figure 20). Interestingly, none of the MAGs contained genes annotated with any of the KO pathways related to porphyrin metabolism. However, we found 19 MAGs belonging to nine orders, including KOs related to the secretion system. K03219 (T3SS) was found in two MAGs belonging to two orders, Geminicoccales (MAG.223) and Pseudomonadales (MAG.70). Additionally, K03224 (T3SS) was found in five MAGs belonging to four orders: Pseudomonadales (MAG.70), Chlamydiales (MAG.170), Rhodobacterales (MAG.227, MAG.360), and Geminicoccales (MAG.223). All displayed higher abundance with increasing temperature (Supplementary Figure 11). Furthermore, K11004 (T1SS) was found in 14 MAGs belonging to seven orders: Pseudomonadales, Minwuiiales, Chromatiales, Rhizobiales, Sphingomonadales, HK1 (Gammaproteobacteria), and Competibacterales (Supplementary Table 16).

We identified MAGs that included KEGGs related to carbon metabolism pathways, such as K00116 - malate dehydrogenase, which was found in 15 MAGs belonging to five orders, including Pseudomonadales, Flavobacteriales, Chitinophagales, Rhodobacterales, and Opitutales. Furthermore, KOs related to methane metabolism were found in MAGs. For example, K00830 - alanine-glyoxylate transaminase (*AGTX*) was found in most MAGs, except for MAGs belonging to the orders Flavobacteriales and Chitinophagales. The K00863 - triose/dihydroxyacetone kinase (*DAK*, *TKFC*) was found in 17 MAGs belonging to Rhodobacterales, Sneathiellales, Rhizobiales, and J057 (Class: Bacteroidia). Interestingly, K08094 - 6-phospho-3-hexuloisomerase (*hxlB*) was found in one MAG from Promineofilales. Another KO, K08692, was found in 13 MAGs belonging to UBA4486 (Class: Gammaproteobacteria), Rhizobiales, Ga0077536 (Class: Gammaproteobacteria), Rhodobacterales, and Kiloniellales. Finally, the K14067 - malate-CoA ligase subunit beta (*mtkA*) - was also found in 13 MAGs belonging to UBA4486, Rhizobiales, Ga0077536, Rhodobacterales, and Kiloniellales (Figure 20).

MAGs. Similarly, the Dissimilatory/Assimilatory NO₃⁻ to NO₂⁻ genes (*narB* and *nas*) were broadly distributed, except for the *nirA* gene, which was only found in four MAGs: three from Opitutales (MAG.43, MAG.126, MAG.141) and one from Rhizobiales (MAG.176). Furthermore, Rhodobacterales, genus *Mangrovicoccus* (MAG.31,41,73), showed nitrogen fixation genes, especially *nifH*, *nifK*, and *nifD*. However, only Rhodobacterales (MAG.31) and UBA4486 (MAG.45) increased with increasing temperatures (Figure 21).

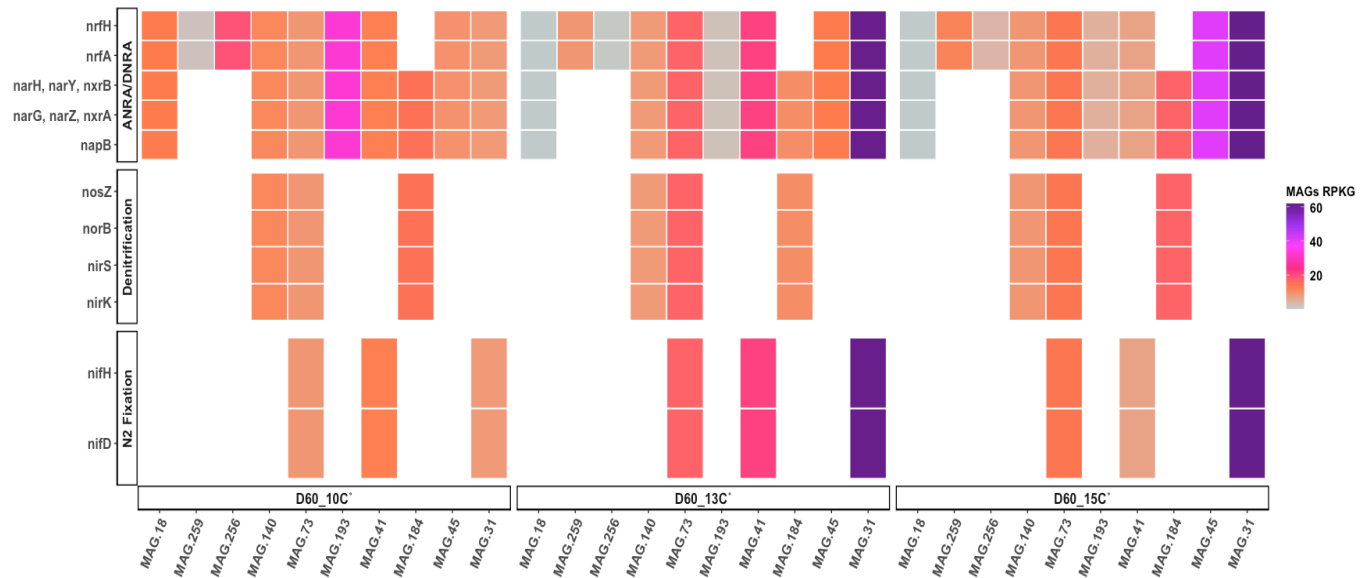


Figure 21: Heat map displaying the most abundant MAGs containing nitrogen cycle genes and their relative abundance across three thermal conditions. The data indicate that Rhodobacterales, genus *Mangrovicoccus* (MAG.31,41,73), possess a complete set of denitrification genes. Also, It shows the increasing abundance of *Mangrovicoccus* (MAG.31) and UBA4486 (MAG.45).



4. DISCUSSIONS

4.1. *Eunicella metagenomes and gene composition structure*

In previous research, it has been reported that dinoflagellates exhibit a wide range of genome sizes, up to 245×10^6 kbp containing 87,688 protein-coding and 92,013 total genes (Hou & Lin, 2009). In the case of *Symbiodinium*, it has been reported to have ~42,000 protein-coding genes and ~19 exons per gene (Shoguchi et al., 2013a). We have predicted a high number (151264 genes) of *Symbiodinium* genes, which could be because we are predicting exons with the tool Metaeuk. Also, gene fragmentation could have inflated the number of *Symbiodinium* genes.

Moreover, we found that the coral microbiome is richer and more diverse in shallow samples, which implies that depth might influence the microbiome. At the functional level, there was no significant influence of depth on the functional composition of the prokaryotic community in both shallow and mesophotic samples. This suggests that while microbial diversity varies with depth, the core functional capabilities of the microbiome remain stable across different depths.

4.2. *The changes in E. singularis microbiome with depth*

Based on the mTAGs SSU-rRNA taxonomic annotation, *Symbiodinium* was found more abundant in shallow *Eunicella singularis* compared to mesophotic colonies. In contrast, prokaryotic sequences were dominant in mesophotic samples, particularly by Alphaproteobacteria and Gammaproteobacteria. Additionally, the Gammaproteobacterial genera *Endozoicomonas* and *Bermanella* were the most abundant at both depths. *Endozoicomonas* exhibits a broad distribution in marine environments across different depths and ecosystems (Neave et al., 2016b), forming associations with various Cnidaria species (Hochart et al., 2023) including Gorgonian corals (Tignat-Perrier et al., 2022). It is assumed that *Endozoicomonas* is involved in coral nutrient acquisition by participating in host-associated protein and carbohydrate transport and cycling, and structuring of the coral microbiome through the inhibition of pathogen proliferation using

different mechanisms like the production of quorum-sensing antimicrobial compounds (Neave et al., 2016c; Tignat-Perrier et al., 2022). Despite their recognized mutualistic association with coral hosts, *Endozoicomonas* may adopt diverse roles, potentially residing within coral cells as commensals, parasites, or even pathogens (Pogoreutz & Ziegler, 2024).

Little is known about the role of *Bermanella* in the coral microbiome. One species belonging to this genus has been described, *Bermanella marisrubri*, which has been isolated from the Red Sea and described as a heterotrophic, marine, strictly aerobic, motile bacterium (Pinhassi et al., 2009). In addition, genomic evidence from *Bermanella* suggests a possible role in bioremediation and oil degradation by initiating *n*-alkane breakdown for other bacterial taxa, such as Sphingobacteriaceae, to carry out secondary *n*-alkane breakdown and beta-oxidization (Ribicic et al., 2018). This process suggests that *Bermanella*'s ability to utilize hydrocarbons as a carbon source may benefit corals by facilitating the degradation of organic matter or aiding in the mitigation of hydrocarbon pollutants in their environment. This capability could contribute to enhancing coral health and resilience. In addition, we could identify other families of Alpha- and Gamma-proteobacteria that are frequently found in corals, such as Saccharospirillaceae, Flavobacteriaceae, and Sphingomonadaceae (Delgadillo-Ordoñez et al., 2022). We identified the Sphingomonadaceae genus *Sphingomonas* as a shallow specialist taxon in our dataset. Members of this family have been proposed to be putative coral pathogens (Rosales et al., 2019).

We identified rare (less abundant) taxa from two genera in the phyla Firmicutes, *Mycoplasma*, and *Spiroplasma*. This phylum is assumed to include mutualistic or commensal microorganisms in temperate and deep-sea gorgonian species as well as in cold-water scleractinian corals (Meyer et al., 2019b; Tandon, Chiou, et al., 2022b; van de Water et al., 2017). It is also assumed to be involved in the assimilation and dissimilation of sulfur reduction (Yang et al., 2019). The genus *Mycoplasma* was observed in all samples and is commonly found in gorgonians (Gray et al., 2011; Holm & Heidelberg, 2016) and cold-water scleractinians (Kellogg et al., 2009; Neulinger et al., 2009).

However, its precise functional role in corals and cnidarians remains unknown (Samuel A. Vohsen et al., 2022). Interestingly, we identified *Spiroplasma*, which is known for its capacity to protect the host against pathogens (Ballinger & Perlman, 2019), as a shallow depth-specialized taxon in our *Eunicella* samples. It is believed to confer protection against fungi through the production of unique toxins (Ballinger & Perlman, 2019). This suggests its potential role in coral resilience against pathogens.

Certain bacterial taxa were strongly associated with the depth. For instance, BD1-7 genus (family Spongiabacteraceae) was more prevalent in our mesophotic samples. This is consistent with its identification in the microbiomes of the mesophotic black corals *Antipathella subpinnata* and *Eunicella cavolini* at a depth of approximately 60 m (van de Water et al., 2020). It has also been recognized as a core member of the microbiome of *Eunicella singularis* (van de Water, Voolstra, et al., 2018). In addition, Spongiabacteraceae has been reported to be associated with the degradation of mono- and polycyclic aromatics (Ribicic et al., 2018).

Despite its low abundance, the genus *Thalassolituus* (family Saccharospirillaceae) was predominantly found in mesophotic *E. singularis*. It is assumed to be involved in the carbon and nitrogen cycles by utilizing acetate and C7-C20 aliphatic hydrocarbons for carbon, as well as ammonia and nitrate for nitrogen (Satomi & Fujii, 2014). It has also been identified among associated bacteria in the endemic reef coral *Mussismilia braziliensis* (Reis et al., 2009). However, we are unaware of previous studies that have addressed the presence of *Thalassolituus* in the *Eunicella* microbiome. Similarly, *Aquimarina* (family Flavobacteriaceae) was identified as a mesophotic specialist taxon. Keller-Costa et al. (Keller-Costa et al., 2016) successfully isolated *Aquimarina* sp. strain EL33 from *Eunicella labiata* and obtained a nearly complete genome sequence. Analyses of the *Aquimarina* genome have revealed its potential roles in nutrient acquisition, utilization, and defense (Keller-Costa et al., 2016). This finding offers valuable insights into the functional contribution of this bacterium to the holobiont. In addition to nutrient

cycling, it has been suggested that it might inhibit pathogenic bacteria by producing exoenzymes, organic compounds, and bacteriocin (Suantika, 2013).

Generally, the taxonomic analysis of *E. singularis* revealed an absence of *Symbiodinium* with increasing depth, signaling a shift in microbiome composition. While the dominant bacterial species remained consistent, variation in the bacterial community was primarily observed among rare bacterial members (less abundant), with certain taxa showing depth specificity. In addition, the bacterial taxa identified as mesophotic depth specialists are assumed to be capable of using different carbon sources, such as aromatic and hydrocarbon compounds (Ribicic et al., 2018), implying their metabolic versatility and adaptability to unique environmental conditions.

4.3. Impact of depth on *E. singularis* microbiome functions

Overall, we could not find differences in the metabolic pathways between *Symbiodinium* and the associated prokaryotic community at either depth. However, the photosynthesis pathway (ko00195) was found only in the shallow sample microbiome. This can be attributed to the absence of endosymbiotic algae in the mesophotic samples coupled with insufficient light enrichment at lower depths. Furthermore, differences in the abundance of certain functional genes related to energy and amino acid metabolism were detected. For instance, the ribulose-bisphosphate carboxylase large chain (RuBisCO large chain – *rbcL*, *cbbL*), which is related to carbon fixation in photosynthetic organisms, is prevalent in the shallow *E. Singularis* microbiome. Furthermore, many *Symbiodinium* ORFs encoding RuBisCO were present. This could be because *Symbiodinium* may have multiple copies of RuBisCO genes (Shoguchi et al., 2018), and also due to the prediction of different exons from the same gene as well as due to the presence of fragmented genes. Moreover, the prokaryotic community in the shallow *E. Singularis* microbiome exhibited high carbon fixation gene numbers. This suggests a relevant role of prokaryotes in providing fixed carbon to the coral. Until recently, only *Symbiodinium* was considered responsible for carbon fixation in coral holobionts (Robbins et al., 2019b). This could also explain the presence of autotrophic prokaryotic MAG *Phormidesmiaceae* (Cyanobacteria) in the microbiome.

Moreover, dinoflagellates can hold multiple distinct copies of a single gene (Shoguchi et al., 2013b). This might explain the high number of ORFs that encode DNA methylation, particularly DNA (cytosine-5)-methyltransferase (K00558, K17398). DNA (cytosine-5)-methyltransferase is known to regulate gene expression and DNA maintenance (Moore et al., 2013). One potential explanation for the abundance of these enzymes in shallow samples could be the nature of the endosymbiotic relationship between *Symbiodinium* and coral hosts. Although *Symbiodinium* may adjust its gene expression in response to coral functions (Mohamed et al., 2016), the specific mechanisms underlying this process remain unclear. Therefore, although DNA methylation likely contributes to these regulatory mechanisms, further research is needed to unravel the full extent of how *Symbiodinium* and corals interact and influence each other's gene expression and physiological processes.

We further explored how the prokaryotic microbiome might contribute to enhancing the access of corals to energy. The increased abundance of some pathways, such as cytochrome c oxidase, in the mesophotic community suggests higher energy production. This increase in energy production could lead to higher microbial activity, which may support coral health and resilience by providing additional energy sources and facilitating metabolic processes crucial for survival in mesophotic environments. In addition, the mesophotic community showed a higher enrichment of some lipid metabolism functions, especially acyl-CoA oxidase. This allows fatty acids to be used as carbon sources (S. Kim & Kim, 2018) for energy production by the prokaryotic community. In addition, the higher abundance of genes related to carbohydrate metabolism, such as UDP-glucuronate decarboxylase, could indicate higher biosynthesis of nucleotide sugars, such as UDP-xylose (Moriarty et al., 2002), which serves as a key precursor for the synthesis of diverse glycan structures and is essential for bacterial growth (Bontemps et al., 2003) and interaction with the host (Banahene et al., 2022). This might be a possible mechanism by which the prokaryotic community can colonize and evade the host immune-like responses or contribute to the host response to pathogens (Lee et al., 2022).

Moreover, the mesophotic community showed a higher abundance of genes related to amino acid metabolism such as γ -glutamyltranspeptidase (GGT). This implies that the prokaryotic community uses GGT to degrade glutathione for amino acid utilization and as a nitrogen source. It can also be a virulence factor in some pathogenic gram-negative bacteria (Saini et al., 2021). In addition, the enriched steroid degradation pathway in the mesophotic prokaryotic community implies their capacity to use organic compounds such as steroids as carbon sources. Furthermore, the existence of Pinene, camphor, and geraniol degradation functional genes gives the assumption of the capability of the prokaryotic community to use aromatic hydrocarbons as a carbon source (Bhuvaneswari, 2013), and their ability to degrade antibiotics. This observation suggests that the prokaryotic community associated with mesophotic *Eunicella Singularis* may have a distinct capacity to utilize various carbon sources from their environment.



Figure 22. Main metabolic activities of shallow-water and mesophotic microbial communities associated with *E. singularis*. In shallow waters, the microbiome, particularly *Symbiodinium*, uses photosynthesis as a source of carbon (left panel). In contrast, the mesophotic microbiome exhibited different metabolic pathways related to carbon metabolism, including steroid and aromatic hydrocarbon degradation, reflecting their adaptation to deeper, lower-light environments (right panel).

In summary, our analysis revealed remarkable similarities in the metabolic pathways between *Symbiodinium* and the associated prokaryotic community across both

shallow and mesophotic waters, except for the exclusive presence of the photosynthetic pathway in the shallow samples due to the presence of *Symbiodinium*, alongside specific autotrophic prokaryotes. In turn, the mesophotic community displayed an increase in gene abundance related to energy production and the utilization of diverse carbon sources, including fatty acids, steroids, and hydrocarbon compounds.

4.4. *Exploring the Functional Potential of Microbial Taxa in the Eunicella singularis Microbiome*

Our MAGs indicate domination of Endozoicomondaceae in the *E. Singularis* microbiome across depth, which is further supported by the mTAGs classification. Interestingly, functional annotation of these MAGs allowed us to delve deeper into their metabolic potential, focusing on the shared prokaryotic metabolic pathways that varied across depths, such as carbohydrate metabolism, oxidative phosphorylation, cofactor and vitamin metabolism, and secretion systems. While glycolysis and gluconeogenesis were widespread among MAGs, oxidative phosphorylation genes were less common, with notable findings in specific taxa. For instance, NADH-quinone oxidoreductase genes have been exclusively identified in MAG.22 (Sphingomonas), highlighting its potential role in energy production. Moreover, the presence of cytochrome cbb3-type in MAG.22 (Sphingomonas) MAG.17 and MAG.25993 (Endozoicomonadaceae) suggests adaptations to varying oxygen levels (Lunak & Noel, 2015).

Cofactor and vitamin metabolism genes were detected in a subset of MAGs, including Phormidesmiaceae, Pseudomonadales, and Sphingomonadales, indicating their importance in microbial growth and metabolism. Vitamin B plays a central metabolic role in marine bacteria and is important for nutrient uptake (Sañudo-Wilhelmy et al., 2014). We detected a variety of vitamin B biosynthesis pathways in MAGs, including pantothenate (B₅), pyridoxal (B₆), biotin (B₇), and cobalamin (B₁₂). For example, MAGs from the genera DT-91 (Order Pseudomonadales) and SIO4C1 (Order Phormidesmiaceae) were found to encode genes responsible for vitamin B₁₂ biosynthesis.

It is an important vitamin for corals and its symbiont *Symbiodinium* because both lack cobalamin biosynthesis capability (Villela et al., 2023), which is required for methionine synthesis in coral hosts (Robbins et al., 2019b). This implies a potential role of both Pseudomonadales and Phormidesmiaceae in supporting corals with B₁₂.

Moreover, some taxa showed potential for the biosynthesis of pantothenate (B₅), such as Endozoicomonadaceae MAGs and GCA-001730085. Vitamin B₅ has been suggested to play a role in energy generation as a precursor of coenzyme A, in addition to its use by commensal bacteria to enhance the protective activity against pathogens (Yoshii et al., 2019). However, its precise role in coral microbiome remains unknown. In addition, many MAGs were found to contribute to B₇ biosynthesis, which is essential for bacterial metabolism, particularly in processes such as gluconeogenesis and fatty acid synthesis (Wienhausen et al., 2022). Although biotin biosynthesis in bacteria involves multiple steps, comprehensive studies on marine bacteria are required to fully understand biotin metabolism in marine environments (Wienhausen et al., 2022).

Additionally, the presence of type II and III secretion systems in three MAGs (DT-91, Endozoicomonas, and Sphingomonas) indicated their possible role in pathogenesis. The type II secretion system is a multiprotein system that translocates substances through the outer bacterial membrane, including virulence factors, enzymes, and effectors (Ghosal et al., 2019). TSS III functions as an injectisome, allowing these bacteria to manipulate targeted cells and facilitate their transport across their membranes (Milne-Davies et al., 2021). Sphingomonas was previously identified as a putative coral pathogen which explains the presence of these virulence factors in the genome. However, *Endozoicomonas* is recognized as a coral symbiont, but lately, the nature of this relationship has been questioned (Pogoreutz & Ziegler, 2024). One possible explanation is that *Endozoicomonas* may have an "accidental" pathogenic mode. To illustrate, the TSS present in accidental pathogens serves as a fitness element, enhancing survival and interaction in benign associations with primary hosts, while acting as a virulence factor in

accidental hosts. These pathogens may reside harmlessly in the hosts but can cause damage when encountering accidental hosts, although infection typically does not facilitate pathogen spread (Puhar & Sansonetti, 2014).

4.5. *The impact of thermal stress on *D. pertusum* microbiome*

The increase in ocean temperature threatens mesophotic habitats, resulting in a decline in coral populations and affecting the diversity of benthic communities (Castellan et al., 2022). Organisms such as *D. pertusum* are especially vulnerable to these changes because of their susceptibility to disturbance and slow recovery rates, which exacerbate the effects of climate change on coral ecosystems (Clark et al., 2016). Despite these challenges, the current literature on the microbiome of cold-water corals (CWC) remains limited, underscoring the pressing need for more comprehensive investigations. Therefore, understanding the response of the coral microbiome to such challenges is crucial (Epstein, Smith, et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2019). Our study addresses this gap and provides evidence that prolonged exposure to elevated water temperatures affects the functional capabilities of the *D. pertusum* microbiome. Furthermore, our findings suggest that temperature plays an important role in shaping the genetic and metabolic landscapes of the *D. pertusum* microbiome, potentially influencing its nitrogen cycle, carbon metabolism, and pathogenicity.

The gradual increase in some carbon metabolism genes observed during prolonged exposure to elevated temperatures (+3 °C and +5 °C) suggests heightened energy (Dean et al., 2018). This increase in functional genes related to formaldehyde assimilation (serine pathway) may facilitate the production of various one-carbon compounds (C1) that serve as metabolic intermediates for energy generation. These C1 substrates, such as formaldehyde and methanol, are assimilated by methylotrophs via formaldehyde assimilation pathways (T. Wu et al., 2023), which are integral to methanol metabolism (N. H. Chen et al., 2016). Therefore, the presence of a formaldehyde assimilation module in the genomes of some Gammaproteobacteria, such as

Rhodobacterales and Rhizobiales, suggests their potential for methylotrophy. The formaldehyde assimilation pathways are rarely discussed in the context of coral microbiomes, making these findings noteworthy and potentially indicative of unique metabolic capabilities within the microbial community. Such findings could offer new insights into how coral-associated microbes adapt to and mitigate environmental stressors. Moreover, this highlights the metabolic adaptability of these bacterial taxa, specifically Rhodobacterales and Rhizobiales, allowing them to efficiently utilize diverse carbon sources for growth and metabolism in thermally stressed microbiomes.

Additionally, coral mucus is known to be a complex mixture of proteins, lipids, and carbohydrates (Wright et al., 2019), mainly composed of C6 sugars (glucose, mannose, and galactose), deoxysugars (fucose and rhamnose), amino sugars (N-acetyl glucosamine), and C5 sugars (xylose) in the CWC (Wild et al., 2010). These carbohydrates are considered rich energy sources for the microbiome (Hadaidi et al., 2019). The increase in abundance that has been found in some carbohydrate degradation enzymes with increasing temperature such as β -1,6-Glucosidase, Mannosyl-glycoprotein Endo- β -N-Acetylglucosaminidase, β -D-Arabinofuranosidase, and α -Amylase might reflect the heightened energy uptake through carbohydrate by microbiome to cope with the changing environmental conditions (De Beul et al., 2021). Consequently, this increase in degrading enzymes in the coral microbiome may accelerate the decomposition of the mucus layer of stressed corals, which affects coral health. These enzymes may facilitate specific biochemical processes or reactions related to carbohydrate degradation or modification in response to the stress caused by elevated temperatures. This particular adaptation implies the microbiome's ability to respond dynamically to fluctuating energy requirements in its environment (Pei et al., 2022).

4.5.1. Temperature-Induced Pathogenic Bacteria and Secretion Systems in the *D. pertusum* Microbiome

The increase in temperature may lead to an increase in pathogenic bacteria in the *D. pertusum* microbiome. A recent study by Chemel et al., 2024, has shed light on the escalation of pathogenic activity in the *D. pertusum* microbiome under prolonged thermal stress (15 °C). They identified potentially pathogenic ASVs, including those belonging to *Myxococcaceae*, *Vibrionaceae*, *Alteromonadaceae*, UBA4486 (Gammaproteobacteria), and Puniceispirillales. We detected an increase in the mTAGs abundance of Vibrionales with increasing temperature on day 60 (13 °C and 15 °C), which further supports their results. Furthermore, our investigation revealed an increase in functional genes related to bacterial secretion systems T1SS and T3SS with rising water temperatures, suggesting a potential induction of pathogenic activity, as reported by Chemel et al., 2024. The T3SS functions as an injectisome, enabling bacteria to manipulate host cells and facilitating the transport of macromolecules across membranes (Milne-Davies et al., 2021). The presence of T3SS-related genes was detected in genomes of Rhodobacterales, Pseudomonadales, Chlamydiales, and Geminicoccales. These taxa exhibit increased abundance under thermal stress and have been implicated in stony coral tissue loss (Rosales et al., 2020). Notably, Rhodobacterales were present in the control temperature (10°C) and increased in abundance with temperature treatments (13, and 15 °C), suggesting their potential as opportunistic bacteria. Notably, this study is the first to report Geminicoccales in the *D. pertusum* microbiome, with the genome encoding both components of T3SS, indicating their potential as cold-water coral pathogens.

Moreover, the type-I bacterial secretion ATP-binding cassette, a hemolysin transporter, was found to be more abundant than T3SS in our analysis and was encoded in many MAGs, including Minwuiiales, Rhizobiales, and Sphingomonadales. The T1SS component is an exporter of various substrates, including RTX toxins and bacteriocins, through the cellular membranes (Kanonenberg et al., 2019). Therefore, it can be found in both pathogenic and non-pathogenic bacteria. However, toxin production usually occurs

under stressful conditions, such as high water temperatures, and is used for self-immunity and to inhibit or eliminate closely related species for survival (Smits et al., 2020). The Minwuaiales is a marine bacterial order belonging to Alphaproteobacteria (Sun et al., 2018), and we could not find any reports of this order in the coral microbiome. The presence of T1SS suggests its potential as a coral pathogen. In addition, members of the order Sphingomonadales have been described as putative coral pathogens (Rosales et al., 2019). Similarly, Rhizobiales is a potential coral pathogen and has been reported in Stony Coral Tissue Loss Disease (Rosales et al., 2020), which suggests the use of T1SS for pathogenicity.

4.5.2. Impact of Thermal Stress on Nitrogen cycling in *D. pertusum*

Microbiome

The coral microbiome hosts a diverse array of nitrifying and denitrifying bacteria, which are crucial for transforming nitrogen-related waste into non-toxic compounds (Boilard et al., 2020; Kimes et al., 2010; Rådecker et al., 2015). Moreover, these bacteria are important for supplying organic nitrogen to the host, especially under low-nitrogen conditions (Boilard et al., 2020). In particular, diazotrophic communities are key players in nitrogen cycling, providing diazotrophically derived nitrogen (DDN) to the host (Benavides et al., 2017). Therefore, understanding the implications of disturbances in microbial nitrogen cycling on coral health is essential for understanding ecosystem responses to environmental changes. In the case of *D. pertusum*, meticulous regulation of nitrogen balance helps mitigate nitrogen loss by recycling nitrogen through the microbiome, thus minimizing the impact of high ammonium excretion rates in mucus (Middelburg et al., 2015b). However, disturbances in the regulation of nitrogen cycling may lead to nitrogen influx (M. Li et al., 2023), excessive ammonia stimulation, and nitrogen loss (Tilstra et al., 2019). This could increase the vulnerability of corals to thermal stress (Fernandes de Barros Marangoni et al., 2020) and diseases (Rådecker et al., 2015). In addition, *D. pertusum* appears to release dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) and nutrient-rich mucus into the surrounding water (Middelburg et al., 2015b). This

nutrient release might provide a rich source of nutrients, promoting the growth and activity of nitrogen-cycling microbial taxa such as Dadabacteriales, Rhodobacterales, and Rhodospirillales (D'Angelo et al., 2023; Rubio-Portillo et al., 2016).

We could identify various nitrogen metabolism pathways in our metagenomic samples such as dissimilatory $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ to ammonium (DNRA), assimilatory $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{NO}_2^-$ pathways (ANRA), denitrification, and nitrification. Some of these pathways require anoxic conditions (low concentrations or absence of oxygen) such as reduction to ammonium and denitrification. Although they required anaerobic conditions, the presence of these pathways in the coral microbiome is not surprising (Babbin et al., 2021) and has been reported in the coral microbiome. Similar to different biological systems with micro-anaerobic sites that exist in aquatic environments such as cyanobacterial and algal aggregates (Klawonn et al., 2015), marine snow particles, and sediments (Fennel et al., 2009), the principle that biological oxygen consumption exceeds physical aeration through slow diffusion can be found in coral colonies due to their mucus production (Babbin et al., 2021). This mucus not only slows the diffusion of oxygen from the surrounding seawater but also serves as a carbon source that stimulates aerobic heterotrophy, further depleting oxygen levels (Wild et al., 2004). As a result, the thicker the mucus layer, the greater the potential for anaerobic processes to occur even when bulk oxygen concentrations remain relatively high (Dalsgaard et al., 2014).

Despite the diversity of the nitrogen metabolism genes identified, the most abundant genes belonged to the dissimilatory and assimilatory NO_3^- to NO_2^- pathways (DNR, ANR), such as *nap*, *nar*, and *nas*, which are indicators of DNR and ANR, suggesting an increase in nitrogen assimilation (Figure 25A). This implies a potential increase in nitrate respiration activity and energy synthesis/ATP synthesis, where nitrate is used as an electron acceptor in low concentrations or absence of oxygen (Ziv-El & Rittmann, 2009). This could facilitate the anaerobic respiration allowing the microbial community to thrive in low-oxygen or variable oxygen environments. Also, it has been found that coral

constantly releases inorganic nitrogen, such as nitrite and nitrate (Middelburg et al., 2015b), which prokaryotes can use for nitrate respiration. However, the increase in the *narG* gene, which is involved in the DNR pathway, suggests higher nitrate reduction. This process can potentially lead to nitrogen loss (Asamoto et al., 2021) because the produced nitrite can be further reduced to gaseous forms of nitrogen, such as nitrous oxide (N₂O) or nitrogen gas (N₂). Alternatively, other microbes can also utilize this nitrite, potentially enhancing microbial biomass (Peng et al., 2015).

Notably, the presence of nitrite ammonification genes *nrfH* and *nrfA* in most MAGs (Figure 25C) and their increase in abundance with thermal stress suggest higher prokaryotic nitrite ammonification by using NO₂⁻ directly for respiration and producing ammonium as a byproduct. The nitrite ammonification process forms part of the DNRA pathway which is assumed to be beneficial for coral fitness by increasing the availability of DIN through ammonium formation (Babbin et al., 2021) and reducing the impact of thermal stress in case of elevated temperature (Fernandes de Barros Marangoni et al., 2020). Additionally, nitrogen assimilation, in normal condition, is essential for *D. pertusum* survival in resource-depleted dark environment (Middelburg et al., 2015b) and could provide *D. pertusum* with nitrogen for the maintenance of coral metabolism under stressful conditions (Béraud et al., 2013). However, excessive nitrogen availability may create more favorable conditions for certain taxa that can thrive in nitrogen-rich environments the stressed coral microenvironment. This shift could lead to an imbalance in the coral microbiome and potentially disrupt essential microbial interactions, thereby altering the microbiome (Xiang et al., 2022). It could also cause metabolic stress in corals by increasing the phosphorus limitation and imbalance of the N:P stoichiometry, which may lead to diseases and mortality (Lapointe et al., 2019).

Moreover, the presence of nitrogen fixation genes, such as *vnf* and *nif*, in our dataset and MAGs belonging to Rhodobacterales (genus *Mangrovicoccus*), which showed a significant increase with thermal stress, indicates their ability to use different metal cofactors. For instance, FeMo-co is used in molybdenum-nitrogenase (Mo-

nitrogenase) and FeV-co in vanadium-nitrogenase (V-nitrogenase). Mo-nitrogenase is the most active and commonly expressed nitrogenase enzyme at ambient temperatures, whereas V-nitrogenase is typically produced only under molybdenum-deficient conditions. This implies a potential role in supplying the coral with DIN through the fixation of atmospheric N_2 . It has been proposed that during thermal stress events, corals may enhance the population and activity of diazotrophs [95], which can increase the available DIN for the coral host (Babbin et al., 2021). This may explain the increased abundance of *Mangrovicoccus* observed under thermal stress.

Surprisingly, the nitrification genes *amo* and *hao* were found in our dataset at low abundance and were not affected by prolonged thermal conditions (Figure 25A). Despite the expected presence of nitrification genes in our MAGs, their low abundance suggests a limited nitrification process. In contrast, denitrification, a microbial process that converts nitrate (NO_3^-) to nitrogen gas (N_2) or nitrous oxide (N_2O), is common in coral microbiomes (Glaze et al., 2022). This process is assumed to occur in anoxic microniches within *D. pertusum* mucus or the gastric cavity (Middelburg et al., 2015b) and helps maintain bioavailable nitrogen levels while reducing surplus excretion (Tilstra et al., 2021). Unlike tropical corals, where denitrification is of limited functional importance and denitrifiers likely respond opportunistically to inorganic nitrogen availability, it is a ubiquitous process in the *D. pertusum* microbiome, occurring regardless of physiology and habitat (Glaze et al., 2022).

Interestingly, in the thermally stressed *D. pertusum* microbiome, the abundance of denitrification genes increased compared to those involved in DNRA and N_2 fixation (Figure 25A). The rise in genes such as *nor*, which contributes to N_2O production, and *nos*, which converts N_2O to N_2 , suggests that the microbiome may respond to thermal stress by actively engaging in denitrification. This response results in the loss of fixed nitrogen from the system, potentially as a strategy to prevent nitrogen overload and maintain a balanced nitrogen cycle under stress conditions. Importantly, Middelburg et al. (2015) have provided insights into the role of prokaryotes in nitrogen production and

consumption in *D. pertusum*, but further research is needed to quantify the exact levels of nitrogen produced by prokaryotic symbionts and corals under prolonged thermal stress conditions. Understanding these dynamics is crucial for assessing how thermal stress impacts the nitrogen cycle within coral microbiomes.

Interestingly, several MAGs that increased under thermal stress, particularly those of the genus *Mangrovicoccus*, demonstrated a potential capacity for denitrification by possessing a full suite of denitrification genes (Figure 25C). This is significant because Rhodobacterales, which have been previously linked to denitrification processes (Middelburg et al., 2015b), were also prevalent, suggesting a crucial role for this genus in the denitrification process. Although denitrifiers play a beneficial role in balancing nitrogen levels, an increase in denitrification activity can lead to greater loss of fixed nitrogen, thereby reducing the availability of dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) for corals (Tilstra et al., 2019). These findings indicate that denitrification activity in the microbiome may be higher compared to DIN production through dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA) or atmospheric nitrogen fixation. This situation is concerning because thermally stressed *D. pertusum* corals have been shown to reduce their energy reserves, such as lipids and proteins, redirecting their energy intake towards survival rather than growth (Chapron et al., 2021). Consequently, the increased loss of fixed nitrogen due to heightened denitrification under thermal stress could further strain the coral's already limited energy resources. However, further investigations are required to quantify the amount of fixed nitrogen loss under thermal stress in comparison to DIN production and nitrogen fixation. Additionally, measuring the expression levels of denitrification genes is essential to confirm these findings and provide a more comprehensive understanding of microbial dynamics under thermal stress.

Altogether, our study revealed that increasing temperatures significantly impact the microbiome structure of *D. pertusum* at both taxonomic and functional levels. Metagenomic analyses supported previous research showing the dominance of Rhodobacterales under thermal stress. Moreover, our analyses indicated a shift in metabolic capacity towards methylotrophic bacteria, which may destabilize the

microbiome and promote the growth of opportunistic pathogenic organisms. Indeed, we found an increase in pathogenic marker genes and some MAGs that possess these markers within the *D. pertusum* microbiome as temperature increased. Additionally, we observed a variation in gene abundance associated with diazotrophic activity, including denitrification and nitrification, which could disrupt the nitrogen cycle balance between the coral and its microbiome, potentially increasing susceptibility to diseases and mortality. Together, these findings underscore the influence of increasing environmental temperature on the taxonomic and functional structure of the microbiome. However, further research is required to investigate the gene expression profiles associated with formaldehyde assimilation, denitrification, and nitrification. Examining the expression levels of these metabolic pathways would provide deeper insights into their activity and regulation, contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of their roles in the microbiome's response to environmental stressors such as temperature increases.



5. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

5.1. *The coral microbiome*

The symbiotic relationship between corals and their microbial partners is fundamental to the health and resilience of coral ecosystems. Corals provide a range of microenvironments that support unique microbial communities, which in turn supply essential nutrients, energy, and antibiotics to their coral hosts. Despite ongoing research on factors influencing coral microbiome acquisition, such as coral age, taxonomy, and environmental changes, conclusive data remain elusive, necessitating further investigation. The symbiotic relationship between corals and their microbial partners is fundamental to the health and resilience of coral ecosystems. Corals provide a range of microenvironments that support unique microbial communities, which in turn supply essential nutrients, energy, and antibiotics to their coral hosts. Despite ongoing research on factors influencing coral microbiome acquisition, such as coral age, taxonomy, and environmental changes, conclusive data remain elusive, necessitating further investigation. Advances in -omic technologies hold promise for understanding the intricate dynamics within coral-microbe communities. Metagenomic analysis can identify critical genes and species that respond to various stressors and their impact on stress resilience. Additionally, metatranscriptomics can reveal actively expressed genes within the microbiome, shedding light on key pathways in microbial community interactions with coral hosts. However, challenges persist, such as low microbial DNA density, the presence of genes with unknown functions (particularly among eukaryotes), and limitations in the comprehensiveness and accuracy of available databases. These limitations can hinder the identification and functional annotation of microbial genes, making it difficult to fully understand microbial roles and interactions. To enhance comparability across studies, the adoption of standardized protocols for model coral species has been proposed, enabling the creation of harmonized multi-omics datasets. Such standardization would facilitate more accurate cross-study comparisons and contribute to a more cohesive understanding of coral-microbe interactions.

5.2. *The Depth influences Eunicella singularis microbiome*

Eunicella, a soft gorgonian coral species commonly found in the Mediterranean Sea, possesses a microbiome that exhibits changes in taxonomic composition and function with depth. In shallow coral samples, the microbial community was predominantly composed of *Symbiodinium*, which explains the prevalence of photosynthesis and carbon fixation genes. In addition, some bacterial taxa, such as *Spiroplasma*, showed shallow depth preference. In contrast, the mesophotic *Eunicella* samples showed a higher prevalence of prokaryotes, such as *Thalassolituus*, BD1-7 clade, and *Aquimarina*. Moreover, the mesophotic microbiome showed a higher abundance of metabolic pathways related to carbon metabolism, suggesting its ability to adapt to various alternative sources of carbon. In addition, it showed a higher gene abundance related to cofactors and energy metabolism, suggesting higher microbial activity. These findings shed light on the poorly understood aspects of coral-bacterial symbiosis and highlight potential pathways for further research.

5.3. *The impact of the thermal stress on D. pertusum microbiome*

To ensure deep-ocean sustainability, addressing the implications of climate change is imperative (Chapron et al., 2021; Dodds et al., 2007; Gori et al., 2014; Naumann et al., 2014). The relationship between corals and microorganisms is crucial for resilience and ecosystem health. However, the manifold effects of climate change on coral holobionts, including cold-water corals, remain inadequately understood (Chapron et al., 2021). Our investigation sheds light on the functional responses of the *D. pertusum* microbiome to extended thermal stress, revealing augmentation in specific metabolic pathways, particularly the carbon, nitrogen, and secretion systems. These findings suggest that microbial responses are adapting to utilize diverse forms of nitrogen and carbon as alternative energy sources. This indicates a potential shift in the microbiome community, with a possible increase in methylotrophs and denitrifiers. In addition, an increase in water temperature could incentivize pathogenic activity and enhance the thriving of opportunistic pathogens, such as Rhodobacterales. Although relevant in characterizing gene abundances, our research did not encompass the active expression of these genes. The future application of meta-transcriptomic and other -omics methodologies offers a promising avenue for a more profound understanding of the functionality of the *D. pertusum* microbiome. These insights are invaluable for forecasting future scenarios and advancing the conservation of benthic communities, which is crucial for mitigating the impact of thermal stress.

5.4. *Future Perspectives*

5.4.1. *The Nature of Endozoicomonas-Coral symbiosis*

The coral microbiome field is highly dynamic, emphasizing the need to explore the symbiotic relationships between coral hosts and their diverse symbionts. The symbiotic relationship between corals and endosymbiotic dinoflagellates is well established in symbiotic corals. In contrast, prokaryote-coral symbiosis is ubiquitous across all coral types, underscoring its broad ecological significance. As previously described (Section 4.4.), the importance of this relationship still has many aspects that remain to be discovered. For example, *Endozoicomonas* has been widely identified as a coral symbiont bacterium. Recently, advances in metagenomic tools and the availability of *Endozoicomonas* genomes have led to a reassessment of the nature of this relationship. Metagenomic evidence, including genome size, insertion sequence (IS) expansion, pseudogenization, and the presence of eukaryotic-like proteins (ELPs) such as TPRs and ARPs, as well as secretion systems, suggests the potential for different types of symbiosis, such as commensalism, parasitism, or opportunistic pathogenesis.

In certain instances, the genome size of *Endozoicomonas* can be notably large, surpassing 7Mb, particularly in coral isolates (Pogoreutz et al., 2022). Large bacterial genomes often reflect significant selection pressures, exemplifying a prokaryotic strategy to accommodate diverse environmental challenges through expanded metabolic and regulatory capabilities. This suggests that *Endozoicomonas* may adopt an opportunistic lifestyle that extends beyond a strict host-associated setting. (Pogoreutz & Ziegler, 2024). Ding et al. (Ding et al., 2016) delineated various degrees of coral host specificity within *Endozoicomonas*. They identified *Endozoicomonas montiporae* as a potentially host-restricted facultative endosymbiont characterized by signs of genomic insertion sequence (IS) expansion and pseudogenization. The expansion of IS elements often indicates adaptation to a new niche or specialization towards a specific lifestyle, which can include mutualism, parasitism, or pathogenesis (Siguier et al., 2014).

One potential way to address this is to investigate the genomes of different coral species. Comparing the different genomes at the phylogenetic and metabolic levels could open doors to understanding the different possible roles of each *Endoziaomonas* taxon in each coral host. It is possible that some coral species may benefit from this symbiosis more than others. However, it has been suggested that coral- *Endoziaomonas* symbiosis has a species-specific nature (Hochart et al., 2023). Yet the specific role of these taxa needs further research, studying the genomic insertion expansion and how the coral host communicates with the specific *Endoziaomonas*.

5.4.2. Other microbiome taxa

Some other microbial taxa, such as Firmicutes, were found to be dominant along with *Endoziaomonas* in shallow-water gorgonian species from the Caribbean. However, we could not detect domination of Firmicutes in the Gorgonian *Eunicella Singularis* from the Mediterranean Sea, which raises the question of whether this relationship is more influenced by the geographical distribution of the coral's phylogenetic type. In contrast, the microbial taxon of the genus *Bermanella* was found to be dominant along with *Endoziaomonas* in the mesophotic *Eunicella Singularis* microbiome. However, the role of *Bermanella* in the coral microbiome remains poorly understood. To date, only one species belonging to this genus has been described, and its specific role remains unclear. *Bermanella* has been suggested to participate in hydrocarbon degradation, which could indicate a specialized environmental niche.

5.4.3. The impact of thermal stress on CWC microbial nitrogen

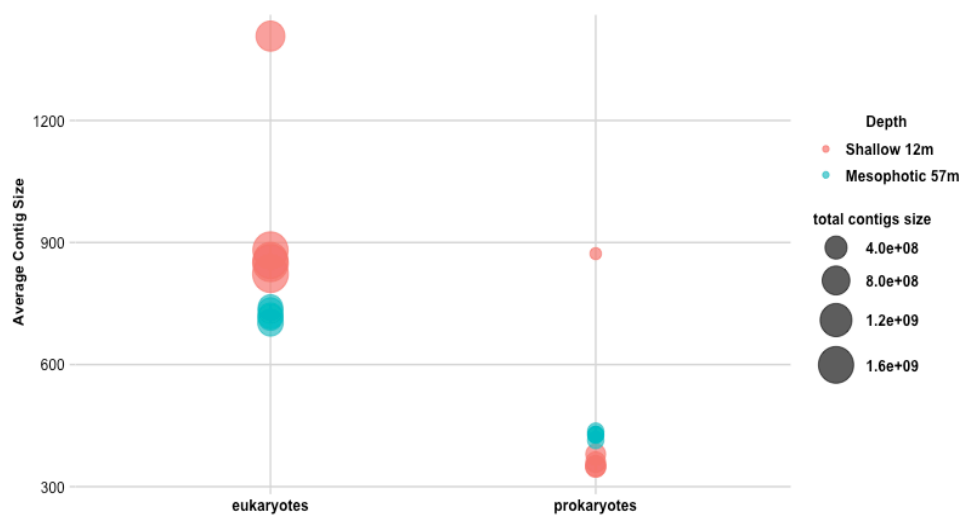
During analysis of thermal stress impact on the cold-water coral *D. pertusum* microbiome, we observed an increase in denitrification genes, potentially indicating heightened fixed nitrogen loss. Concurrently, Rhodobacterales MAGs, notably *Mangrovicoccus*, showed an increase, suggesting potential diazotrophic activity. This implies corals may enhance diazotrophs to mitigate excessive nitrogen loss. Further investigation is needed to quantify N₂ loss under thermal stress compared to DIN

production and nitrogen fixation. Additionally, exploring gene expression profiles related to formaldehyde assimilation, denitrification, and nitrification will provide deeper insights into their activity and regulation, enhancing understanding of their roles in microbiome responses to environmental stressors like temperature increases.

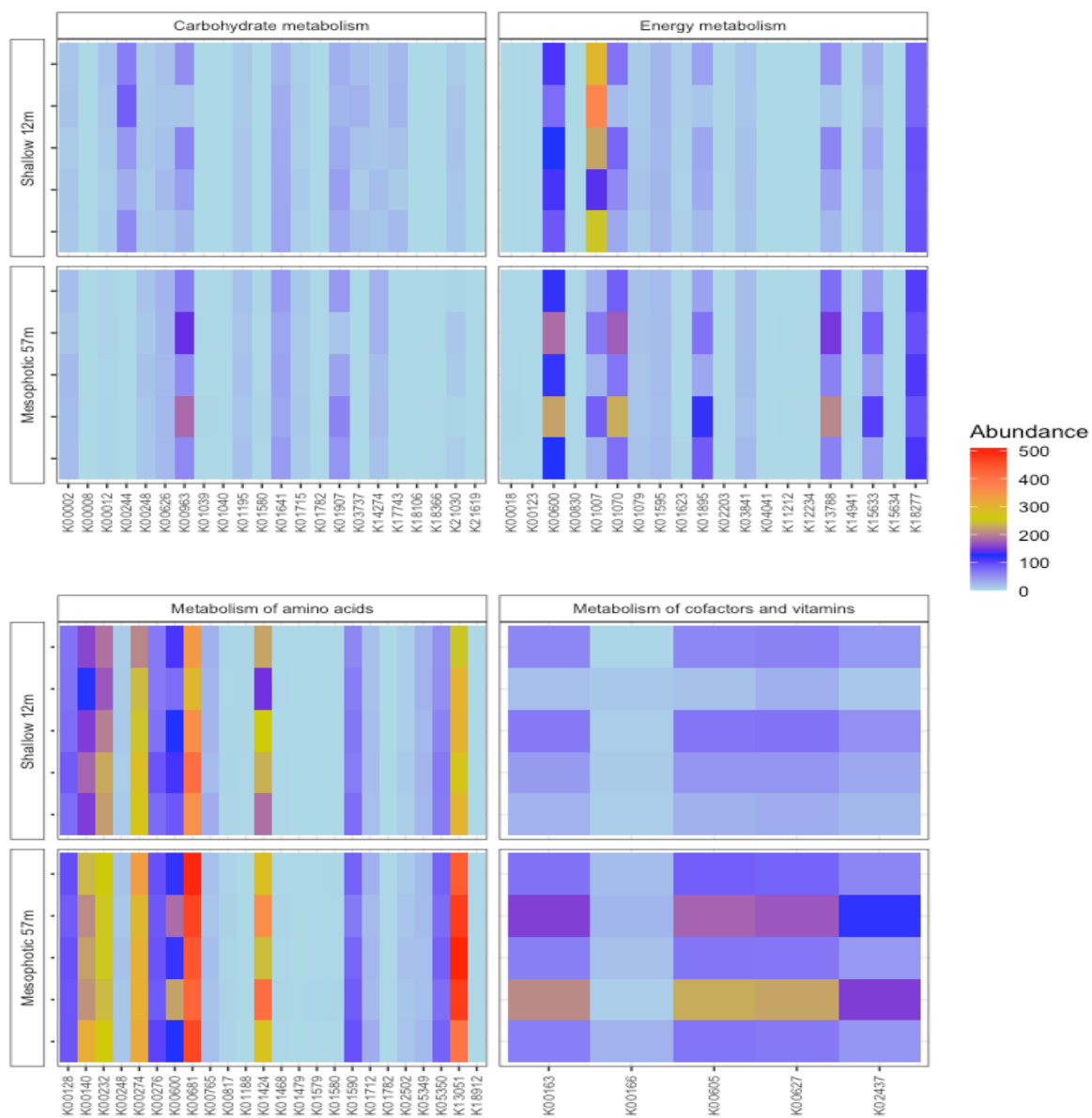


6. Supplementary Figures and Tables

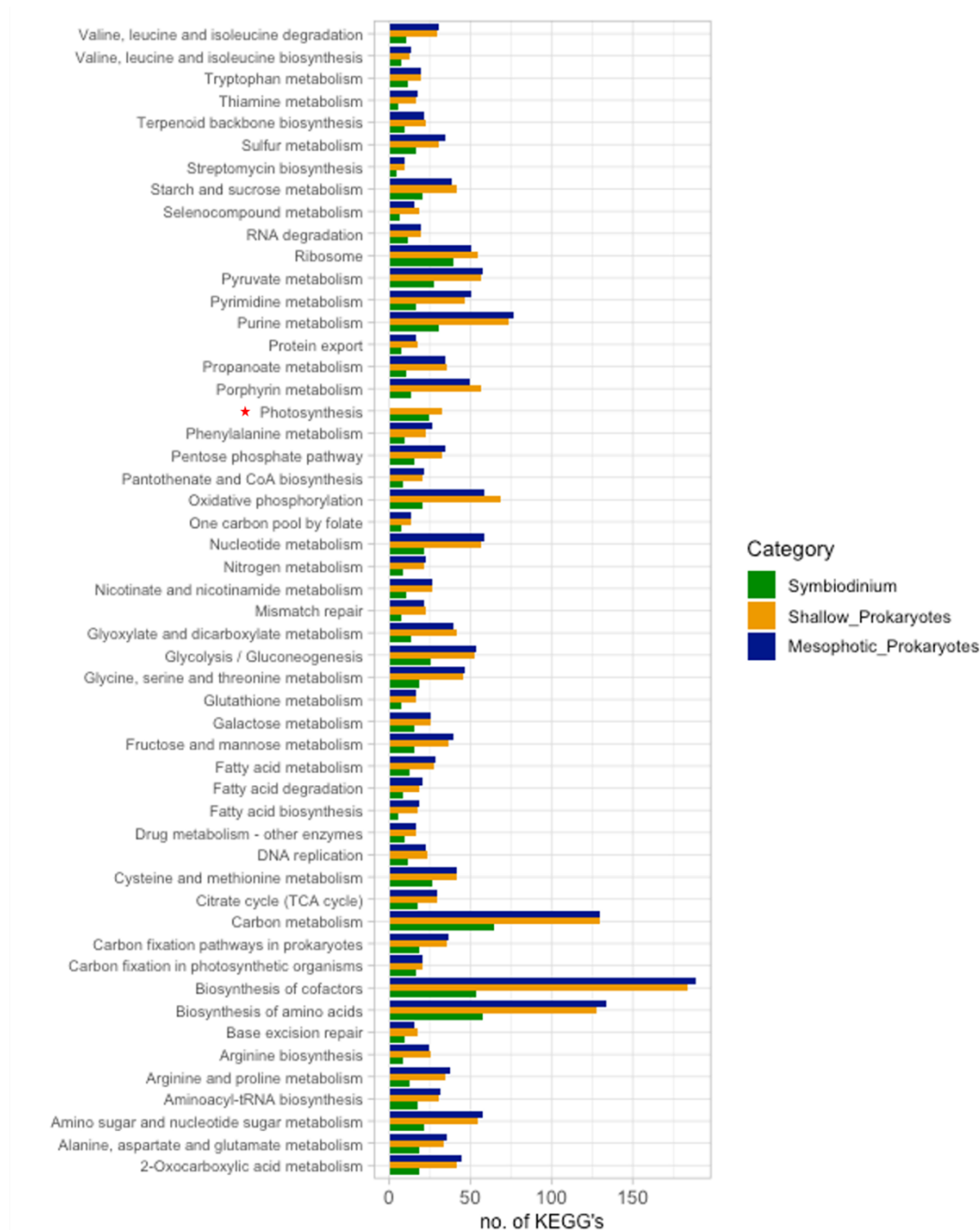
6.1. *Supplementary Figures*



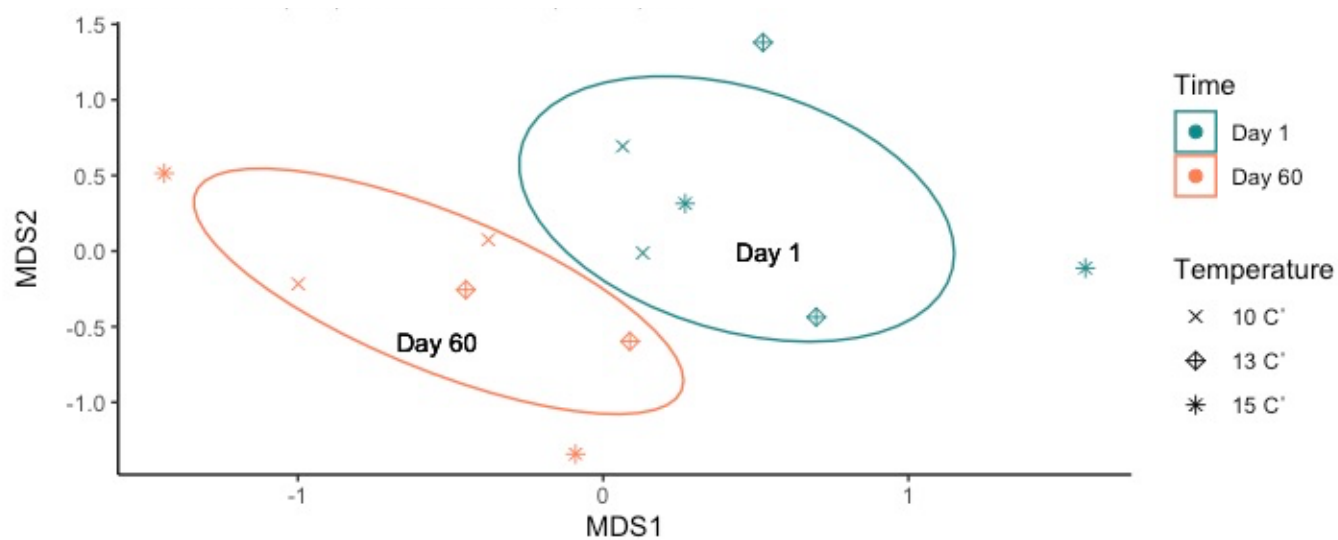
Supplementary Figure 1. Comparison of eukaryotic and prokaryotic contig sizes in shallow and mesophotic coral samples. Shallow metagenomes featured larger eukaryotic contigs, whereas mesophotic metagenomes exhibited slightly larger prokaryotic contigs than those in shallow samples.



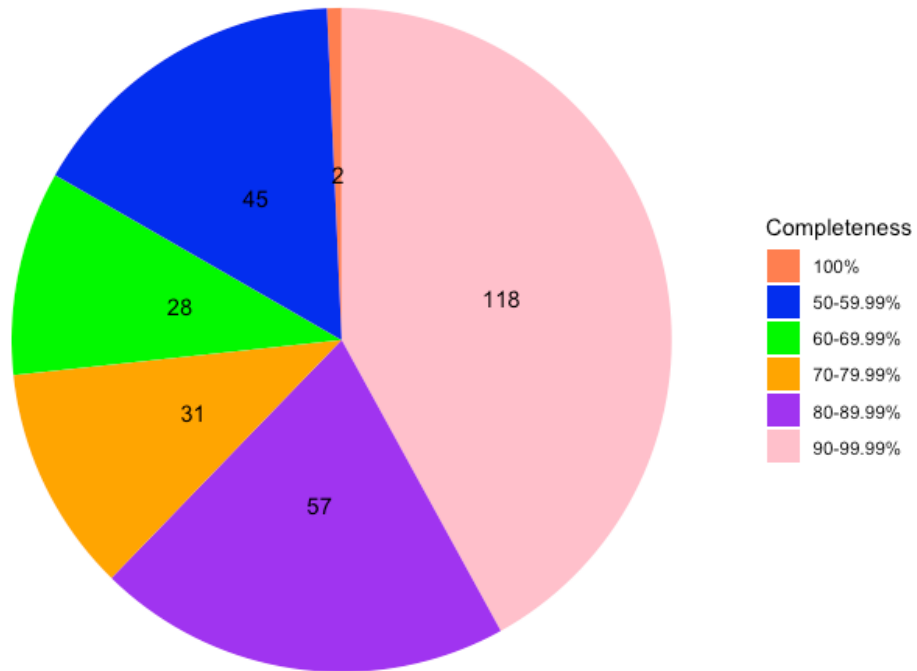
Supplementary Figure 2. Enrichment analysis of prokaryotic KEGG pathways in four metabolic categories: carbohydrate metabolism, energy metabolism, amino acid metabolism, and cofactor and vitamin metabolism between the shallow and mesophotic samples.



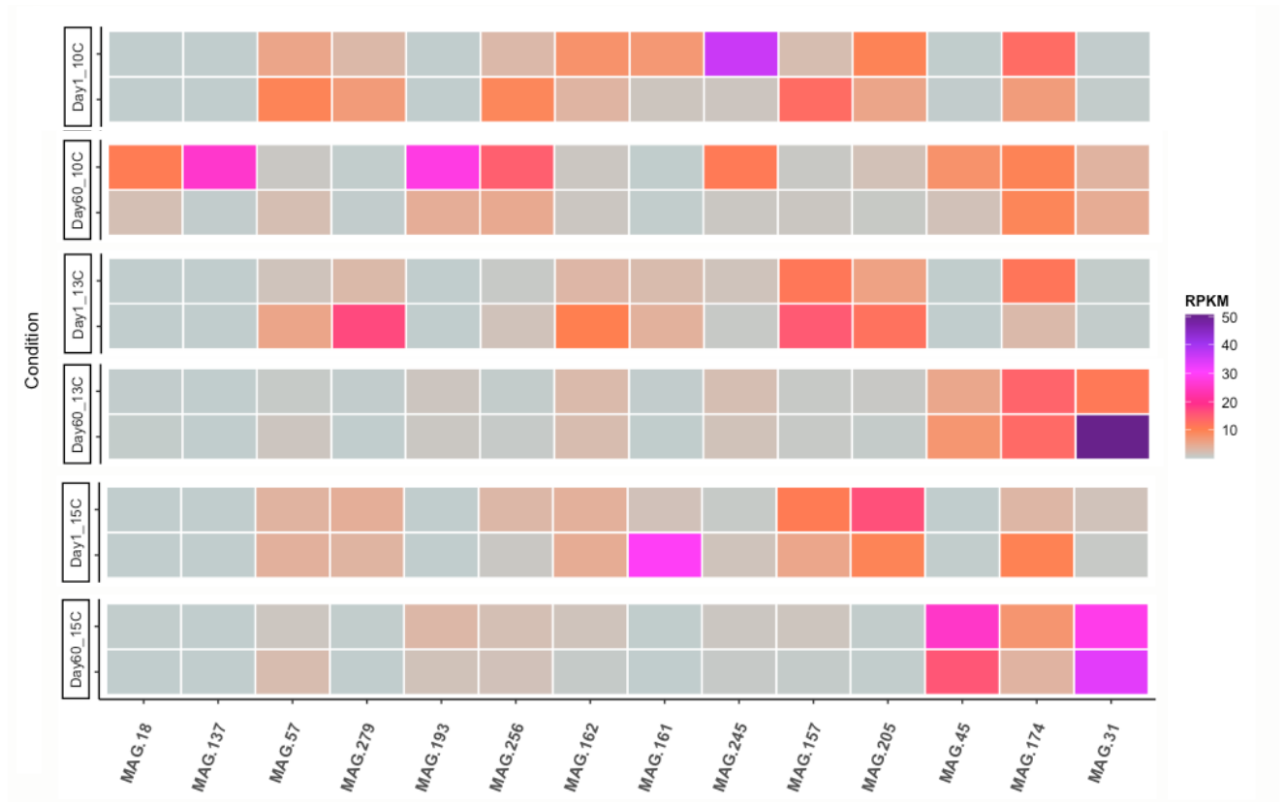
Supplementary Figure 3. Shared enriched KEGG pathways between *Symbiodinium* and the prokaryotic community in the *Eunicella* microbiome. The photosynthesis pathway (marked with a star) was only found in shallow communities. However, the mesophotic microbiome showed more KEGGs related to the metabolism of cofactors, vitamins, and amino acid biosynthesis.



Supplementary Figure 4: Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities among the prokaryotic gene compositions of *D. pertusum* samples. Two clusters of prokaryotic genes were observed at the experiment's start (day 1) and end (day 60) at 10°C, 13°C, and 15°C.



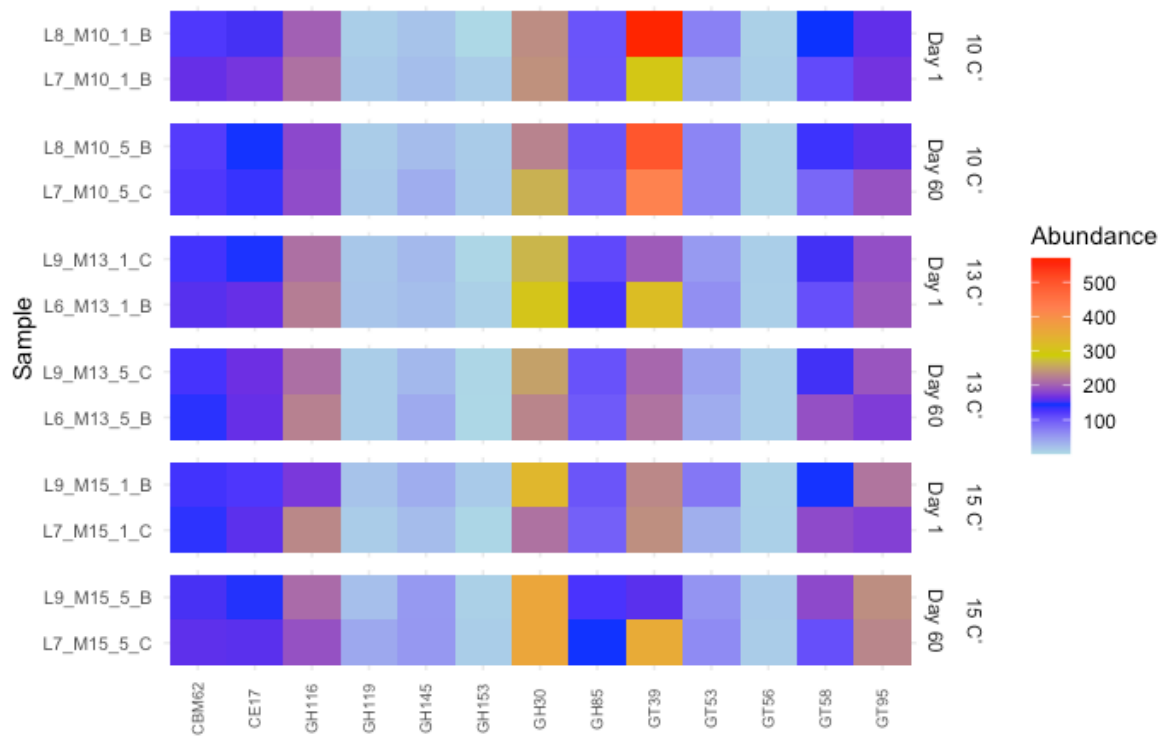
Supplementary Figure 5: Completeness of 281 MAGs and their quantities in the replicated set.



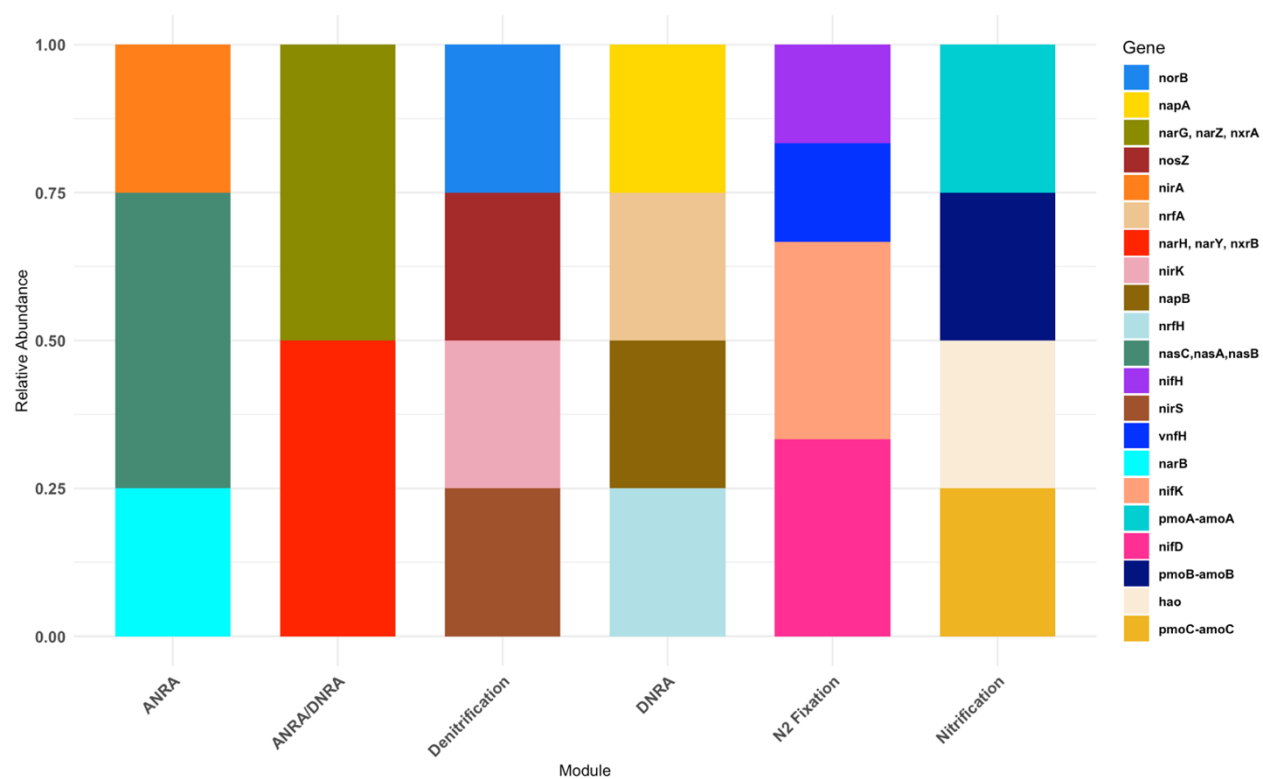
Supplementary Figure 7: Heatmap of the most variants MAG RPKM between the two temporal groups under three thermal conditions.



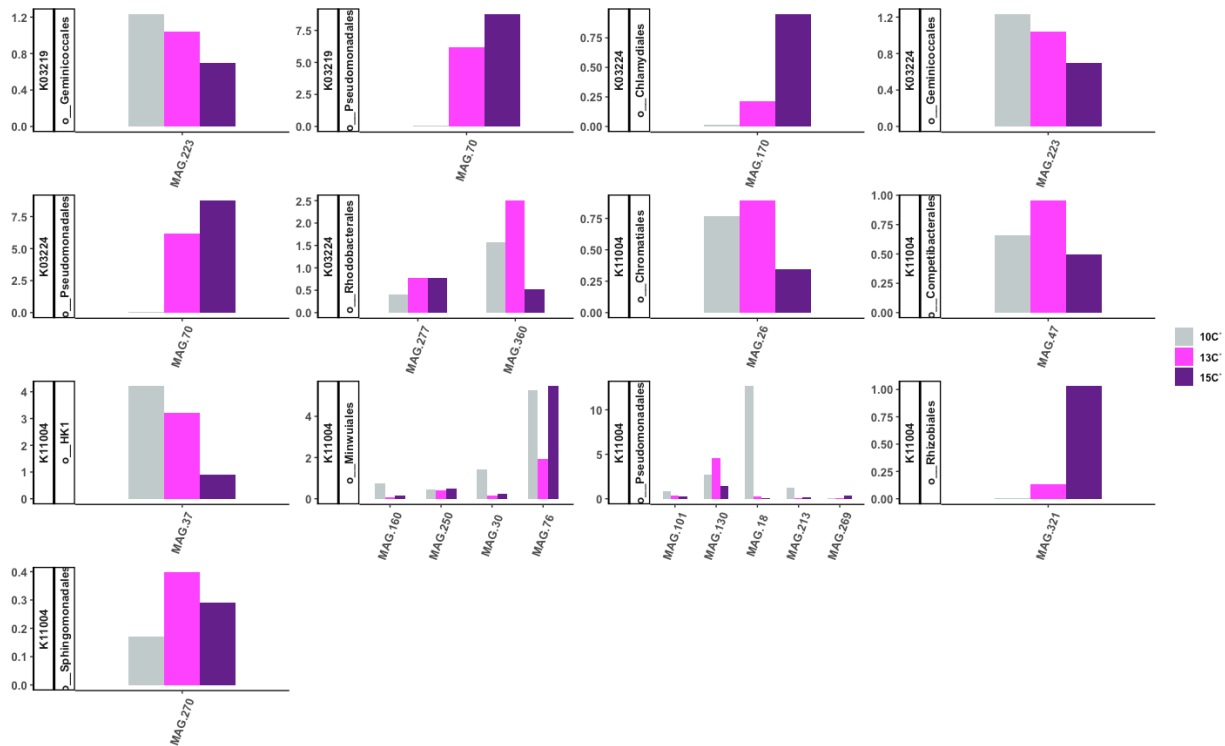
Supplementary Figure 8: Complete formaldehyde assimilation (serine pathway) module genes showed an increase in gene abundance with increased temperature (p-value < 0.05).



Supplementary Figure 9: Significant variation in CAZy enzymes between 10C°, 13C°, and 15C based on SIMPER analysis results (p-value < 0.05) with relative abundance. It shows increasing in abundance in Glycoside Hydrolase family enzymes such as GH30 and GH116



Supplementary Figure 10: Bar plots represent the nitrogen genes relative abundance in each nitrogen cycle pathway.



Supplementary Figure 11: Bar plots displaying the RPKM abundance of MAGs associated with secretion systems across different treatments on Day 60. K03219 (T3SS) was detected in Geminicoccales and Pseudomonadales. K03224 (T3SS) was present in Pseudomonadales, Chlamydiales, Rhodobacterales, and Geminicoccales, and its abundance increased with temperature. K11004 (T1SS) was identified in 14 MAGs across seven orders, including Pseudomonadales, Minwuiiales, Chromatiales, Rhizobiales, Sphingomonadales, HK1 (Class: Gammaproteobacteria), and Competibacterales.

6.2. *Supplementary Tables*

Supplementary Table 1: Contig Information (Eukaryotic and Prokaryotic): Number, Average Size (bp), and Total Contigs Size (bp) per Sample from different depths.

sample	organism	number of contigs	contig average size	total contigs size	depth
12.1	eukaryotes	1,812,546	881.121	1,597,071,722	Shallow 12m
12.2	eukaryotes	1,812,621	855.915	1,551,450,049	Shallow 12m
12.3	eukaryotes	2,022,747	822.925	1,664,569,646	Shallow 12m
12.4	eukaryotes	642,335	1407.35	903,988,590	Shallow 12m
12.5	eukaryotes	1,947,239	849.573	1,654,322,003	Shallow 12m
57.1	eukaryotes	755,189	740.35	559,104,503	Mesophotic 57m
57.2	eukaryotes	831,814	716.211	595,754,011	Mesophotic 57m
57.3	eukaryotes	888,969	702.66	624,642,918	Mesophotic 57m
57.4	eukaryotes	804,690	732.387	589,344,797	Mesophotic 57m
57.5	eukaryotes	819,354	719.743	589,724,711	Mesophotic 57m
12.1	prokaryotes	793,457	360.261	285,851,243	Shallow 12m
12.2	prokaryotes	750,982	379.703	285,150,215	Shallow 12m
12.3	prokaryotes	893,865	349.022	311,978,851	Shallow 12m
12.4	prokaryotes	117,120	872.701	102,210,734	Shallow 12m
12.5	prokaryotes	862,038	350.423	302,078,320	Shallow 12m
57.1	prokaryotes	340,504	427.848	145,683,991	Mesophotic 57m
57.2	prokaryotes	380,921	427.37	162,794,321	Mesophotic 57m
57.3	prokaryotes	395,994	414.12	163,989,073	Mesophotic 57m
57.4	prokaryotes	378,794	435.599	165,002,407	Mesophotic 57m
57.5	prokaryotes	372,199	427.65	159,170,890	Mesophotic 57m

Supplementary Table 2: Relative abundance and taxonomic classification of rRNA mTAGs for the most abundant taxa

phylum	class	order	family	genus	12.1	12.2	12.3	12.4	12.5	57.1	57.2	57.3	57.4	57.5	57.4	57.5
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Oceanospirillales	Endozoicomonadaceae	Endozoicomonas	61.61%	75.94%	80.52%	39.85%	72.06%	96.10%	96.89%	96.84%	96.76%	95.92%	96.76%	95.92%
Dinoflagellata	Dinophyceae	Suessiales	Symbiodiniaceae	Symbiodinium	36.62%	20.66%	17.24%	59.06%	25.33%	0.04%	0.11%	0.22%	0.02%	0.18%	0.02%	0.18%
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Oceanospirillales	Saccharosporiaceae	Bernanella	1.53%	2.11%	1.85%	0.98%	1.68%	2.39%	2.29%	2.23%	2.32%	2.26%	2.32%	2.26%
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Cellvibrionales	Spongilbacteriaceae	BD1-7-clade	0.01%	0.00%	0.05%	0.05%	0.03%	0.42%	0.58%	0.49%	0.36%	0.83%	0.36%	0.83%
Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Sphingomonadales	Sphingomonadaceae	Sphingomonas	0.00%	1.14%	0.25%	0.00%	0.54%	0.84%	0.00%	0.00%	0.29%	0.65%	0.29%	0.65%
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Cellvibrionales	Halieaceae	Haloglobus	0.05%	0.08%	0.05%	0.04%	0.06%	0.06%	0.06%	0.06%	0.08%	0.07%	0.08%	0.07%
Firmicutes		Mycoplasmatales	Mycoplasmataceae	Mycoplasma	0.03%	0.06%	0.04%	0.00%	0.05%	0.07%	0.04%	0.06%	0.03%	0.03%	0.03%	0.03%
Firmicutes	Bacilli	Entomoplasmatales	Spiroplasmataceae	Spiroplasma	0.14%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%	0.23%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Oceanospirillales	Saccharosporiaceae	Thalassotilus	0.01%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%	0.03%	0.05%	0.06%	0.06%	0.06%	0.06%
Bacteroidota	Bacteroidia	Flavobacteriales	Flavobacteriaceae	Aquimarina	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.05%	0.00%	0.06%	0.09%	0.00%	0.09%	0.00%

Supplementary Table 3: Microbial niche breadth results based on levins.Bn threshold(Bn), where the taxa above (Levins. Bn > 0.9, p-value => 0.05) are considered generalists and the taxa below (Levins. Bn < 0.5, p-value < 0.05) are considered specialists. The adjusted p-values (P.adj) control for multiple comparisons. P.adj < 0.05, indicating significant differences in niche breadth measures, whereas P.adj > 0.05, suggesting no significance. Below LOQ (limit of quantification) indicates whether taxa were falsely identified as generalists or specialists. If y means a high probability of false identification and If N means a low probability of false identification.

genus	Bn	P.val	P.adj	Below.LOQ
Aquimarina	0.557	0.003	0.006	N
BD1-7clade	0.538	0.001	0.005	N
Bermanella	0.885	0.601	0.641	N
Endozoicomonas	0.88	0.641	0.641	N
Halioglobus	0.927	0.333	0.416	N
Mycoplasma	0.939	0.276	0.394	N
Sphingomonas	0.999	0.084	0.14	N
Spiroplasma	0.5	0.0003	0.002	N
Symbiodinium	0.505	0.0004	0.002	N
Thalassolituus	0.548	0.002	0.006	N

Supplementary Table 4: Description of KEGG Pathways Showing Significant Differences (q-value < 0.05) Based on SIMPER Analyses (Contrast Shallow - Mesophotic) in Symbiodinium and Prokaryotic Communities

Organism	ID	Description	qvalue	geneID	Count
Symbiodinium	ko00195	Photosynthesis	4.90E-16	K02108/K02109/K02110/K02111/K02112/K02113/K02114/K02115/K02634/K02636/K02639/K02641/K02689/K02691/K02692/K02693/K02699/K02703/K02705/K02708/K02713/K02716/K02719/K02720/K08906	25
	ko00710	Carbon fixation in photosynthetic organisms	6.88E-13	K00024/K00029/K00134/K00615/K00814/K00855/K00927/K01006/K01595/K01601/K01610/K01623/K01624/K01783/K01803/K01807/K03841	17
	ko00910	Nitrogen metabolism	0.021881587	K00265/K00266/K00362/K00459/K01673/K01674/K01725/K01915/K02575	9
Prokaryotes (Shallow)	ko00195	Photosynthesis	1.86E-12	K02108/K02109/K02110/K02111/K02112/K02113/K02114/K02115/K02634/K02636/K02637/K02639/K02641/K02689/K02690/K02691/K02692/K02694/K02698/K02699/K02703/K02704/K02705/K02706/K02707/K02716/K02717/K02719/K02720/K08902/K08903/K08904/K08906	33
	ko00440	Phosphonate and phosphinate metabolism	0.031053936	K01841/K03430/K03823/K05306/K05780/K06162/K06164/K06165/K06166/K06167/K09459/K19670	12
Prokaryotes (Mesophotic)	ko00984	Steroid degradation	0.000116242	K01822/K03333/K05898/K15982/K16045/K16047/K16049/K16051/K18687	9
	ko00040	Pentose and glucuronate interconversions	0.001650433	K00002/K00008/K00012/K00040/K00853/K00879/K00963/K01195/K01628/K01686/K01783/K01805/K01812/K03077/K03078/K03079/K13877/K14274/K18106/K21030/K21619/K21681/K22185/K22187	24
	ko00680	Methane metabolism	0.002591563	K00018/K00024/K00058/K00121/K00123/K00600/K00625/K00830/K00831/K00850/K00918/K00925/K01007/K01070/K01079/K01595/K01623/K01624/K01689/K01834/K01895/K02203/K02446/K03396/K03841/K04041/K05979/K07812/K08691/K11212/K11532/K11645/K11779/K12234/K13788/K13831/K14083/K14941/K15633/K15634/K18277/K21071	42
	ko00907	Pinene, camphor and geraniol degradation	0.002591563	K00632/K01640/K01692/K01782/K01825/K11731/K12957/K13775/K13778/K13779	10
	ko00660	C5-Branched dibasic acid metabolism	0.009103673	K00052/K01575/K01652/K01653/K01703/K01704/K01902/K01903/K08691/K09011	10
	ko00564	Glycerophospholipid metabolism	0.022566636	K00057/K00111/K00570/K00631/K00655/K00901/K00980/K00981/K00995/K01048/K01058/K01095/K01115/K01126/K01613/K03735/K03736/K05939/K06131/K06900/K08591/K08744/K13622/K17103/K17717	25

Supplementary Table 5: Shared KEGG Pathways and KO's among prokaryotes in shallow and mesophotic communities.

[illegible]

Supplementary Table 6: Description of the shared KOs between *Symbiodinium* (shallow) and prokaryotic (shallow and mesophotic) communities that showed significant variation in abundance of KOs (read counts per gene normalized by gene length and the geometric mean abundance of 10 selected single-copy genes) across depths.

Description	gene	adj. P-Val	Symbiodinium					Prokaryotes (Shallow)					Prokaryotes (Mesophotic)				
			12.1	12.2	12.3	12.4	12.5	12.1	12.2	12.3	12.4	12.5	57.1	57.2	57.3	57.4	57.5
Amino sugar and nucleotide sugar metabolism	K08678	0.0036	0.87	0.34	0.72	0.87	0.77	261.23	286.23	255.87	226.63	235.09	340.68	311.06	334.33	334.65	308.63
Carbon fixation in photosynthetic organisms	K01601	0.0034	264.07	140.00	225.35	396.82	292.23	428.18	221.28	365.35	640.56	480.67	0.41	0.27	0.25	0.50	0.28
Carbon fixation pathways in prokaryotes	K01007	0.0038	195.51	109.05	173.39	307.90	228.41	249.06	138.63	226.10	374.06	294.54	25.93	82.10	25.44	64.77	28.03
Carbon metabolism	K00232	0.0085	5.13	2.01	3.39	5.54	5.26	219.48	229.92	199.26	171.06	188.97	260.10	242.02	251.28	251.19	259.34
Cysteine and methionine metabolism	K00558	0.0034	1636.77	879.94	1399.60	2462.52	1861.24	516.25	348.32	539.06	698.98	647.55	126.85	406.38	126.60	312.46	147.36
Cysteine and methionine metabolism	K17398	0.0034	742.73	446.60	657.43	1151.64	839.04	160.43	96.72	140.02	241.38	187.43	0.03	0.00	0.04	0.03	0.05
DNA replication	K03469	0.0043	289.32	154.94	246.48	418.34	328.12	193.44	148.66	202.53	246.22	239.39	87.70	231.30	84.03	177.13	101.62
Glutathione metabolism	K00681	0.006	1.33	0.60	1.22	1.96	1.71	355.78	410.42	361.00	294.32	345.78	463.34	424.24	445.40	469.27	495.38
Starch and sucrose metabolism	K01179	0.003	501.27	254.78	420.56	333.65	540.48	95.39	95.55	66.11	60.78	90.60	134.80	86.74	110.24	93.21	110.15

Supplementary Table 7: Summary of 15 De-replicated MAGs: GDBT taxonomic classification, completeness, quality, and abundance (RPKM) across samples from different depths

Genome	classification					Genome information			Mapped Reads abundance (reads per volume of genome and libraries of metagenome, RPKM)										
	phylum	class	order	family	genus	completeness	GC	genome size	NSD	12.1	12.2	12.3	12.4	12.5	57.1	57.2	57.3	57.4	57.5
MAG 2	Firmicutes	Bacilli	Micodermatiales	Micodermataceae	Micodermataceae	96.61	0.244	640089	231400	0.001	0.006	0.005	161.484	0.089	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001
MAG 309811	GCA-001730085	GCA-001730085	GCA-001730085	GCA-001730086	GCA-001730087	95.85	0.31	150068	53933	2.461	0.008	0.001	3.942	0.010	0.001	0.000	1.349	0.000	0.001
MAG 13	Firmicutes	Bacilli	Micodermatiales	Mezodermataceae	OT-68	66.38	0.322	540850	5261	18.655	7.632	5.025	8.004	6.964	8.239	3.889	11.594	5.046	9.564
MAG 332111	Cyanobacteria	Cyanobacteria	Pseudonitellales	Pseudonitellaceae	SINACI	95.18	0.51	591946	37874	5.328	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
MAG 25993	Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Gammaorders	Gammaorders	Gammaorders	90.55	0.3	254753	3913	273.317	335.751	344.668	131.105	313.282	359.912	379.658	371.884	377.000	358.219
MAG 8	Firmicutes	Bacilli	Micodermatiales	OT-31	OT-31	91.76	0.288	551279	11975	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	2.512
MAG 16	Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Pseudonitellales	Gammaorders	Gammaorders	81.04	0.238	1098866	6516	1.236	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
MAG 12	Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Pseudonitellales	Gammaorders	Gammaorders	97.83	0.444	4135921	25656	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
MAG 15	Proteobacteria	Bacilli	Micodermatiales	OT-31	OT-31	87.8	0.313	1800029	9098	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
MAG 10	Firmicutes	Bacilli	Micodermatiales	OT-31	OT-31	71.62	0.27	440729	38731	11.438	8.599	4.380	10.827	10.827	10.827	10.827	10.827	10.827	10.827
MAG 22	Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Spirillumales	Spirillumaceae	Spirillum	99.65	0.675	3884728	315502	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
MAG 220783	Proteobacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Spirillumales	Spirillumaceae	Spirillum	70.8	0.57	114775	2357	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
MAG 14	Firmicutes	Bacilli	Micodermatiales	OT-31	OT-31	88.53	0.13	717064	10028	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
MAG 30278	Bacteroidetes	Bacteroidia	Bacteroidales	Bacteroidaceae	Bacteroides	69.46	0.4	1401504	2961	0.281	0.047	0.049	0.049	0.049	0.049	0.049	0.049	0.049	0.049
MAG 17	Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Pseudonitellales	Gammaorders	Gammaorders	94.44	0.659	3865921	16936	1.197	0.172	0.111	1.614	0.328	0.031	0.282	1.141	0.131	1.093

Supplementary Table 8: KO's found in MAGs related to different metabolic functions, i.e., carbon cycle, vitamin production, and secretion systems.

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

Supplementary Table 9: Contig Information (Eukaryotic and Prokaryotic) across the temporal groups under different thermal conditions showing total contigs size (bp) and the total contigs number per sample.

Time Group	Condition (°C)	Sample	domain	total_contigs_size (bp)	contigs_number
Day 1	13	L6_M13_1_B	prokaryotes	847,008,122	1,265,249
Day 60	13	L6_M13_5_B	prokaryotes	478,793,126	970,051
Day 1	10	L7_M10_1_B	prokaryotes	511,507,307	907,034
Day 60	10	L7_M10_5_C	prokaryotes	683,958,687	1,114,800
Day 1	15	L7_M15_1_C	prokaryotes	432,304,543	874,149
Day 60	15	L7_M15_5_C	prokaryotes	1,094,186,911	1,672,233
Day 1	10	L8_M10_1_B	prokaryotes	251,900,850	567,468
Day 60	10	L8_M10_5_B	prokaryotes	547,238,991	1,037,847
Day 1	13	L9_M13_1_C	prokaryotes	645,896,896	1,215,322
Day 60	13	L9_M13_5_C	prokaryotes	381,168,607	809,221
Day 1	15	L9_M15_1_B	prokaryotes	535,522,600	844,284
Day 60	15	L9_M15_5_B	prokaryotes	704,974,546	1,195,885
Day 1	13	L6_M13_1_B	eukaryotes	907,923,753	1,476,666
Day 60	13	L6_M13_5_B	eukaryotes	767,621,933	1,313,759
Day 1	10	L7_M10_1_B	eukaryotes	769,131,077	1,183,494
Day 60	10	L7_M10_5_C	eukaryotes	730,764,997	1,148,468
Day 1	15	L7_M15_1_C	eukaryotes	795,370,217	1,307,148
Day 60	15	L7_M15_5_C	eukaryotes	949,413,031	1,607,995
Day 1	10	L8_M10_1_B	eukaryotes	710,766,425	1,125,002
Day 60	10	L8_M10_5_B	eukaryotes	794,214,961	1,361,359
Day 1	13	L9_M13_1_C	eukaryotes	916,716,066	1,582,596
Day 60	13	L9_M13_5_C	eukaryotes	734,891,053	1,210,909
Day 1	15	L9_M15_1_B	eukaryotes	647,793,163	941,429
Day 60	15	L9_M15_5_B	eukaryotes	741,245,968	1,136,609

Supplementary Table 10: Relative Abundance Table of *D. pertusum* Microbiome (Order-Level Taxonomy) at the Start and End of the Experiment Under Different Thermal Conditions

taxonomy				Day 1										Day 60									
				13° C					15° C					13° C					15° C				
phylum	class	order		L7_M10_1_B	L8_M10_1_B	L6_M13_1_B	L9_M13_1_B	L7_M15_1_C	L9_M15_1_B	L7_M10_5_B	L8_M10_5_B	L6_M13_5_B	L9_M13_5_B	L7_M15_5_C	L9_M15_5_B								
WP5-2	unknown	unknown		0.39%	0.04%	0.06%	0.13%	0.11%	0.17%	0.41%	0.12%	0.05%	0.06%	0.04%	0.06%								
Verrucomicrobiota	Verrucomicrobia	Verrucomicrobiales		0.19%	0.02%	0.10%	0.10%	0.17%	0.10%	0.27%	0.16%	0.23%	0.14%	0.21%	0.04%								
Verrucomicrobiota	Verrucomicrobia	Pedospirales		0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.05%	0.01%	0.01%	0.03%	0.08%	0.03%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%								
Verrucomicrobiota	Verrucomicrobia	Opitutales		0.38%	0.15%	0.10%	0.15%	0.12%	0.16%	0.78%	0.12%	0.12%	1.19%	0.14%	0.46%								
Verrucomicrobiota	Verrucomicrobia	Chthoniobacteriales		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%								
Verrucomicrobiota	Omnitrophia	Omnitrophales		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.07%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.07%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%								
Verrucomicrobiota	Leptisphaeria	Vicistiales		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.01%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%								
Verrucomicrobiota	Leptisphaeria	Palm-C41		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	5.08%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%								
Verrucomicrobiota	Leptisphaeria	Leptisphaerales		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.23%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.12%	0.03%	0.00%	0.03%								
Verrucomicrobiota	Kiritimatiellae	WCHB1-41		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%								
Verrucomicrobiota	Chlamydiae	Chlamydiales		0.03%	0.00%	0.07%	0.01%	0.13%	0.18%	0.27%	0.16%	0.27%	0.23%	0.23%	0.22%								
Sumerlaeota	Sumerlaeota	Sumerlaales		0.03%	0.00%	0.00%	0.05%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%								
Alphachlorota	Leptospirae	Leptospirales		0.01%	0.00%	0.01%	0.01%	0.01%	0.01%	0.04%	0.05%	0.01%	0.35%	0.01%	0.00%								
SAR324cladeMarinegroupB	unknown	unknown		0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.28%	0.00%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.02%	0.05%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	unknown		0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	uncultured		0.06%	0.00%	0.02%	0.03%	0.03%	0.01%	0.02%	0.02%	0.09%	0.10%	0.31%	0.23%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	sediment-surface35		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.10%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Xanthomonadales		0.04%	0.00%	0.02%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Vibrionales		7.27%	26.11%	20.35%	5.65%	2.45%	5.58%	0.46%	7.41%	2.93%	2.43%	2.43%	2.43%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	UBA4486		0.03%	0.00%	0.01%	0.01%	0.00%	0.01%	0.33%	0.56%	0.33%	0.20%	0.23%	0.48%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	UBA10353marinegroup		0.12%	0.00%	0.01%	0.03%	0.00%	0.03%	0.01%	0.04%	0.00%	0.05%	0.00%	0.00%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Thiotrichales		0.00%	0.00%	0.04%	0.00%	0.02%	0.10%	0.13%	0.22%	0.03%	0.01%	0.07%	0.11%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Thiomicrospirales		0.02%	0.04%	0.02%	0.01%	0.00%	0.01%	0.03%	0.00%	0.10%	0.00%	0.01%	0.07%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Thiohalorubiales		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.04%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Ferriplasmales		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.01%	0.00%	0.04%	0.01%	0.00%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Steroidobacteriales		0.26%	0.00%	0.03%	0.43%	0.25%	0.36%	0.31%	0.02%	0.73%	0.58%	0.12%	0.07%								
Proteobacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Salinisphaerales		0.00%	0.00%																		

Fusobacteriota	Fusobacteria	Fusobacteriales	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	2.21%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%
Firmicutes	Clostridia	Peptostreptococcales-Tissierellales	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.81%	0.04%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.40%
Firmicutes	Bacilli	Lactobacillales	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%
Firmicutes	Bacilli	Bacillales	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%	0.02%	0.01%	0.00%	0.02%	0.02%	0.00%	0.04%
Entothaeonellaeota	Entothaeonellia	Entothaeonellales	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.10%	0.00%	0.00%
Desulfobacterota	uncultured	unknown	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.01%	0.02%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.09%	0.05%
Desulfobacterota	Syntrophia	Syntrophales	0.00%	0.08%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%
Desulfobacterota	Desulfuromonadia	unknown	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.05%	0.03%	0.00%	0.00%
Desulfobacterota	Desulfuromonadia	P819	0.03%	0.00%	0.01%	0.06%	0.02%	0.04%	1.53%	0.06%	0.02%	0.06%	0.10%
Desulfobacterota	Desulfuromonadia	Bradymonadales	0.11%	0.00%	0.11%	0.11%	0.03%	0.10%	0.19%	0.08%	0.04%	0.04%	0.07%
Desulfobacterota	Desulfovibronia	Desulfovibrionales	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.82%	0.00%	0.00%	0.18%	1.27%
Desulfobacterota	Desulfobulbia	Desulfobulbales	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.06%	0.00%	0.04%
Desulfobacterota	Desulfobacteriia	Desulfobacteriales	0.06%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.00%	0.02%	0.00%	0.09%
Dependentiae	Babellae	Babellales	0.02%	0.00%	0.05%	0.00%	0.00%	0.05%	0.00%	0.00%	0.05%	0.06%	0.25%
Dadabacteria	Dadabacteria	Dadabacteriales	0.02%	0.00%	0.03%	0.02%	0.09%	0.15%	1.35%	0.11%	1.47%	3.73%	2.77%
Cyanobacteria	Vampiirivibronia	Obscuribacteriales	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.01%	0.00%	0.03%
Cyanobacteria	Sericytochromatia	unknown	0.04%	0.00%	0.02%	0.01%	0.01%	0.17%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Cyanobacteria	Cyanobacteria	Chloroplast	0.02%	0.03%	0.01%	0.03%	0.01%	0.01%	0.00%	0.09%	0.06%	0.13%	0.05%
Chloroflexi	Dehalococcoidia	SAR202-clade	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.05%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.50%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Chloroflexi	Anaerolineae	SBR1031	0.14%	0.00%	0.04%	0.13%	0.04%	0.07%	1.80%	1.72%	1.09%	1.54%	0.29%
Chloroflexi	Anaerolineae	Caldilineales	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%
Chloroflexi	Anaerolineae	Ardenticantales	0.18%	0.23%	0.10%	0.42%	0.07%	0.38%	2.29%	0.41%	0.32%	1.30%	1.49%
Campylobacterota	Campylobacteriia	Campylobacteriales	1.51%	0.96%	0.20%	1.87%	0.56%	1.36%	0.04%	0.00%	0.06%	0.04%	9.35%
Calditrichota	Calditrichia	Calditrichales	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.01%	0.18%	0.02%	0.07%	0.23%	0.03%
Bdellovibrionota	Oligoflexia	Oligoflexales	0.21%	0.44%	0.12%	0.01%	0.30%	0.49%	0.21%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.04%
Bdellovibrionota	Bdellovibrionia	Bdellovibrionales	0.24%	0.15%	0.63%	0.14%	0.13%	0.25%	1.23%	0.24%	0.24%	0.82%	1.02%
Bdellovibrionota	Bdellovibrionia	Bacteriovoracales	0.14%	0.34%	0.26%	0.11%	0.07%	0.07%	0.08%	0.16%	0.39%	0.09%	0.12%
Bacteroidota	Rhodothermia	Rhodothermales	0.45%	0.00%	0.03%	0.08%	0.09%	0.30%	0.43%	0.27%	0.27%	0.05%	0.70%
Bacteroidota	Rhodothermia	Baineolales	0.01%	0.00%	0.01%	0.01%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%
Bacteroidota	Kapabacteria	Kapabacteriales	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.03%	0.00%	0.00%	0.04%	0.05%	0.00%	0.01%
Bacteroidota	Bacteroidia	Sphingobacteriales	0.01%	0.02%	0.04%	0.00%	0.08%	0.06%	0.01%	0.01%	0.19%	0.00%	0.07%
Bacteroidota	Bacteroidia	ML602M-17	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%
Bacteroidota	Bacteroidia	Flavobacteriales	13.03%	5.13%	2.70%	4.39%	15.94%	12.35%	3.19%	0.39%	0.56%	3.04%	1.94%
Bacteroidota	Bacteroidia	Cytophagales	1.56%	0.40%	0.19%	1.06%	1.66%	4.93%	1.06%	3.51%	5.41%	1.52%	4.63%
Bacteroidota	Bacteroidia	Chitinophagales	3.99%	8.86%	3.35%	3.66%	2.11%	5.57%	9.23%	2.88%	1.48%	2.74%	1.19%
Bacteroidota	Bacteroidia	BacteroidetesVC2.1Bac22	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.08%	0.00%	0.04%	0.00%	0.00%	0.05%	0.02%
Bacteroidota	Bacteroidia	Bacteroidales	0.21%	0.03%	0.00%	0.59%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.01%	0.01%	0.02%	0.01%
Actinobacteriota	Thermoplasma	Gaiellales	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%	0.04%
Actinobacteriota	Actinobacteria	Propionibacteriales	0.03%	0.02%	0.01%	0.03%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.04%	0.02%	0.07%	0.01%
Actinobacteriota	Actinobacteria	Micrococcales	0.00%	0.09%	0.01%	0.01%	0.01%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%
Actinobacteriota	Actinobacteria	Corynebacteriales	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.01%	0.01%	0.01%	0.00%	0.03%
Actinobacteriota	Acidimicrobia	Microtrichales	0.32%	0.11%	0.22%	0.16%	0.40%	2.56%	4.88%	0.24%	0.94%	2.67%	4.74%
Actinobacteriota	Acidimicrobia	IMC26256	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.04%
Actinobacteriota	Acidimicrobia	Actinomartiales	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.02%	0.01%	0.03%	0.01%	0.03%	0.00%	0.00%
Acidobacteriota	Vicinamibacteria	Subgroup8	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.03%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%
Acidobacteriota	Vicinamibacteria	Subgroup17	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.07%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Acidobacteriota	Thermoanaerobaculia	Thermoanaerobaculiales	0.05%	0.06%	0.03%	0.07%	0.03%	0.03%	2.66%	0.02%	0.09%	8.32%	2.06%
Acidobacteriota	Subgroup22	unknown	0.02%	0.00%	0.05%	0.02%	0.01%	0.01%	0.09%	0.09%	0.18%	0.04%	0.08%
Acidobacteriota	Holophagae	Subgroup7	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%
Acidobacteriota	Holophagae	Acanthopleuribacteriales	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%	0.08%	0.17%	0.02%
Acidobacteriota	Blastocatella	Blastocatellales	0.01%	0.00%	0.01%	0.01%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.04%	0.10%	0.00%	0.01%
Acidobacteriota	Acidobacteriiae	PAUC26f	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Acetothermia	Acetothermia	unknown	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%
Nanoarchaeota	Nanoarchaeia	Woesearchaeales	0.04%	0.10%	0.00%	0.02%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.06%
Crenarchaeota	Nitrososphaeria	Nitrososphaeriales	0.04%	0.10%	0.01%	0.32%	0.24%	0.06%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.05%	0.00%

Supplementary Table 11: 281 de-replicated metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) information including taxonomy, completeness, and size

Genome	Classification	Completeness [%]	Contamination	GC	N50	Size [bp]
MAG.1	d__Bacteria;p__Bacteroidota;c__Bacteroidia;o__Cytophagales;f__Cyclobacteriaceae;g__UBA6059;s__	70.99	4.315	0.444	6152	4097614
MAG.10	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Pseudomonadales;f__Nitrospiraceae;g__Neptunilbacter;s__	79.52	2.238	0.446	6405	2713555
MAG.100	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Granulococcales;f__Granulococcaceae;g__s__	83.48	4.401	0.532	8335	5368582
MAG.101	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Pseudomonadales;f__HTCC2089;g__s__	54.45	1.666	0.538	4618	2929034
MAG.102	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Pseudomonadales;f__HTCC2089;g__UBA4582;s__	51.72	2.586	0.485	5190	4152802
MAG.103	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Phycisphaerae;o__Phycisphaerales;f__UBA1924;g__UBA1926;s__	94.31	0	0.678	88311	3965039
MAG.104	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__GCA-2731375;f__GCA-2731375;g__s__	91.52	2.318	0.563	19318	5310489
MAG.105	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Phycisphaerae;o__Phycisphaerales;f__UBA1924;g__UBA1924;s__	95.45	2.272	0.517	319647	2915416
MAG.106	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Litoreibacter;s__	98.08	1.204	0.565	132137	4506390
MAG.107	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Phycisphaerae;o__Phycisphaerales;f__SM1A02;g__s__	68.35	2.442	0.569	11277	2994732
MAG.108	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhizobiales;f__Rhodobiaceae;g__s__	54.14	0.791	0.593	4215	4234061
MAG.109	d__Bacteria;p__Actinobacteriota;c__Acidimicrobia;o__Acidimicrobiales;f__SZUA-35;g__CADEDH01;s__	80.9	3.418	0.666	48551	5898155
MAG.11	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Pseudomonadales;f__DSM-6294;g__Oceanobacter;s__	95.81	0.907	0.537	30656	4161600
MAG.111	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Mycovibrionales;f__UBA2020;g__s__	51.29	5.724	0.414	4000	988330
MAG.112	d__Bacteria;p__Mycococcota_A;c__UBA9160;o__UBA9160;f__g__s__	94.35	2.741	0.641	112605	7218910
MAG.113	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Cognatishimia;s__	55.25	0	0.539	4390	1764462
MAG.114	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__GCA-002687715;o__GCA-002687715;f__g__s__	50.07	3.056	0.594	3688	1707175
MAG.115	d__Bacteria;p__Eremiobacterota;c__Xenobiales;o__Xenobiales;f__JADMV01;g__s__	76.95	4.629	0.534	9636	7845607
MAG.116	d__Bacteria;p__Bacteroidota;c__Bacteroidia;o__Chitinophagales;f__Saprospiraceae;g__s__	99.5	1	0.366	128445	6348341
MAG.117	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Sphingomonadales;f__Sphingomonadaceae;g__Pontixanthobacter;s__	87.95	4.579	0.57	10600	2906456
MAG.118	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__UBA8366;f__GCA-2696645;g__GCA-2696645;s__	51.57	0.996	0.572	4416	1871161
MAG.119	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Sulfitobacter;s__Sulfitobacter mediterraneus	81.47	1.395	0.582	6393	3092074
MAG.12	d__Bacteria;p__Dependentiae;c__Babellae;o__Babellales;f__RVW-14;g__s__	63.57	2.197	0.377	5356	1060846
MAG.120	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Parasementitales;s__Parasementitales marina_A	99.16	0.844	0.542	181208	5208656
MAG.121	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Mangrovicoccus;s__	96.98	0.515	0.586	90627	4257309
MAG.122	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Pseudomonadales;f__UBA7434;g__s__	94.87	0.555	0.413	101804	3556077
MAG.123	d__Bacteria;p__Desulfobacterota_D;c__UBA1144;o__f__g__s__	82.28	4.201	0.383	10429	1928183
MAG.125	d__Bacteria;p__Mycococcota;c__Polyangia;o__Nannocystales;f__Nannocystaceae;g__s__	95.64	4.516	0.65	697735	11138351
MAG.126	d__Bacteria;p__Verrucomicrobiota;c__Verrucomicrobiae;o__Opitutales;f__DSM-45221;g__BACL24;s__	96.62	2.252	0.494	26348	3156521
MAG.127	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhizobiales;f__OSC116;g__s__	90.34	0.434	0.499	23547	3111790
MAG.128	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__PLA2;o__f__g__s__	90.9	2.272	0.685	75810	7051079
MAG.129	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Caulobacteriales;f__Maricaulaceae;g__Robigintomaculum_A;s__	99.18	0.324	0.498	433006	3288981
MAG.13	d__Bacteria;p__Bacteroidota;c__Bacteroidia;o__Chitinophagales;f__Saprospiraceae;g__Lewinella_A;s__	82.25	1.1	0.509	7527	6020282
MAG.130	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Pseudomonadales;f__Cellvibrionaceae;g__Marinagarivorans;s__	98.51	1.199	0.458	99767	4798301
MAG.131	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Phycisphaerae;o__Phycisphaerales;f__UBA1924;g__s__	86.69	0	0.663	16444	2515481
MAG.132	d__Bacteria;p__Bacteroidota;c__Bacteroidia;o__Chitinophagales;f__Saprospiraceae;g__DT-111;s__	54.88	2.777	0.427	4432	5807677
MAG.133	d__Bacteria;p__Patescibacteria;c__Gracilbacteria;o__UBA4473;f__UBA4473;g__JAACP01;s__	69.74	2.849	0.437	14062	1250881
MAG.134	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Bin95;f__Bin95;g__VMC01;s__	56.11	0.594	0.646	4261	2760956
MAG.135	d__Bacteria;p__Actinobacteriota;c__Acidimicrobia;o__Acidimicrobiales;f__SHLQ01;g__SHLQ01;s__	88.38	3.513	0.629	8931	4043431
MAG.136	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__UBA1135;o__UBA2386;f__UBA2386;g__JADWQ01;s__	51.05	1.239	0.641	4378	2861618
MAG.137	d__Bacteria;p__Bacteroidota;c__Bacteroidia;o__Cytophagales;f__g__s__	55.35	0	0.369	15606	616463
MAG.138	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Caulobacteriales;f__Hyphomonadaceae;g__UBA5336;s__	87.66	1.309	0.581	17873	2815569
MAG.139	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhizobiales;f__Rhizobiaceae;g__GCA-2401155;s__	97.15	0.432	0.48	50855	4437867
MAG.14	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Enterobacteriales;f__Vibrionaceae;g__Vibrio;s__Vibrio splendidus	60.34	9.247	0.438	5190	3739722
MAG.140	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Ruegeria;s__Ruegeria meonggel	95.63	1.118	0.576	32081	4482110
MAG.141	d__Bacteria;p__Verrucomicrobiota;c__Verrucomicrobiae;o__Opitutales;f__DSM-45221;g__UBA7441;s__	100	0	0.516	339466	2827205
MAG.142	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Phycisphaerae;o__Phycisphaerales;f__SM1A02;g__s__	93.18	1.807	0.697	22293	4335923
MAG.143	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Caulobacteriales;f__Hyphomonadaceae;g__Henriciella;s__	97.94	3.03	0.547	158779	3921363
MAG.144	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Caulobacteriales;f__Hyphomonadaceae;g__Henriciella;s__	98.91	3.922	0.55	71029	4146604
MAG.145	d__Bacteria;p__Patescibacteria;c__Pacelbacteria;o__UBA9983_A;f__UBA918;g__O1B19;s__	51.86	0	0.393	6052	617582
MAG.146	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__GCA-2731375;f__GCA-2731375;g__s__	88.62	1.304	0.559	11070	6549394
MAG.147	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Planctomycetota;c__Planctomycetaceae;g__JABMPE01;s__	82.48	3.448	0.583	9055	10228853
MAG.148	d__Bacteria;p__Chlamydiota;c__Chlamydia;o__Chlamydiales;f__GCA-2709385;g__s__	62.71	0	0.387	4529	1094745
MAG.149	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Enterobacteriales;f__Alteromonadaceae;g__Colwellia;s__	96.14	2.118	0.362	17524	4524466
MAG.15	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Phycisphaerae;o__UBA1845;f__UBA1845;g__UBA1845;s__	95.45	2.272	0.558	371848	4873431
MAG.150	d__Bacteria;p__Sumeriaeta;c__Sumeriaeta;o__SLM501;f__g__s__	54.52	0.029	0.483	4604	2070526
MAG.151	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhizobiales;f__HXMU1428-3;g__HXMU1428-3;s__	55.35	2.208	0.455	5045	1523401
MAG.153	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Pseudomonadales;f__Halleaeae;g__Congregibacter;s__	94.34	1.115	0.544	19634	2871557
MAG.154	d__Bacteria;p__Bdellovibrionota;c__Bdellovibrionia;o__Bdellovibrionales;f__g__s__	82.68	3.21	0.409	6266	2169211
MAG.155	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Granulococcales;f__Granulococcaceae;g__UBA7957;s__	96.03	6.785	0.459	196809	6526097
MAG.156	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Caulobacteriales;f__Hyphomonadaceae;g__s__	85.4	2.38	0.566	8371	2524260
MAG.157	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Actibacterium;s__	94.86	2.219	0.611	86167	3620077
MAG.158	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Mycovibrionales;f__Mycovibrionaceae;g__TMED27;s__	92.31	1.014	0.482	31481	1871309
MAG.159	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Phycisphaerae;o__Phycisphaerales;f__UBA1924;g__s__	96.02	0.51	0.612	129757	3009249
MAG.16	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Caulobacteriales;f__Hyphomonadaceae;g__Henriciella;s__	92.39	1.418	0.569	44579	2815854
MAG.160	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Minwuales;f__Minwuales;g__Minwua;s__	86.33	0.362	0.639	11768	3999996
MAG.161	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Pseudomonadales;f__Nitrospiraceae;g__Pontibacterium;s__	85.75	0.929	0.509	10721	3500245
MAG.162	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Pseudomonadales;f__Nitrospiraceae;g__Neptunilbacter;s__	91.72	0.214	0.46	51427	2852220
MAG.164	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Amylibacter;s__	63.2	0.455	0.465	5280	2154237
MAG.165	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__UBA1135;o__UBA2386;f__UBA2386;g__s__	68.59	1.075	0.658	5660	5119195
MAG.167	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Mycovibrionales;f__Mycovibrionaceae;g__s__	89.72	0.869	0.495	16409	1786896
MAG.169	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Pseudococcicola_C;s__	97.32	1.478	0.62	19399	4304744
MAG.17	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__UBA1135;o__UBA1135;f__GCA-002686595;g__GCA-2862085;s__	95.69	0.537	0.638	66090	8923139
MAG.170	d__Bacteria;p__Chlamydiota;c__Chlamydia;o__Chlamydiales;f__SLFE01;g__s__	53.2	1.351	0.418	3923	969073
MAG.171	d__Bacteria;p__Bacteroidota;c__Bacteroidia;o__J057;f__JADKLO1;g__s__	97.81	1.366	0.493	287329	9463275
MAG.173	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Sphingomonadales;f__Sphingomonadaceae;g__Pontixanthobacter;s__	80.2	2.73	0.552	10457	2260549
MAG.174	d__Bacteria;p__Bacteroidota;c__Bacteroidia;o__Cytophagales;f__g__s__	52.69	5.382	0.386	20932	701459
MAG.175	d__Bacteria;p__Actinobacteriota;c__Acidimicrobia;o__Acidimicrobiales;f__SZUA-35;g__CADEDH01;s__	99.05	4.107	0.653	22347	6560164
MAG.176	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhizobiales;f__Methylobacteriaceae;g__Methylobacter;s__	95.33	1.104	0.61	27579	2916637
MAG.177	d__Bacteria;p__Chloroflexota;c__Anaerolineae;o__Promineofillales;f__Promineofillaceae;g__s__	89.59	3.818	0.506	10679	7593054
MAG.178	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Enterobacteriales;f__Alteromonadaceae;g__Pseudalteromonas;s__	95.43	1.013	0.399	66416	3981841

MAG.179	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Phycisphaerae;o_Phycisphaerales;f_UBA1924;g_REDD01;s_	92.8	2.272	0.672	171936	3144260
MAG.18	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_Porticocaceae;g_Porticoccus;s_	98.14	0.925	0.441	231514	2402837
MAG.180	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Cognatishimia;s_	95.72	0.214	0.532	50191	3159778
MAG.181	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_Rhizobiaceae;g_Ahrensia;s_	84.61	1.971	0.506	7714	3188336
MAG.182	d_Bacteria;p_Eremiobacterota;c_Xenobia;o_Xenobiales;f_JADM/V01;g_s_	85.64	6.018	0.513	14284	6959212
MAG.183	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_s_	88.68	1.461	0.645	9049	4229825
MAG.184	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Sedimentitalea;s_	86.1	2.335	0.608	88544	3759964
MAG.185	d_Bacteria;p_Chloroflexota;c_Anaerolineae;o_Aggregatilineales;f_A4b;g_s_	60.05	5.454	0.427	7588	5382503
MAG.186	d_Bacteria;p_Chloroflexota;c_Anaerolineae;o_Promineofillales;f_Promineofillaceae;g_WT/Y01;s_	96.06	4.545	0.458	38076	9298964
MAG.187	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_UBA1135;o_UBA1135;f_GCA-002686595;g_s_	96.77	1.075	0.612	24568	4080738
MAG.188	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Phycisphaerae;o_Phycisphaerales;f_UBA1924;g_s_	83.52	0.066	0.681	9754	2924240
MAG.189	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Woeseiales;f_Woeseiaceae;g_s_	58.67	3.521	0.57	4825	3187947
MAG.19	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Paracaeidibacterales;f_g_s_	92.47	0	0.358	53573	1606354
MAG.190	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Phycisphaerae;o_Phycisphaerales;f_UBA1924;g_s_	97.72	0	0.626	121107	3175198
MAG.191	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Marinovum;s_	89.98	0.998	0.599	11248	3962981
MAG.192	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Phycisphaerae;o_Phycisphaerales;f_Phycisphaeraeae;g_s_	93.54	1.988	0.653	26853	4359134
MAG.193	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_Porticocaceae;g_Porticoccus;s_	72.49	3.395	0.433	8353	1995864
MAG.194	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_g_s_	98.56	1.131	0.497	211369	4754708
MAG.195	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Woeseiales;f_Woeseiaceae;g_UBA1847;s_	70.84	0	0.568	11344	2802047
MAG.196	d_Bacteria;p_Hydrogenedentota;c_Hydrogenedentia;o_Hydrogenedentiales;f_WGMK01;g_s_	87.36	1.198	0.575	10181	4759649
MAG.198	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_JABDGN01;f_JABDGN01;g_s_	88.08	1.744	0.393	8212	1921399
MAG.199	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Caulobacterales;f_Hyphomonadaceae;g_s_	97.55	2.976	0.564	34307	3288413
MAG.2	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_Affifellaceae;g_s_	50.94	1.204	0.546	4257	2500893
MAG.20	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodospirillales;f_UBA2165;g_s_	87.1	1.16	0.468	10670	3765314
MAG.200	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Sphingomonadales;f_Sphingomonadaceae;g_Parasphingorhabdus;s_	77.89	1.877	0.526	7209	2686240
MAG.201	d_Bacteria;p_Myxococcota;c_Bradymonadia;o_Bradymonadales;f_Bradymonadaceae;g_s_	90.64	4.681	0.642	58869	9050246
MAG.202	d_Bacteria;p_Acidobacteriota;c_Thermoanaerobaculia;o_UBA5704;f_UBA5704;g_s_	98.29	4.273	0.652	112953	9845739
MAG.203	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Plantomycetia;o_Pirellulales;f_Pirellulaceae;g_s_	96.48	3.448	0.54	23188	10289006
MAG.204	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_HFCC2089;g_UBA4421;s_	81.51	4.259	0.537	7502	4495332
MAG.205	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Enterobacterales;f_Alteromonadaceae;g_Paraglaciecola;s_Paraglaciecola chathamensis	98.54	1.122	0.443	54361	4828884
MAG.207	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_UBA8108;o_UBA1146;f_g_s_	97.84	3.405	0.616	167360	7880354
MAG.210	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_HFCC2089;g_UBA4582;s_	94.24	4.614	0.498	152426	5536602
MAG.211	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_Flavobacteriales;f_UBA10066;g_s_	97.17	0.537	0.366	17422	3321607
MAG.212	d_Bacteria;p_Myxococcota;c_Polyangia;o_Polyangiales;f_Polyangiaceae;g_NIC37A-2;s_	53.07	0.668	0.597	4474	3868848
MAG.213	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_D5M-21967;g_Oceanicoccus;s_	98.26	2.29	0.466	37086	4055470
MAG.214	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_MH13;g_MH13;s_	98.23	1.137	0.566	62077	3926594
MAG.215	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_UWMA-0217;f_UWMA-0217;g_s_	81.24	4.422	0.489	6399	3546941
MAG.216	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Phycisphaerae;o_Phycisphaerales;f_Phycisphaeraeae;g_s_	75	2.272	0.665	31771	3018270
MAG.217	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_Rhizobiaceae;g_Ahrensia;s_	78.84	4.047	0.501	5815	3041618
MAG.218	d_Bacteria;p_Dependentiae;c_Babellae;o_Babellales;f_Vermiphilaceae;g_s_	52.58	0	0.349	29467	870198
MAG.219	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_D5M-21967;g_s_	100	0.432	0.458	165972	3147943
MAG.22	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Phycisphaerae;o_Phycisphaerales;f_UBA1924;g_UBA1924;s_	88.17	1.136	0.509	16393	2766236
MAG.220	d_Bacteria;p_Patescibacteria;c_Pacelbacteria;o_UBA9983_A;f_UBA918;g_O1B19;s_	56.62	1.255	0.396	6316	584872
MAG.221	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_B15-G4;o_B15-G4;f_B15-G4;g_s_	93.75	1.136	0.668	55177	5058348
MAG.223	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Geminicoccales;f_Geminicocaceae;g_CADEGR01;s_	94.65	2.503	0.571	14010	7227267
MAG.224	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Plantomycetia;o_Pirellulales;f_Lacipirellulaceae;g_Aeoliella;s_	94.18	0.208	0.583	22639	4965952
MAG.225	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Sneathiellales;f_Sneathiellaceae;g_Sneathiella;s_	62.06	7.758	0.509	12104	3423313
MAG.226	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_UBA4486;f_UBA4486;g_s_	82.23	4.06	0.377	8575	1885996
MAG.227	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_OMP01;s_	66.06	7.534	0.554	6812	3687273
MAG.228	d_Bacteria;p_Patescibacteria;c_Pacelbacteria;o_UBA9983_A;f_UBA918;g_O1B19;s_	62.71	2.564	0.435	131554	1042042
MAG.229	d_Bacteria;p_Desulfobacterota;f_Desulfobacterota;c_Desulfobacteriales;f_Desulfobacteriaceae;g_Halodesulfobacterium;s_	97.04	0.065	0.449	43686	3719627
MAG.23	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Phaeobacter_A;s_	93.82	0.638	0.605	54010	4437349
MAG.230	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Fluvilbacterium;s_	94.3	1.094	0.524	12986	3380286
MAG.231	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Arenicellales;f_Arenicellaceae;g_Arenicella;s_	96.42	0	0.446	25757	4698766
MAG.232	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_Porticocaceae;g_LSUCC0057;s_	99.21	0.277	0.592	46714	2111063
MAG.233	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_JACES01;g_JACES01;s_	71.7	0.344	0.475	8626	4253593
MAG.234	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Arenicellales;f_Arenicellaceae;g_Arenicella;s_	98.17	0	0.445	273240	4957047
MAG.235	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Micavibrionales;f_Micavibrionaceae;g_UBA1672;s_	75.26	0.681	0.437	8377	1653986
MAG.236	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Xanthomonadales;f_Wenzhouxiangellaceae;g_s_	98.91	0.764	0.434	339403	4925501
MAG.237	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_Porticocaceae;g_s_	55.82	0.925	0.499	4697	1546096
MAG.238	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Plantomycetia;o_Pirellulales;f_Pirellulaceae;g_s_	72.27	2.873	0.533	7285	6664739
MAG.239	d_Bacteria;p_Myxococcota;c_Polyangia;o_Polyangiales;f_Polyangiaceae;g_NIC37A-2;s_	89.03	1.29	0.603	11515	6265828
MAG.24	d_Bacteria;p_Actinobacteriota;c_Acidimicrobia;o_Acidimicrobiales;f_SHLQ01;g_SHLQ01;s_	97.43	1.282	0.618	112806	5170803
MAG.240	d_Bacteria;p_Eremiobacterota;c_Xenobia;o_Xenobiales;f_JADM/V01;g_s_	79.98	3.935	0.52	10235	6410319
MAG.241	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Sphingomonadales;f_Sphingomonadaceae;g_Parasphingorhabdus;s_	69.15	0.195	0.494	6490	2553006
MAG.242	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Phycisphaerae;o_UBA1845;f_UTPLA1;g_ECT2AJA-110-A;s_	50.93	0	0.547	4641	2853487
MAG.243	d_Bacteria;p_Chloroflexota;c_Anaerolineae;o_Promineofillales;f_Promineofillaceae;g_s_	61.12	3.636	0.469	5647	5576440
MAG.244	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_Flavobacteriales;f_Flavobacteriaceae;g_Saonia;s_	52.22	0.917	0.383	4404	2690371
MAG.245	d_Bacteria;p_Firmicutes;c_Bacilli;o_Mycoplasmatales;f_Mycoplasmataceae;g_s_	79.94	0.751	0.288	52409	618172
MAG.246	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Micavibrionales;f_Micavibrionaceae;g_UBA1672;s_	90.83	2.246	0.444	24177	2209244
MAG.247	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_g_s_	67.47	1.766	0.545	5394	5558507
MAG.248	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_Pseudohongiellaceae;g_UBA9145;s_	55.02	1.556	0.497	4822	1807334
MAG.249	d_Bacteria;p_Dependentiae;c_Babellae;o_Babellales;f_JAHU01;g_s_	52.41	3.475	0.46	10178	994623
MAG.25	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Phycisphaerae;o_Phycisphaerales;f_SM1A02;g_s_	76.49	7.489	0.591	10865	3428793
MAG.250	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Minwulales;f_Minwulaceae;g_s_	96.59	0.217	0.561	164320	4416444
MAG.251	d_Bacteria;p_Myxococcota;c_Polyangia;o_Nannocystales;f_Nannocystaceae;g_s_	95.75	5.483	0.661	218764	13295286
MAG.252	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_Cellvibrionaceae;g_Agaribacterium;s_	85.67	1.163	0.473	7631	2653267
MAG.253	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_CA1MK01;f_JACPUW01;g_s_	73.2	1.202	0.427	6234	4695506
MAG.254	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_DT-91;g_s_	99.25	1.203	0.451	111469	4264802
MAG.255	d_Bacteria;p_Actinobacteriota;c_Acidimicrobia;o_Acidimicrobiales;f_S2UA-35;g_s_	51.53	0	0.611	4515	3217816
MAG.256	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Enterobacterales;f_Alteromonadaceae;g_Glaciecola;s_	98.87	0.19	0.386	230320	4297241
MAG.257	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Sulfitobacter;s_	94.88	2.932	0.573	26410	4050190
MAG.258	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Rhodothermia;o_Rhodothermales;f_g_s_	96.72	4.793	0.47	47323	7841084
MAG.259	d_Bacteria;p_Desulfobacterota;D;c_UBA1144;o_UBA2774;f_UBA2774;g_CR02bin9;s_	96.63	6.302	0.394	44586	2496860
MAG.26	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Chromatiales;f_Sedimenticola;g_s_	51.41	2.032	0.632	4300	2091238

MAG.260	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Caulobacterales;f_Hyphomonadaceae;g_	76.53	1.623	0.538	6079	2152761
MAG.262	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_Cellvibrionaceae;g_Pseudomonas;g_	97.27	0.215	0.484	33664	4437687
MAG.263	d_Bacteria;p_Acidobacteriota;c_Thermoanaerobactria;o_UBA5704;f_UBA5704;g_	97	3.846	0.587	67067	9465534
MAG.264	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_Nitrospiraceae;g_Pontibacterium;g_	96.7	3.075	0.542	42761	4537692
MAG.266	d_Bacteria;p_Actinobacteriota;c_Acidimicrobia;o_Acidimicrobiales;f_SZUA-35;g_	53.53	1.709	0.615	4634	4002378
MAG.267	d_Bacteria;p_Myxococcota;c_Polyangia;o_Polyangiales;f_SGB-38;g_	62.93	2.903	0.616	4512	2847258
MAG.268	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_	86.43	1.597	0.606	132364	3273506
MAG.269	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_DSM-6294;g_Oceanobacter;g_	99.42	0.745	0.516	87862	4128156
MAG.27	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Donghicola;g_	97.72	1.06	0.602	169522	3281014
MAG.270	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Sphingomonadales;f_Sphingomonadaceae;g_Parashporibacter;g_	92.97	0.93	0.511	22770	3422949
MAG.271	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_NORP181;g_	93.15	2.728	0.576	20422	4020071
MAG.272	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Enterobacterales;f_Moritellaceae;g_Moritella;g_	55.17	0	0.422	5182	1994471
MAG.273	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Xanthomonadales;f_SZUA-5;g_SZUA-5;g_	56.97	2.282	0.584	4236	3196766
MAG.274	d_Bacteria;p_Desulfobacterota;c_UBA1144;o_RKRQ01;f_	94.18	4.201	0.392	18731	2134500
MAG.275	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_J057;f_JADKLO1;g_	99.18	0.546	0.455	89622	9536463
MAG.276	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Caulobacterales;f_Hyphomonadaceae;g_	99.35	0.162	0.592	185624	3173955
MAG.277	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Actibacterium;g_	95.45	0.707	0.567	86100	3078466
MAG.278	d_Bacteria;p_Chloroflexota;c_Anaerolineae;o_Aggregatilineales;f_A4b;g_	83.98	1.363	0.47	9361	5266120
MAG.279	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Coxiellales;f_Coxiellaceae;g_	97.43	1.162	0.451	173995	2230703
MAG.28	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Phycisphaerae;o_Phycisphaerales;f_Phycisphaerae;g_	83.58	9.157	0.655	14140	4274694
MAG.280	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Mangrovicoccus;g_	98.73	0.389	0.592	77028	4003063
MAG.282	d_Bacteria;p_Actinobacteriota;c_Acidimicrobia;o_Acidimicrobiales;f_SZUA-35;g_	71.71	3.846	0.603	10709	4225400
MAG.283	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Plantomycetia;o_Pirellulales;f_Lacipirellulaceae;g_Bythopirellula;g_	52.76	6.896	0.545	5000	2542241
MAG.285	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_	65.61	0	0.377	4455	844873
MAG.286	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_UBA4486;f_UBA4486;g_	85.91	0.586	0.447	235474	2105365
MAG.29	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Enterobacterales;f_Enterobacteriaceae;g_Pseudoalteromonas;g_Pseudoalteromonas atlantica	70.14	0.862	0.407	57702	4420223
MAG.290	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_Chitinophagales;f_Saprospiraceae;g_JAFMD01;g_	84.24	4.95	0.356	16781	12388985
MAG.293	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Kiloniellales;f_J153;g_	81.57	4.376	0.64	7136	6197378
MAG.297	d_Bacteria;p_Myxococcota;c_WYAZ01;o_WYAZ01;f_WYAZ01;g_	90.44	6.039	0.601	8747	11943676
MAG.3	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_UBA1135;o_UBA2386;f_UBA2386;g_	87.13	3.512	0.647	10352	8694236
MAG.30	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Minuulales;f_Minuulaceae;g_Minuula;g_	86.39	0.413	0.639	11410	3622814
MAG.308	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_Devosiaceae;g_JAHQ201;g_	78.17	1.482	0.541	8095	3104918
MAG.31	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Mangrovicoccus;g_	82.37	2.083	0.638	10166	4653998
MAG.310	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Phycisphaerae;o_Phycisphaerales;f_Phycisphaerae;g_	80.12	0	0.638	11536	4907440
MAG.311	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_UBA1280;f_UBA6503;g_UBA6503;g_	71.79	1.12	0.468	5926	1136925
MAG.314	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Woeseliales;f_Woeselaceae;g_	73.27	8.223	0.531	4383	3686470
MAG.316	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Plantomycetia;o_Pirellulales;f_Pirellulaceae;g_CAJQPP01;g_	94.04	2.352	0.493	11800	6446244
MAG.32	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_GCA-2731375;f_GCA-2731375;g_	78.82	2.127	0.535	9141	5288117
MAG.321	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_Methylobacteriaceae;g_	98.39	1.506	0.581	40023	4513236
MAG.33	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_Methylobacteriaceae;g_	83.58	3.514	0.573	7603	5252315
MAG.335	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_HTC2089;g_UBA4582;g_	87.52	3.873	0.436	8289	4301856
MAG.336	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rickettsiales;f_Rickettsiaceae;g_	98.54	1.675	0.385	17279	1490383
MAG.34	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_Chitinophagales;f_Saprospiraceae;g_	97.02	1.776	0.341	33872	8155405
MAG.341	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_Cytophagales;f_Cyclobacteriaceae;g_Reichenbachella;g_	71.43	1.547	0.4	7153	3450805
MAG.347	d_Bacteria;p_Bdellovibrionota;c_Bdellovibrionia;o_Bdellovibrionales;f_	97.32	2.083	0.413	38531	3380686
MAG.351	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Plantomycetia;o_Plantomycetiales;f_Plantomycetaceae;g_Thalassoglobus;g_	95	1.212	0.503	22263	6434185
MAG.36	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Pikienuella;g_	96.6	1.5	0.611	29928	4922375
MAG.360	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_	59.05	1.413	0.608	5524	3520603
MAG.363	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Ascidiaceae;g_	51.1	1.326	0.551	4558	2242807
MAG.368	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_	52.57	1.038	0.613	4332	2886732
MAG.37	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_HK1;f_HK1;g_WLWT01;g_	89.89	9.052	0.595	14965	6870859
MAG.376	d_Bacteria;p_SAR324;c_SAR324;o_SAR324;f_GCA-2753255;g_	81.66	1.26	0.449	12096	8392057
MAG.38	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_NORP181;g_	89.89	1.917	0.559	24644	3866463
MAG.385	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Enterobacterales;f_Alteromonadaceae;g_Algicola;g_	68.37	1.081	0.482	9337	7512438
MAG.386	d_Bacteria;p_Eremiobacterota;c_Xenobia;o_Xenobiales;f_JADMJ01;g_	70.75	2.314	0.562	5918	7413940
MAG.39	d_Bacteria;p_Actinobacteriota;c_Acidimicrobia;o_Acidimicrobiales;f_SZUA-35;g_CADEHD01;g_	77.14	1.282	0.66	13666	5506059
MAG.4	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_Nitrospiraceae;g_Rs1;g_	56.19	5.172	0.44	4677	3662165
MAG.40	d_Bacteria;p_Patescibacteria;c_Pacelbacteria;o_UBA9983_A;f_UBA918;g_OLB19;g_	55.92	0	0.427	22693	589046
MAG.41	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Mangrovicoccus;g_	98.38	1.919	0.589	81245	4029020
MAG.42	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_UBA7434;g_UBA7434;g_	97.68	0	0.401	260745	3427796
MAG.43	d_Bacteria;p_Verrucomicrobiota;c_Verrucomicrobiae;o_Opitutales;f_KCTC-12870;g_Cerasiococcus;g_	58.49	0	0.544	4954	2555599
MAG.44	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Woeseliales;f_Woeselaceae;g_UBA1844;g_	77.25	2.67	0.549	7509	3118912
MAG.45	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_UBA4486;f_UBA4486;g_UBA7359;g_	95.77	3.028	0.397	108592	3384366
MAG.47	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Competibacteriales;f_	72.98	3.23	0.582	5077	3286940
MAG.48	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_JACESI01;g_JACESI01;g_	99.59	0	0.49	112995	3080087
MAG.49	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_Chitinophagales;f_Saprospiraceae;g_Aureispira;g_	98.51	0.742	0.348	48032	7131235
MAG.5	d_Bacteria;p_Patescibacteria;c_Pacelbacteria;o_UBA9983_A;f_UBA918;g_OLB19;g_	69.25	1.88	0.434	9134	797846
MAG.50	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Cognatishimia;g_	96.02	0.382	0.565	121862	3346286
MAG.51	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_HXMU1428-3;g_HXMU1428-3;g_	88.43	0.071	0.469	19290	2058922
MAG.52	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Caulobacterales;f_Hyphomonadaceae;g_UBA5336;g_	51.37	6.896	0.573	11736	2602051
MAG.53	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Sneathiellales;f_Sneathiellaceae;g_Sneathiella;g_	83.36	3.537	0.504	40881	4063481
MAG.54	d_Bacteria;p_Plantomycetota;c_Phycisphaerae;o_UBA1845;f_	82.34	0.103	0.61	13654	3829602
MAG.55	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Pseudomonadales;f_GM7GCV1;g_GM7GCV1;g_	61.25	0.37	0.472	4915	1529644
MAG.57	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_Flavobacteriales;f_Flavobacteriaceae;g_Dokdonia;g_	99.61	2.823	0.333	323014	5699336
MAG.58	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_Chitinophagales;f_Saprospiraceae;g_UBA1994;g_	68.33	1.364	0.355	6260	5968938
MAG.59	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Micavibrionales;f_Micavibrionaceae;g_UBA1672;g_	90.76	1.231	0.436	106006	2108142
MAG.6	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_Cytophagales;f_	56.95	0.364	0.407	15343	2327918
MAG.60	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_Chitinophagales;f_Saprospiraceae;g_	99	2.227	0.42	47835	9584424
MAG.61	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Coxiellales;f_Coxiellaceae;g_CACHNP01;g_	60.61	0.581	0.382	5386	1289074
MAG.62	d_Bacteria;p_Bacteroidota;c_Bacteroidia;o_J057;f_JADKLO1;g_	99.45	3.278	0.47	253295	10960494
MAG.64	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhizobiales;f_Rhizobiaceae;g_SZUA-100;g_	74.63	1.874	0.471	5695	3164594
MAG.65	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Gammaproteobacteria;o_Ga0077536;f_Ga0077536;g_UBA11873;g_	88.98	4.366	0.483	9387	4578784
MAG.66	d_Bacteria;p_Proteobacteria;c_Alphaproteobacteria;o_Rhodobacterales;f_Rhodobacteraceae;g_Cognatishimia;g_	82.86	1.863	0.518	8493	2695642

MAG.67	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Planctomycetia;o__Pirellulales;f__Pirellulaceae;g__s__	84.27	3.583	0.535	8017	9117239
MAG.68	d__Bacteria;p__Bacteroidota;c__Bacteroidia;o__Chitinophagales;f__Saprospiraceae;g__Lewinella_A;s__	64.78	0	0.499	5162	4268961
MAG.69	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Roseovarius;s__Roseovarius aestuarii	75.05	2.999	0.583	6475	3331526
MAG.7	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Caulobacterales;f__Maricaulaceae;g__Litorimonas;s__	99.4	0.108	0.557	422854	2951684
MAG.70	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Pseudomonadales;f__DSM-21967;g__s__	83.8	0.431	0.448	34100	2384237
MAG.71	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Phycisphaerae;o__Phycisphaerales;f__UBA1924;g__s__	97.72	0	0.662	116501	3607309
MAG.73	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Mangrovicoccus;s__	94.48	3.752	0.644	32857	4326134
MAG.75	d__Bacteria;p__Chloroflexota;c__Anaerolineae;o__Promineofilales;f__Promineofilaceae;g__WTJY01;s__	66.07	4.09	0.465	4858	6152347
MAG.76	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Minwuiiales;f__Minwuiaceae;g__Minwuiia;s__	85.04	0.884	0.621	8288	3254837
MAG.77	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Kiloniellales;f__Kiloniellaceae;g__Kiloniella;s__	58.95	6.739	0.473	4146	3390810
MAG.78	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Pikeleniella;s__	98.8	0	0.579	149221	4045166
MAG.79	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Phaeobacter_A;s__	69.5	1.198	0.575	5954	3673762
MAG.8	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Caulobacterales;f__Maricaulaceae;g__JACOM501;s__	61.88	0.865	0.505	5313	2181973
MAG.80	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Roseovarius;s__	59.54	1.355	0.595	4714	2665801
MAG.81	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Caulobacterales;f__Hyphomonadaceae;g__Hyphomonas;s__	99.35	0.162	0.527	1730696	3225234
MAG.82	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Phaeobacter_A;s__	95.93	0.503	0.566	25239	4208693
MAG.83	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Sulfitobacter;s__	93.41	1.581	0.562	15519	5306022
MAG.84	d__Bacteria;p__Bacteroidota;c__Bacteroidia;o__Cytophagales;f__Cyclobacteriaceae;g__s__	63.25	2.013	0.387	5008	2180407
MAG.85	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Coxiellales;f__Coxiellaceae;g__s__	81.1	1.744	0.435	9944	1373449
MAG.86	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Planctomycetia;o__Pirellulales;f__Pirellulaceae;g__Mariniblastus;s__	59.15	1.78	0.476	5504	5895881
MAG.88	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Caulobacterales;f__Hyphomonadaceae;g__s__	99.35	1.244	0.586	145431	3465726
MAG.89	d__Bacteria;p__Bacteroidota;c__Bacteroidia;o__Cytophagales;f__Cyclobacteriaceae;g__s__	92.85	3.928	0.401	16709	7156625
MAG.9	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Sulfitobacter;s__	55.4	3.448	0.531	5593	2960578
MAG.90	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodospirillales;f__Casp-alpha2;g__UBA4479;s__	64.13	4.31	0.509	10432	3543106
MAG.91	d__Bacteria;p__Desulfobacterota_D;c__UBA1144;o__f__g__s__	65.55	1.89	0.38	6682	1374608
MAG.92	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Sphingomonadales;f__Sphingomonadaceae;g__Parasphingorhabdus;s__	98.71	1.717	0.513	176312	3466348
MAG.93	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Roseicyclus;s__	98.23	1.397	0.606	88480	4298927
MAG.94	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Enterobacterales;f__Alteromonadaceae;g__Pseudoalteromonas;s__Pseudoalteromonas arabiensis	96.32	2.94	0.409	65467	4429469
MAG.95	d__Bacteria;p__Planctomycetota;c__Phycisphaerae;o__Phycisphaerales;f__UBA1924;g__REDD01;s__	74.13	6.25	0.654	6569	2664471
MAG.96	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Pseudomonadales;f__Porticocaceae;g__Porticoccus;s__	50.86	0	0.438	6566	1708192
MAG.97	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Alphaproteobacteria;o__Rhodobacterales;f__Rhodobacteraceae;g__Fluvibacterium;s__	98.16	0.6	0.59	206853	3680815
MAG.99	d__Bacteria;p__Proteobacteria;c__Gammaproteobacteria;o__Enterobacterales;f__Alteromonadaceae;g__Alteromonas;s__Alteromonas naphthalenivorans	73.96	0.982	0.437	11738	3389615

Supplementary Table 12: 281 MAGs Abundance in Reads per Kilobase per Million (RPKM) in metagenomic Ssamples, showing differences in abundance across temporal groups and thermal conditions

Genome	Day1						Day60					
	L7 M10 1 B	L8 M10 1 B	L6 M13 1 B	L9 M13 1 C	L7 M15 1 C	L9 M15 1 B	L7 M10 5 C	L8 M10 5 B	L6 M13 5 B	L9 M13 5 C	L7 M15 5 C	L9 M15 5 B
MAG.95	0.2759	0.3030	0.2166	0.5666	0.5370	0.2042	0.2286	0.1137	0.0968	0.1956	0.3112	0.3862
MAG.164	0.3645	0.6197	0.6866	0.3503	0.8377	0.1413	0.3961	0.0960	0.1063	0.1620	0.3724	0.5295
MAG.187	0.3179	1.2242	0.2137	0.3968	0.7177	0.3368	0.6713	1.5207	0.4001	0.3908	0.1479	0.5274
MAG.202	0.5007	1.4854	0.1760	0.8544	0.6581	0.1257	0.3703	0.6948	0.6283	16.0102	0.2101	0.4128
MAG.156	0.0366	0.7240	0.0136	1.2832	0.8082	0.0150	0.0456	0.2455	1.0798	0.6140	0.5273	0.4267
MAG.297	0.0745	0.1069	0.0220	0.0543	0.0566	0.0531	0.2188	0.0658	0.0880	0.1887	0.8776	0.6521
MAG.115	2.1039	6.4191	0.7576	3.5831	3.7879	1.4115	1.5233	2.4855	3.5356	4.6513	0.8488	2.1771
MAG.66	0.0074	0.0075	0.0102	0.0106	0.0152	0.0159	0.0081	0.0023	0.6713	0.2958	0.6309	1.3412
MAG.49	0.1176	9.7482	7.8399	0.9407	0.5729	1.4147	0.0251	0.0350	0.0328	0.0442	0.0110	0.0089
MAG.165	0.2275	0.0714	0.0445	0.2180	0.2411	0.2240	0.3707	0.2890	0.2057	0.2698	0.1835	0.8564
MAG.249	0.9337	1.8516	0.1973	0.0388	0.1558	1.6128	0.0009	0.0029	0.0021	0.0007	0.0015	0.0018
MAG.235	0.0151	0.0622	0.0524	0.0326	0.1353	0.0358	1.1092	0.2117	0.1691	0.2134	0.1843	0.7027
MAG.30	1.1000	0.8021	0.3447	0.4200	0.5588	0.3079	0.2192	1.2254	0.0825	0.0760	0.0490	0.1848
MAG.155	1.8098	0.2079	1.2588	0.2222	0.4842	2.4387	5.3146	2.9859	0.2704	0.5163	0.4232	0.0311
MAG.218	0.0071	0.0100	0.0304	0.0045	0.0044	0.0059	0.0019	0.0051	0.0435	0.0031	1.6708	0.0114
MAG.286	9.3563	1.5872	1.9514	1.7432	2.4309	2.5256	4.1745	3.6940	0.7601	3.4684	1.7232	1.1303
MAG.368	0.3753	0.2760	0.4250	0.3894	0.2032	0.2997	0.0878	0.4430	0.3221	0.3083	0.0315	0.0723
MAG.178	0.0093	0.0850	9.1166	0.0949	0.3068	0.0164	0.0033	0.0013	0.0016	0.0008	0.0008	0.0029
MAG.4	0.1155	0.9526	0.7889	0.5747	1.4476	0.2339	0.0066	0.0051	0.0129	0.0185	0.0087	0.0095
MAG.22	0.7086	0.8114	0.9368	0.8772	0.9033	0.9974	0.1850	0.0382	0.0161	0.0422	0.0400	0.0588
MAG.89	0.1503	0.3060	0.0494	0.0561	0.8001	0.0371	0.7273	1.8073	0.5000	0.2135	0.6498	0.3814
MAG.43	0.0038	0.0189	0.0009	0.0042	0.0049	0.0033	0.0569	0.0511	0.2232	0.1596	0.1101	1.7201
MAG.159	1.2304	0.2466	0.6952	2.3381	1.0135	0.7390	1.0798	0.4636	1.2462	2.1000	0.3581	0.2639
MAG.267	0.0714	0.0300	0.1254	0.2313	0.1787	0.3388	0.2307	0.0896	0.9916	0.2260	0.1877	0.1799
MAG.167	2.5066	0.2658	0.1415	0.6120	0.3576	0.1875	0.1173	0.3095	0.0141	0.1353	0.0157	0.0551
MAG.199	0.0033	0.1144	0.0052	0.0319	0.6384	0.0035	1.5709	0.7200	0.4252	3.2008	0.4885	2.5435
MAG.200	0.0407	0.0801	0.0399	0.0183	0.0367	0.0343	0.6703	0.3992	0.1562	0.2565	0.2635	0.6429
MAG.105	1.1089	2.0545	2.4419	1.9306	1.0987	2.5916	0.0978	0.0373	0.0079	0.0214	0.0050	0.0081
MAG.177	0.0229	0.1270	0.0239	0.0131	0.0117	0.2211	1.3887	1.2393	0.0013	0.0518	0.2006	0.3044
MAG.62	0.0308	0.0348	0.0474	0.0268	0.0090	0.2447	0.0097	0.0310	1.6285	3.1911	4.8735	0.1537
MAG.311	0.0074	0.0140	0.0114	0.0127	0.0131	0.0116	0.0039	0.0040	0.0025	0.0029	0.0936	2.4829
MAG.130	0.1073	0.1933	0.0332	0.0879	0.1252	0.0543	0.2510	2.4187	2.7202	1.8851	0.2874	1.1171
MAG.47	0.0607	0.0245	0.0587	0.1126	0.2621	0.4705	0.4954	0.1655	0.5139	0.4444	0.1613	0.3356
MAG.67	0.0987	0.0286	0.2129	0.0835	0.3256	0.1462	0.3120	0.6324	0.1940	0.6678	0.3273	0.0752
MAG.12	0.0127	0.0440	0.1475	0.0163	0.0085	0.1562	0.0149	0.0209	0.0118	0.0732	0.9399	0.0206
MAG.128	0.1333	0.0967	0.0073	0.6211	0.3790	0.2977	0.2365	0.6811	1.6689	1.6770	0.2821	1.1766
MAG.363	2.2139	0.1543	1.8778	0.1620	0.1328	0.3798	0.0393	0.1584	0.0292	0.0353	0.0232	0.0029
MAG.33	0.0383	0.0118	0.0152	0.0349	0.0487	0.0328	0.2157	0.0845	0.8077	0.2278	0.7214	0.4512
MAG.118	0.8711	0.0338	0.0193	0.0694	0.0717	0.0323	0.0517	0.1022	0.1445	0.0793	0.1179	1.0312
MAG.138	1.0789	0.6217	1.0963	1.0650	2.1382	1.4701	0.6600	0.4024	0.4912	0.2839	0.0993	0.3201
MAG.185	0.2860	0.0377	0.0779	0.5792	0.1122	0.2323	1.2260	1.3714	0.6337	0.6988	0.7622	0.6701
MAG.121	0.0379	0.0039	0.0156	0.0036	0.1131	0.0888	2.2182	0.9559	0.8985	1.2378	0.2056	0.6002
MAG.211	0.0003	0.0001	0.0003	0.0012	0.0017	0.0006	0.0003	0.0006	0.0030	0.0022	1.6216	0.0039
MAG.106	1.6818	0.3451	1.5101	1.5982	0.4733	1.8977	0.9855	1.3727	0.6391	1.8876	0.9772	0.5606
MAG.316	0.1839	0.0669	0.1552	0.0576	0.2938	0.1012	0.1016	0.0913	0.2004	0.1893	0.5807	0.5508
MAG.97	0.0182	0.0142	0.0215	0.0872	0.0239	0.0315	2.6032	1.6788	0.9193	0.8408	1.5860	2.0903
MAG.236	0.0095	0.2145	0.0146	0.0147	0.0463	0.0092	4.9078	3.5152	0.3010	1.6580	1.1213	8.5010
MAG.132	0.1104	0.0167	0.0421	0.0593	0.0600	0.3865	0.7082	0.6929	0.4047	0.4862	0.5072	0.6692
MAG.191	0.1650	0.7533	0.7925	0.6302	0.4224	0.6339	0.1343	0.0305	0.0172	0.0213	0.0088	0.0743
MAG.253	3.2360	4.6245	0.7551	4.3309	2.9884	0.6937	1.3609	3.1436	3.0391	3.9005	1.0582	0.9172
MAG.38	1.0169	1.0933	1.8824	0.5388	1.1298	2.2198	0.7553	1.5105	0.3961	0.7542	0.2081	1.1491
MAG.184	0.4258	0.4471	0.2979	0.6419	0.7762	1.6960	5.4807	8.9155	5.1091	4.8995	11.6909	5.0786
MAG.101	0.5489	0.0153	0.0198	0.4126	0.2154	0.2949	0.0985	0.7672	0.2264	0.1558	0.0935	0.1377
MAG.221	1.5782	0.4923	0.0725	1.0132	0.5877	0.3679	0.2763	0.4442	0.1490	0.1877	0.1265	0.2423
MAG.270	0.3981	0.8985	0.4442	0.5498	0.7058	0.8093	0.0691	0.1031	0.2781	0.1191	0.0393	0.2510
MAG.77	1.7783	0.6558	0.0691	0.6095	1.7656	0.1615	0.0634	0.0407	0.0287	0.1989	0.0098	0.0700
MAG.19	0.0018	0.0015	0.0023	0.0063	0.0057	0.0079	0.2048	0.0300	4.6791	1.1476	0.3439	0.6521
MAG.1	0.0616	0.0964	0.0589	0.4128	0.2864	0.1144	0.4469	0.7281	0.3585	0.2738	0.1341	0.4369
MAG.133	0.3374	0.0702	0.1967	0.1447	0.0642	0.3218	1.5377	0.4376	0.0031	0.0087	0.1959	0.2224
MAG.11	0.6347	0.8749	0.9694	0.6969	1.5936	0.1476	0.1411	0.0097	0.0281	0.0123	0.0026	0.0077
MAG.154	0.0292	0.0178	0.0318	0.0045	0.0153	0.0220	0.7244	1.5525	0.1594	0.0665	0.2734	0.3269
MAG.126	1.0637	0.1595	0.1200	0.1897	0.0883	0.1981	0.4641	0.1738	0.7443	1.0819	0.0627	0.4211
MAG.53	1.1039	0.1395	0.1796	0.2249	0.3891	0.4583	0.5456	0.4381	0.6884	0.4274	0.2611	0.5398
MAG.108	0.2356	0.0271	0.0312	0.0640	0.0598	0.0459	0.3900	0.4517	0.0412	0.0975	0.2770	0.5361
MAG.44	0.8670	0.9425	0.2093	0.7326	0.6704	0.7181	0.4177	0.2885	0.0792	0.1424	0.0168	0.0633
MAG.176	0.1332	0.0550	0.0818	0.4515	0.3606	0.2951	0.1210	0.0642	0.8590	0.2541	0.3887	0.8233
MAG.123	0.0428	0.0091	0.0185	0.0428	0.0395	0.0963	1.1381	0.4117	5.5664	3.5126	5.3697	1.6100
MAG.171	0.0494	0.0053	0.0010	0.0057	0.0034	0.0056	2.1164	0.0178	0.0088	0.2153	2.3780	0.0017
MAG.188	0.5652	0.1947	0.3468	0.6759	0.5401	0.4749	0.2393	0.1434	0.0360	0.1550	0.0779	0.1150
MAG.198	0.2653	0.3815	0.1406	0.0930	0.1164	3.2455	0.0473	0.0585	0.0432	0.0370	0.0133	0.0330
MAG.290	0.2273	0.2914	2.8815	0.3200	0.2327	0.3192	0.1345	0.1283	0.2263	0.3654	0.0676	0.2331
MAG.204	0.0151	0.0366	0.0095	0.0032	0.0465	0.0036	1.4649	1.5681	0.0178	0.0397	0.0106	0.0011
MAG.90	0.1556	0.0386	0.0045	0.0392	0.0251	0.0238	0.2894	1.0491	1.6502	0.5700	1.0266	6.7968
MAG.273	0.0178	0.0422	0.0071	0.0111	0.0273	0.0062	0.0465	0.0193	0.1441	0.1329	0.1102	1.6968
MAG.279	6.7505	2.9146	16.8931	2.8393	3.5057	4.2526	0.1089	0.0505	0.0403	0.0769	0.0378	0.0657
MAG.212	0.0128	0.0033	0.0051	0.0073	0.0158	0.0237	0.0899	0.4146	0.5405	0.3113	0.3149	0.7259
MAG.23	1.1988	1.1149	2.6376	1.0015	0.7542	1.5170	0.0304	0.0371	0.0189	0.0297	0.0052	0.0082
MAG.314	0.1413	0.0507	0.0571	0.2084	0.2180	0.3428	0.3851	0.3638	0.4344	0.5379	0.1303	0.0994

MAG.233	0.0072	0.0211	0.0083	0.0031	0.0696	0.0062	2.4297	0.2846	0.1122	0.1953	0.0463	0.0023
MAG.179	0.4777	0.4260	0.4362	0.9008	0.6253	0.6705	1.0149	0.5703	0.4294	1.0260	1.4003	3.6452
MAG.65	0.1081	0.0151	0.0389	0.0174	0.0249	0.0521	0.5798	0.2154	0.1659	0.5751	0.6619	0.1965
MAG.347	2.1430	2.5224	0.3201	1.4855	1.0088	0.4483	1.2668	1.1222	1.4446	2.0619	1.3367	2.7554
MAG.260	0.0053	0.1055	0.0023	0.0050	0.1537	0.0014	1.8070	0.0916	0.0042	0.0033	0.3306	0.0031
MAG.103	0.3934	0.1121	0.1489	1.3567	0.5789	0.3278	0.7061	0.2809	0.1210	1.0230	0.2096	0.7656
MAG.16	0.3724	0.2502	0.4877	0.6741	0.4085	1.0723	0.5747	0.2346	0.2330	0.4509	0.1749	0.1009
MAG.220	0.0074	0.0144	0.0014	0.0057	0.0048	0.0025	0.0535	0.0286	0.1042	0.0200	0.1774	2.0683
MAG.134	1.6643	5.4716	0.5998	2.5686	2.3921	0.7715	1.5929	2.4806	2.4380	3.4689	0.7379	2.8563
MAG.57	9.5960	5.4908	5.4892	1.4260	3.9502	3.5744	2.1646	0.8298	1.0821	0.4555	2.3715	1.0546
MAG.219	1.1940	0.7602	1.0485	0.9040	0.5027	2.6721	0.2001	0.4037	0.1624	0.1792	0.0359	0.0285
MAG.143	0.8534	0.8674	2.1275	0.9191	1.3554	2.3650	2.4843	1.5370	1.1306	1.3055	0.6205	1.7756
MAG.240	0.7164	0.6038	0.8558	0.1707	0.2332	0.5604	0.1378	0.0913	0.0419	0.0740	0.0264	0.0705
MAG.112	0.2731	0.2417	0.3147	0.4156	0.7765	0.5270	0.8928	0.7449	1.1020	0.7303	0.5301	0.2577
MAG.120	0.3793	0.8879	0.9317	2.7045	3.9899	1.0962	0.0223	0.0055	0.0247	0.0219	0.0040	0.0140
MAG.31	0.1688	0.0956	0.1898	0.2030	0.5462	1.5064	4.5583	3.6155	50.6505	11.0516	33.4694	28.4760
MAG.243	0.0241	0.0089	0.0115	0.0066	0.0157	0.0582	1.0546	0.2136	0.1157	0.1034	0.5133	0.0919
MAG.248	0.8491	0.1478	0.0289	0.0695	0.0530	0.0648	0.3653	0.6638	0.3654	0.2540	0.1218	0.1322
MAG.264	0.7027	1.4660	2.4107	2.4495	2.7030	0.9051	0.2171	0.1687	0.0193	0.0668	0.0384	0.0559
MAG.186	0.0891	0.0121	0.1196	0.7613	0.0581	3.1325	2.0520	0.8459	0.3445	1.5698	1.1023	2.8082
MAG.225	2.3562	0.2570	0.4757	0.5377	0.9060	1.7105	0.4039	0.5278	0.6324	0.7652	0.4070	0.7556
MAG.376	0.0391	0.1989	0.0131	6.1337	0.0647	0.0203	0.0287	0.0480	0.0497	0.0826	0.0145	0.0279
MAG.151	0.0575	0.1624	0.1555	0.0617	0.0768	0.1317	0.8750	0.2226	0.1161	0.1176	0.4570	0.2680
MAG.213	0.7045	0.7137	0.4171	0.6756	0.7926	1.8272	0.8329	0.8327	0.0539	0.0499	0.0394	0.0924
MAG.114	0.4660	0.8892	0.2724	0.5019	0.6418	0.1559	0.7207	1.0739	0.5632	0.7102	0.2464	0.8089
MAG.173	0.3186	0.4918	0.9599	0.2486	0.4400	0.7681	0.0164	0.0080	0.0082	0.0053	0.0048	0.0135
MAG.226	0.1073	0.1618	0.0283	0.0182	0.1280	0.2702	0.1294	0.0239	0.6758	0.0186	1.1429	1.6556
MAG.20	1.6449	0.1802	0.0220	0.4886	0.3085	0.1148	0.0638	0.5806	0.4683	0.6194	0.0394	0.8515
MAG.224	0.1241	0.0694	0.2318	0.2306	0.1660	0.2512	0.3970	0.2418	1.0856	0.6880	0.6126	0.1320
MAG.251	0.7551	0.1574	0.4693	0.0992	0.1841	0.5003	1.3205	1.4837	0.1722	0.7817	0.4123	0.6000
MAG.157	12.7741	2.2772	15.0737	11.2470	5.3369	10.6549	0.9235	0.7266	0.5404	0.5885	0.2902	1.1653
MAG.129	3.1053	3.7180	2.5499	0.2678	1.2307	1.5510	0.3460	0.1869	0.1072	0.1477	0.0264	0.0650
MAG.229	0.0020	0.0008	0.0006	0.0026	0.0011	0.0010	0.0332	0.0006	0.0013	0.0109	1.9078	0.2151
MAG.96	0.0268	0.0213	0.0045	0.0114	0.0262	0.0110	1.3993	3.6728	1.5913	0.9917	0.6284	0.4808
MAG.58	0.4313	0.1149	0.1173	0.0528	0.1027	0.0289	0.0825	0.1624	0.3074	0.1106	0.0911	1.4497
MAG.153	0.9847	0.5082	1.3462	1.0221	1.6784	2.9060	1.1398	0.0514	0.1164	0.1524	0.1052	0.1191
MAG.189	0.0020	0.0006	0.0004	3.3032	0.0028	0.0013	0.0008	0.0006	0.0012	0.0103	0.0005	0.0052
MAG.201	0.4098	0.5120	1.0507	0.3516	0.3824	2.4508	0.4139	0.0781	0.0267	0.0532	0.3009	0.4829
MAG.195	0.6881	0.0504	0.0823	0.2599	0.1978	0.2559	0.4224	0.0930	0.1663	0.5216	0.5021	0.2932
MAG.137	0.0242	0.0038	0.0212	0.0028	0.0045	0.0030	0.0822	25.6958	0.0276	0.0037	0.0117	0.0244
MAG.239	0.0196	0.0535	0.0084	0.0058	0.0283	0.0212	0.6872	0.5046	0.7649	0.5462	0.4232	0.3304
MAG.158	0.0297	0.0806	0.0126	0.1094	0.0454	0.0644	1.6714	0.0967	0.5923	0.6548	0.3480	0.7934
MAG.272	1.6299	4.2910	2.1373	6.6836	4.7157	3.0837	3.4392	3.2549	3.5472	4.9736	0.6943	1.7059
MAG.116	0.7167	0.3992	1.5050	0.7617	0.4136	0.6400	0.6876	2.3913	0.4202	0.2031	0.2125	0.1555
MAG.29	2.4756	2.9495	4.6351	3.8986	3.5231	3.8628	0.0676	0.1028	0.0045	0.0433	0.0047	0.5349
MAG.81	2.3270	0.8010	2.0676	1.3420	1.9648	2.6317	0.5658	0.1879	0.1585	0.2620	0.0778	0.7412
MAG.139	0.2150	0.1614	0.2183	0.1927	0.4107	0.5135	1.1086	0.4592	3.2409	1.4648	5.3357	1.1343
MAG.181	0.2562	0.3878	0.4776	1.0014	0.7568	0.5593	0.1073	0.0590	0.2918	0.1142	0.0845	0.1185
MAG.215	0.1454	0.1598	0.1106	0.4346	0.2286	0.4118	0.3912	0.1010	0.1476	0.2376	0.2622	0.4668
MAG.92	1.8229	0.8173	3.6339	0.9578	1.3434	1.6252	0.3096	0.0864	0.2550	0.2232	0.0906	0.4714
MAG.27	0.2805	1.3221	1.5016	1.5770	1.7768	0.3178	0.1428	0.0212	0.0758	0.0358	0.0416	0.0592
MAG.119	0.3865	0.0849	0.3346	0.1593	0.1987	0.1375	0.1665	0.0594	0.2577	0.3136	0.2481	0.4208
MAG.308	1.7268	1.8436	2.7125	4.9610	2.0108	3.5466	0.7097	0.1409	0.2493	0.5677	0.1362	1.0422
MAG.217	0.2270	0.1422	0.2538	0.5425	0.2738	0.3541	0.1185	0.0473	0.4327	0.2586	0.2288	0.7136
MAG.336	0.2900	0.0321	0.7722	0.1971	0.3566	0.3708	1.4914	0.3738	0.0078	0.7607	0.0571	0.0062
MAG.3	0.7592	0.3446	0.0163	1.1059	0.3478	0.2209	0.2513	0.5445	0.1961	0.1426	0.0971	0.3413
MAG.223	0.1370	0.0742	0.1832	0.0759	0.1788	0.2852	0.7905	0.4437	0.4139	0.6269	0.6505	0.0470
MAG.84	0.1435	0.2126	0.0248	0.1216	0.1660	0.0541	0.3166	0.3168	0.5666	0.1866	0.6414	0.1229
MAG.39	0.2362	0.3740	0.3126	0.2996	0.3188	0.6454	2.2682	0.5076	2.1275	1.1648	4.3162	0.2079
MAG.183	0.6837	0.0384	0.5773	0.3075	0.5331	0.2627	0.8975	0.1650	0.0777	0.2234	0.1991	0.2995
MAG.335	1.0347	1.7371	0.1373	0.1463	0.4271	0.2124	0.1990	0.5320	0.1711	0.1812	0.0617	0.2005
MAG.117	0.6832	0.1359	0.8566	0.2572	0.5331	0.8176	0.0304	0.0087	0.0122	0.0278	0.0155	0.0367
MAG.113	0.0778	0.1066	0.1259	0.8476	1.3781	0.2364	0.2233	0.0087	0.1911	0.2046	0.1183	0.0624
MAG.310	0.7080	0.2258	0.4177	0.5469	1.1927	1.5652	0.0976	0.0412	0.0113	0.0430	0.0167	0.0251
MAG.269	0.4544	3.9966	2.6772	3.5177	0.40975	0.1692	0.0205	0.0053	0.0063	0.0531	0.0052	0.3345
MAG.205	5.4251	9.6474	12.0381	5.8905	9.5501	16.1948	0.5963	1.7191	0.3101	0.6522	0.0719	0.1396
MAG.275	0.1617	1.3139	0.0223	0.0530	0.2572	0.2225	0.1461	0.2362	0.4525	0.0941	1.8709	0.0357
MAG.91	0.0324	0.0268	0.0111	0.0307	0.0262	0.0382	0.5573	0.2466	1.2475	0.8896	1.5384	0.3564
MAG.196	0.3173	0.4076	0.2481	0.9320	0.7364	0.5585	0.1596	0.0741	0.0544	0.2089	0.0701	0.2100
MAG.147	1.4459	0.9635	0.1601	2.4129	0.5959	0.1804	0.2682	0.3830	0.2950	0.4901	0.0934	0.1693
MAG.107	0.0847	0.0751	0.3978	0.3161	0.2793	0.2503	0.4337	0.2237	0.3515	0.7503	0.3044	0.2423
MAG.247	0.3448	0.6144	0.1501	0.9100	0.6370	0.1447	0.3786	0.9013	0.3453	0.3927	0.1087	0.2708
MAG.203	0.1442	0.4402	0.1632	0.2988	0.3707	0.2988	0.5620	0.4317	0.4586	0.3223	0.5173	0.7750
MAG.266	0.0273	0.0329	0.0475	0.0380	0.0411	0.2596	0.3462	0.0750	0.3636	0.2849	0.6191	0.0140
MAG.78	0.2349	0.1817	0.3233	0.0883	0.0781	0.3593	3.2880	0.9229	0.9772	0.1723	3.0530	3.0327
MAG.54	0.2335	0.0467	0.1639	0.3588	0.3437	0.2226	0.7441	0.5183	0.1794	0.3472	0.1959	0.3120
MAG.59	0.3099	0.3930	0.4355	0.6006	0.4908	1.3445	0.3696	0.1858	0.6492	0.0982	0.2275	0.1549
MAG.169	1.0230	0.2269	0.4025	0.3249	0.5980	0.4735	0.5507	0.2560	0.0536	0.2076	0.1629	0.1167
MAG.268	0.8817	0.3833	0.8420	1.2683	0.6403	1.1882	0.5167	0.4908	0.3243	0.3787	0.4314	0.6414
MAG.150	0.0643	0.1939	0.0050	0.0155	0.1221	0.0173	0.0726	1.6767	0.1350	0.1351	0.0758	0.4851

MAG.102	0.7811	0.1649	0.0255	0.3491	0.2870	0.0963	0.1571	0.6451	0.1525	0.2610	0.0457	0.2573
MAG.244	0.2335	0.2968	0.3329	0.0557	0.0673	0.1506	0.1368	0.3254	0.0121	0.0714	0.3335	0.0767
MAG.193	0.0192	0.0068	0.0037	0.0235	0.0071	0.0164	4.3547	27.8465	0.8521	1.0819	1.5862	3.0089
MAG.13	0.5629	1.8731	0.2674	0.6542	0.7778	0.2346	3.1924	0.6967	0.8010	1.0689	0.2197	0.4667
MAG.93	0.7596	1.0486	1.9487	0.8475	0.9687	1.1052	1.0486	0.5461	0.0319	0.0127	0.0557	0.0573
MAG.280	0.1070	0.0496	0.0476	0.1793	0.0613	0.0402	0.7050	1.5050	0.9910	0.5183	0.3450	0.6977
MAG.40	0.5347	0.4137	0.5643	0.6141	0.6766	1.4152	0.0315	0.0149	0.0084	0.0093	0.0044	0.0101
MAG.122	2.6019	10.0488	0.4679	2.8635	4.1481	1.1423	0.0074	0.0234	0.0072	0.0085	0.0060	0.0086
MAG.274	0.1779	0.0406	0.0861	0.2520	0.2016	0.3656	0.5612	0.2381	1.0684	0.6837	0.6068	0.3998
MAG.68	0.1089	0.0038	0.2392	0.7186	0.0361	0.0233	0.0680	0.2523	0.0543	0.0361	0.1495	0.6499
MAG.256	9.2436	2.9033	1.5085	0.5352	0.8110	3.0163	4.9241	14.4734	0.4315	0.1963	1.6206	2.0032
MAG.259	0.0627	0.0135	0.0289	0.0780	0.0646	0.1278	1.1132	0.5146	5.6021	3.1161	9.4022	2.0911
MAG.48	0.0137	0.0171	0.0224	0.0026	0.1839	0.0039	5.9479	0.2108	0.4821	0.2580	0.8178	0.8308
MAG.36	0.9005	0.9944	1.0469	0.4986	1.0523	2.2659	0.5723	0.4417	0.0664	0.1486	0.3873	0.8644
MAG.32	1.2509	6.7961	1.2564	1.3960	1.8017	0.9159	1.9298	4.3718	1.3887	2.5949	0.4236	0.5393
MAG.385	0.0207	0.0035	0.0013	4.0935	0.0031	0.0010	0.0090	0.0023	0.0012	0.0052	0.0013	0.0014
MAG.34	4.0295	8.1218	1.3920	1.9217	3.6600	2.6565	0.6703	1.2441	1.1170	1.4478	0.3431	0.5280
MAG.255	0.0277	0.0111	0.0577	0.0115	0.0167	0.2047	0.3622	0.1014	0.2153	0.1657	0.6421	0.1309
MAG.41	0.7441	0.4934	0.2150	0.7962	1.2400	0.9725	4.9759	7.3209	15.7434	5.7157	0.7366	6.0066
MAG.50	0.2807	0.7327	1.1386	3.3455	0.7082	0.2601	0.0319	0.0054	0.0223	0.0464	0.0118	0.0287
MAG.145	0.0021	0.0019	0.0017	0.0044	0.0042	0.0062	1.2520	0.5186	0.9994	0.2758	0.0440	0.1376
MAG.25	0.1454	0.1390	0.6521	0.4275	0.4578	0.4257	0.5144	0.2516	0.3438	0.8434	0.5995	0.7607
MAG.80	0.0954	0.0345	0.0176	0.0252	0.0431	0.0557	0.3550	0.2626	0.1389	0.0907	0.6383	0.1183
MAG.76	7.8391	2.5481	0.4940	1.7731	3.5576	1.6262	1.2356	4.0304	0.5110	1.4100	0.8579	4.5997
MAG.194	7.0868	1.0072	2.6869	1.4317	4.6808	6.6739	0.0642	0.0903	0.0655	0.1134	0.0094	0.1571
MAG.9	0.2851	0.3852	0.9620	0.3792	0.5179	0.2616	0.0271	0.0143	0.0009	0.0015	0.0007	0.0015
MAG.190	0.2217	0.0723	0.1444	0.1668	0.2417	0.1554	0.2751	0.1383	0.5779	0.8535	0.6949	1.5773
MAG.125	1.6402	0.0765	0.5596	0.2677	0.4150	0.9121	4.2849	2.2155	0.4523	1.3280	1.4059	2.1591
MAG.148	0.0764	0.1203	0.2374	0.0549	0.0453	0.0884	0.0928	0.0580	0.1772	0.1571	0.5346	1.5365
MAG.141	1.4312	0.6290	0.5597	0.8363	1.1623	1.7077	0.5313	0.6893	0.3042	0.2364	0.0511	0.1428
MAG.321	0.0009	0.0012	0.0006	5.0950	0.0018	0.0010	0.0015	0.0007	0.0009	0.1310	0.0010	1.0281
MAG.360	0.2385	0.0509	0.2365	0.1903	0.2129	0.4569	1.3319	0.2475	2.1455	0.3662	0.3016	0.2286
MAG.180	0.4342	0.4820	0.4998	0.2437	0.2869	2.0269	0.2056	0.0724	0.0617	0.2691	0.0818	1.0966
MAG.82	0.1431	0.9328	3.2568	0.7565	1.2858	0.9383	0.2027	0.4039	0.0498	0.0472	0.0095	0.0099
MAG.42	17.0415	4.5653	2.7727	5.2276	7.6154	4.3274	2.2234	3.8305	1.2557	2.2146	1.7072	2.6429
MAG.73	0.2513	0.2417	0.1275	0.3796	0.6923	1.1737	5.6304	3.0248	10.4683	5.8822	6.0576	7.2229
MAG.170	0.0095	0.0346	0.0015	0.0032	0.0114	0.0064	0.0101	0.0053	0.2125	0.0033	0.9484	0.0034
MAG.14	1.1679	3.2322	12.0617	3.5464	2.2223	2.0257	0.1062	0.1558	0.1192	0.2439	0.1528	0.0934
MAG.104	0.2740	0.0527	0.7668	0.4976	0.6259	0.6853	5.3558	1.3990	0.5384	1.4232	0.8173	0.2607
MAG.17	0.8738	0.7441	1.2524	0.8394	0.5747	1.0346	0.6702	0.6598	0.1653	0.3978	0.1118	0.5247
MAG.83	1.5467	1.7007	0.9170	1.1769	1.1454	0.7360	1.8945	1.5656	0.5640	1.1023	0.2828	0.4672
MAG.69	0.2468	0.1741	0.0717	0.2357	0.4874	0.2418	1.2776	0.9364	0.2354	0.3013	0.5448	0.4757
MAG.55	0.8388	0.6235	0.2288	0.4251	0.2796	0.3043	0.1404	0.2178	0.1270	0.0757	0.0158	0.0141
MAG.263	0.0029	0.0155	0.0010	0.0012	0.0030	0.0058	0.0170	0.0127	0.0549	0.0439	4.4314	0.0049
MAG.28	1.4345	0.3279	0.6349	0.1955	0.3184	0.6179	0.1202	0.1056	0.0162	0.0821	0.0635	0.1583
MAG.245	1.1423	36.2520	0.5740	1.4192	1.4489	0.4498	0.8653	10.9043	1.5492	2.1136	0.4984	0.9753
MAG.88	0.0039	0.0018	0.0011	0.0025	0.0067	0.0010	5.1342	0.0224	0.5357	0.5155	0.2562	0.0100
MAG.135	0.2991	0.2544	0.4788	0.1935	0.5950	0.7954	0.2582	0.1328	0.1591	0.2318	0.2347	0.0260
MAG.228	0.2958	0.2217	0.5792	0.0590	0.1478	0.2030	1.9312	1.3347	0.0731	0.0741	0.1374	0.0896
MAG.37	2.8355	0.3167	0.8407	0.8060	1.2828	0.9389	1.3886	2.8162	0.7755	2.4467	0.4896	0.4061
MAG.242	0.0358	0.0064	0.0216	0.0504	0.0313	0.0232	0.2609	0.2055	0.1452	0.3497	0.2630	0.8925
MAG.75	0.0335	0.0188	0.0080	0.0080	0.0091	0.0041	0.0147	0.0141	0.0073	0.0249	0.9583	0.2651
MAG.341	0.3294	1.2474	0.1695	0.2720	0.4058	0.1483	0.3050	1.0698	2.2190	0.8594	0.5079	0.5146
MAG.111	0.3780	0.6079	0.3342	0.2754	0.2192	0.2454	0.2722	0.3952	0.1174	0.1559	0.0619	0.2240
MAG.283	0.1583	0.0766	0.0972	0.3032	0.1488	0.1912	0.2928	0.2249	0.2137	0.2656	0.3372	0.3480
MAG.161	1.1504	7.1628	3.9272	2.5360	29.5361	1.6199	0.0600	0.0419	0.0479	0.0798	0.0116	0.0420
MAG.160	3.3218	0.4604	0.3221	2.2673	1.8344	0.4863	0.5611	0.1977	0.0151	0.0433	0.0227	0.1152
MAG.162	3.4594	7.9407	10.1431	3.1461	4.5292	4.0026	0.9479	0.9790	2.3799	2.7195	0.3773	1.4054
MAG.277	1.3562	0.3552	0.6721	1.3703	0.6453	0.8456	0.3415	0.0659	0.4445	0.3387	0.3134	0.4545
MAG.127	0.2376	0.1456	0.1426	0.5836	0.3756	0.1227	2.0230	0.3880	0.8677	1.2194	0.7348	0.1994
MAG.278	0.0703	0.0044	0.0047	0.0366	0.0613	0.0405	0.5646	0.1790	0.2494	0.2287	0.4888	0.6845
MAG.18	0.0062	0.0051	0.0033	0.0066	0.0066	0.0024	2.0063	10.6376	0.2083	0.0812	0.0257	0.0528
MAG.231	0.0853	0.1202	0.6883	0.1592	4.1841	0.1059	0.0043	0.0891	0.0042	0.0046	0.0795	0.0102
MAG.8	0.3545	0.2986	0.8594	0.3041	0.1134	0.3148	0.0142	0.0020	0.0102	0.0541	0.0304	0.0140
MAG.174	6.6163	12.8420	2.7643	11.4886	9.8146	3.1995	9.3045	9.6271	13.1610	13.8437	3.5450	7.5286
MAG.232	0.0004	0.0006	0.0006	0.0012	0.0014	0.0008	0.4468	0.0622	0.3331	0.5777	1.0951	0.7531
MAG.175	0.5513	2.1566	0.7165	0.3955	0.7216	2.3003	4.8303	1.6189	2.8931	2.2513	6.3544	0.2262
MAG.207	0.9812	0.4962	0.1507	0.4514	0.4740	0.2926	0.9556	2.3850	0.7752	2.9997	1.8435	1.3520
MAG.86	0.4041	0.5508	0.3380	0.4207	0.6524	0.5266	0.2653	0.3274	0.5017	0.6785	0.2857	0.1559
MAG.293	0.2923	0.1431	0.0853	0.6117	0.5099	0.2934	0.3833	0.4161	0.4529	0.3450	0.0825	0.2031
MAG.61	0.5803	0.1394	0.8485	0.3695	0.1034	0.2949	0.0171	0.0212	0.0013	0.0080	0.0023	0.0064
MAG.144	3.6804	1.0084	2.2047	1.6849	2.5777	3.1218	4.4261	2.9813	3.0780	1.7179	2.5362	1.5019
MAG.52	0.3078	0.2233	0.4642	0.4520	0.6288	0.7125	0.5457	0.3039	0.2575	0.2447	0.1415	0.4396
MAG.252	0.6179	1.0670	0.1644	0.7296	0.5913	1.4762	0.1250	0.4666	0.1521	0.1610	0.0598	0.0613
MAG.15	0.2399	0.1143	0.2284	0.4892	0.5095	0.2629	1.5221	0.6978	0.8010	1.3123	0.9680	0.6316
MAG.70	0.0049	0.0172	0.0253	0.0138	0.0177	0.0183	0.0038	0.0719	5.6197	0.5826	1.3919	7.3898
MAG.271	4.2951	0.4127	0.8639	1.0246	0.5725	0.4608	0.3757	0.2570	0.0184	0.1056	0.0471	0.0178
MAG.45	0.0767	0.0481	0.0396	0.0423	0.0500	0.0288	1.6473	7.8898	7.4118	5.2018	15.5082	25.2971
MAG.254	1.0172	0.1970	1.6357	2.4373	2.9943	1.5061	0.0161	0.0668	0.0064	0.1060	0.0081	0.2124
MAG.276	1.0229	0.6403	0.7356	0.6381	0.5508	3.1075	1.0356	0.5235	0.5260	0.5493	0.2872	0.1463

MAG.24	0.7799	0.4897	1.0739	0.5732	0.9262	2.7798	1.1607	0.6742	1.2387	2.2102	2.1254	0.5133
MAG.351	0.0912	0.0163	0.0210	0.1617	0.0422	0.0625	0.1656	0.0795	0.2381	0.2660	0.4719	1.6536
MAG.7	2.1417	0.9300	5.9796	3.5199	1.4380	0.9329	0.0850	0.0087	0.0618	0.0362	0.0219	0.0204
MAG.99	0.5954	1.5383	0.9907	1.6719	2.9879	2.0643	0.0537	0.0129	0.0038	0.0056	0.0010	0.0029
MAG.230	0.0090	0.0097	0.0049	0.0167	0.0183	0.0125	0.5302	2.6944	0.0435	0.0430	0.1289	0.4002
MAG.146	0.1351	0.0406	0.1651	0.0594	0.2714	0.2558	1.2745	0.5788	0.2197	0.3243	0.1568	0.0212
MAG.149	0.4589	3.3771	0.7276	2.4515	1.8176	0.3774	0.0363	0.0923	0.0793	0.0899	0.0274	0.0226
MAG.227	1.7557	1.5923	5.3984	1.9617	3.3245	8.4993	0.1144	0.1343	0.0871	0.1745	0.0511	0.0858
MAG.262	0.1504	0.3196	1.3380	1.2217	0.8772	0.1500	0.0046	0.0048	0.0049	0.0139	0.0021	0.0063
MAG.100	0.0775	0.1647	0.1107	0.1278	0.1500	1.3823	0.5500	0.0509	0.0634	0.1270	0.1650	0.3064
MAG.10	0.9135	1.5295	0.2642	1.3562	0.7868	1.2504	0.1863	0.1436	0.1682	0.3394	0.1657	0.2033
MAG.237	0.6535	1.7402	0.1761	0.3225	1.4787	0.6297	0.6319	0.3402	0.0892	0.2396	0.2879	1.7092
MAG.2	0.0290	0.0515	0.0139	0.0589	0.0838	0.0746	0.1624	0.1231	0.9898	0.1964	0.3433	0.5887
MAG.234	0.2494	0.7916	3.4081	0.3340	0.8172	0.7608	0.0771	0.1422	0.0653	0.1232	0.0192	0.0305
MAG.386	1.1434	0.4277	0.3873	0.3060	0.2992	0.4344	0.1275	0.0755	0.0148	0.0751	0.0176	0.0594
MAG.238	0.0613	0.0211	0.1141	0.1638	0.1019	0.1488	0.3034	0.3235	0.1897	0.2618	0.5934	0.0919
MAG.241	0.9928	0.1091	0.1977	0.1504	0.1703	0.1781	0.0781	0.0555	0.1920	0.0846	0.1635	0.4938
MAG.257	0.7772	0.7846	0.9631	2.7471	1.2317	0.7028	0.2193	0.1670	0.2240	0.2081	0.0454	0.2189
MAG.109	0.0591	0.0326	0.1090	0.0507	0.0888	0.1802	0.7513	0.1873	0.7543	0.4481	1.7532	0.0689
MAG.94	0.0706	0.1870	4.3389	0.0966	0.8024	1.3728	0.0022	0.0019	0.0038	0.0094	0.0013	0.0076
MAG.258	0.0815	0.0053	0.0925	0.0060	0.0637	0.0382	0.5729	0.1560	0.4484	0.5295	1.1357	1.8081
MAG.285	0.0620	0.0047	0.0228	0.0105	0.0188	0.2236	0.6854	0.5282	0.1593	0.1877	0.3051	0.0723
MAG.140	0.7091	2.2719	1.5854	1.9972	2.5704	2.4483	4.4417	6.5214	3.8478	4.5525	3.2825	5.5194
MAG.246	0.5254	1.3430	0.6748	1.4001	0.7933	2.6037	0.2573	0.1553	0.0359	0.0764	0.0332	0.1132
MAG.131	0.3280	0.1717	0.2116	0.2868	0.4237	0.1139	0.4906	0.2639	0.0943	0.2715	0.3142	0.6436
MAG.6	0.0131	0.0355	0.0720	0.0165	0.0415	17.1468	0.0117	0.0194	0.0114	0.0154	0.0052	0.0138
MAG.210	0.4984	0.0989	0.0445	0.4111	0.5736	0.1997	0.3388	0.6061	1.1732	1.9870	0.3693	0.5414
MAG.60	0.1017	0.3201	0.0396	5.7175	0.1618	0.0357	0.1011	0.1701	0.2949	0.3905	0.1795	0.1048
MAG.216	1.0520	2.5043	0.2902	1.0094	1.6976	0.9651	0.4155	0.3285	0.2644	0.7817	0.0970	0.5385
MAG.282	0.1642	0.1218	0.3607	0.1760	0.1811	1.2599	2.0028	0.4235	1.5899	1.0854	3.2197	0.1349
MAG.26	0.0803	0.0676	0.0879	0.0594	0.1323	0.2028	0.5953	0.1739	0.3585	0.5369	0.2981	0.0488
MAG.182	0.9821	0.2773	0.8190	0.1848	0.7242	0.3377	0.1002	0.0315	0.0312	0.0753	0.0193	0.0924
MAG.136	0.0592	0.1744	0.0613	0.0109	0.3565	0.0841	0.1978	1.3132	0.1479	0.3956	0.0928	0.1952
MAG.85	0.0013	0.0010	0.0066	0.0004	0.0012	0.0024	0.0008	0.0002	8.9868	0.0213	3.4009	0.0067
MAG.250	2.4673	0.6107	0.2598	1.0489	0.6520	0.3915	0.2424	0.2193	0.0786	0.3250	0.0479	0.4456
MAG.79	0.1017	0.3704	0.5763	0.1348	0.1321	0.1306	1.1342	0.4576	0.0539	0.0228	0.0103	0.0093
MAG.142	0.0184	0.0384	0.1351	0.1062	0.2362	0.0914	0.4311	0.2890	1.4478	0.7128	0.7698	0.9523
MAG.51	0.1966	0.1820	0.3732	0.2651	0.5007	0.4886	0.8474	0.1977	0.0515	0.0992	0.2482	0.2704
MAG.214	0.1120	0.0498	0.1810	0.9713	0.2972	0.0962	0.1712	0.0427	0.2156	0.2878	0.1729	1.9213
MAG.5	0.2448	1.2979	0.3134	0.6114	0.3909	1.0576	0.2348	0.1658	0.1995	0.2647	0.1917	0.3478
MAG.192	1.7727	2.7855	0.8525	2.3413	1.7487	1.6895	1.2361	1.6411	1.3666	2.7197	0.6417	2.5666
MAG.71	0.1326	0.0130	0.0173	0.3736	0.1546	0.0608	0.4632	0.9169	0.3187	0.6021	0.4141	1.9982
MAG.64	1.8157	0.0912	0.2750	0.1590	0.3695	0.1804	0.1103	0.0584	0.0441	0.2278	0.0147	0.0369

Supplementary Table 13: KEGG pathways showed significant enrichment differences based on SIMPER analyses (Contrast 10°C - 15°C; q-value <0.05) on day 60. The geneID column represents the KO's related to each metabolic pathway and the counts column represents the number of KO's found related to each pathway.

Pathway ID	Description	qvalue	geneID	Count
ko01200	Carbon metabolism	2.77E-06	K00830/K14067/K00863/K00116/K00201/K10714/K08692/K00672/K00200/K00202/K00203/K01500/K01499/K08094/K05299/K00198/K05942/K15019/K14028/K15022/K00192/K14471/K00580/K15052/K15234	25
ko03070	Bacterial secretion system	0.0038	K11004/K03224/K03219/K04058/K04057/K04056/K04059/K03221	8
ko00860	Porphyrin metabolism	0.039	K03403/K04037/K11335/K11333/K03428/K10960/K04036/K22227/K02190	9
ko00720	Carbon fixation pathways in prokaryotes	0.043	K01500/K05299/K00198/K15019/K15022/K14471/K15052/K15234	8

Supplementary Table 14: Significant variation in CAZy enzymes between 10C°, 13C°, and 15°C based on SIMPER analysis results using relative abundance

CAZY	L6_M13_5_B	L7_M10_5_C	L8_M10_5_B	L9_M13_5_C	L6_M13_1_B	L7_M10_1_B	L7_M15_1_C	L7_M15_5_C	L8_M10_1_B	L9_M13_1_C	L9_M15_1_B	L9_M15_5_B
CE17	161.33792	132.694067	141.35794	164.141206	161.630999	168.442939	157.747519	156.895449	151.460769	140.085435	122.206772	145.72852
GT58	187.497974	87.716053	130.329393	150.501239	105.261185	108.636392	183.061396	105.613474	144.049969	150.736754	141.121829	181.971696
GH153	2.377923	12.172587	11.55123	2.707362	7.348787	10.964677	3.226409	10.063654	1.468955	2.910265	11.906438	7.449074
GT39	214.093822	423.250035	498.024165	204.668115	318.411213	297.912517	236.251575	352.618486	569.436702	195.729151	230.634833	157.090636
GH116	224.915042	183.943964	181.463782	210.731593	222.341263	212.166006	230.475183	187.996216	199.200434	211.715739	170.4432	207.737166
GT53	35.002446	65.560319	65.207367	42.987171	57.42271	35.641723	32.995465	60.81868	68.639193	48.878329	75.910572	54.10403
GH119	10.216789	12.777232	10.313757	10.131562	15.901818	11.887589	10.321855	38.361983	8.824418	14.203397	17.246994	20.56275
CRM62	136.568336	121.546721	118.044827	126.398385	156.420059	161.362512	136.098555	158.337905	120.678546	127.66876	128.189715	151.965255
GT95	173.051874	189.034509	157.336538	191.261793	192.970345	166.857773	175.753881	228.745333	159.336376	186.282792	215.39125	235.732776
GH30	228.49053	263.230783	226.759944	250.422817	301.982602	238.106381	213.126592	363.391439	234.222688	266.82741	331.202046	361.86022
GH145	36.494501	34.515194	23.09502	25.818041	21.526093	21.174624	23.211805	50.411334	17.663565	25.476696	34.645915	49.878941
GT56	9.225062	7.091712	7.092844	9.401078	8.461005	8.855728	7.577778	10.494828	7.22723	9.300486	7.145795	12.049223
GH85	97.438646	95.296198	101.760903	103.689648	126.679723	101.801294	93.270357	141.749676	102.05532	110.506806	101.059044	124.279227

Supplementary Table 15: Abundance of Nitrogen Genes in Metagenomic Samples on Day 60 and their possible involvement in different nitrogen cycle pathway such as Assimilatory Nitrate Reduction to Ammonium (ANRA), Dissimilatory Nitrate Reduction to Ammonium (DNRA), Denitrification, nitrification, and nitrogen fixation

gene_symbol	Module	Temp	Abundance
nasC,nasA,nasB	ANRA	15C ⁺	0.07
nasC,nasA,nasB	ANRA	10C ⁺	0.00
nasC,nasA,nasB	ANRA	13C ⁺	0.00
nirA	ANRA	15C ⁺	11.47
nirA	ANRA	10C ⁺	8.51
nirA	ANRA	13C ⁺	3.91
narB	ANRA	15C ⁺	5.91
narB	ANRA	10C ⁺	4.33
narB	ANRA	13C ⁺	2.16
nirK	Denitrification	15C ⁺	26.56
nirK	Denitrification	10C ⁺	14.26
nirK	Denitrification	13C ⁺	6.45
narG,narZ,nxrA	ANRA/DNRA	15C ⁺	129.13
narG,narZ,nxrA	ANRA/DNRA	10C ⁺	112.42
narG,narZ,nxrA	ANRA/DNRA	13C ⁺	66.14
narH,narY,nxrB	ANRA/DNRA	15C ⁺	67.43
narH,narY,nxrB	ANRA/DNRA	10C ⁺	48.19
narH,narY,nxrB	ANRA/DNRA	13C ⁺	26.63
nasC,nasA,nasB	ANRA	15C ⁺	145.60
nasC,nasA,nasB	ANRA	10C ⁺	88.26
nasC,nasA,nasB	ANRA	13C ⁺	46.07
nosZ	Denitrification	15C ⁺	54.58
nosZ	Denitrification	10C ⁺	34.98
nosZ	Denitrification	13C ⁺	23.59
napA	DNRA	15C ⁺	175.10
napA	DNRA	10C ⁺	66.08
napA	DNRA	13C ⁺	44.42
napB	DNRA	15C ⁺	40.26
napB	DNRA	10C ⁺	18.76
napB	DNRA	13C ⁺	11.57
nifD	N2 Fixation	15C ⁺	103.76
nifD	N2 Fixation	10C ⁺	113.15
nifD	N2 Fixation	13C ⁺	98.04
vnfH	N2 Fixation	15C ⁺	22.70
vnfH	N2 Fixation	10C ⁺	3.39
vnfH	N2 Fixation	13C ⁺	10.29
nifH	N2 Fixation	15C ⁺	22.70
nifH	N2 Fixation	10C ⁺	3.39
nifH	N2 Fixation	13C ⁺	10.29
nifK	N2 Fixation	15C ⁺	24.49
nifK	N2 Fixation	10C ⁺	6.60
nifK	N2 Fixation	13C ⁺	13.20
nrfA	DNRA	15C ⁺	25.58
nrfA	DNRA	10C ⁺	9.95
nrfA	DNRA	13C ⁺	6.89
norB	Denitrification	15C ⁺	76.02
norB	Denitrification	10C ⁺	50.37
norB	Denitrification	13C ⁺	26.65
hao	Nitrification	15C ⁺	1.02
hao	Nitrification	10C ⁺	4.27
hao	Nitrification	13C ⁺	1.20
pmoA-amoA	Nitrification	15C ⁺	1.04
pmoA-amoA	Nitrification	10C ⁺	1.17
pmoA-amoA	Nitrification	13C ⁺	0.40
pmoB-amoB	Nitrification	15C ⁺	1.05
pmoB-amoB	Nitrification	10C ⁺	1.35
pmoB-amoB	Nitrification	13C ⁺	0.18
pmoC-amoC	Nitrification	15C ⁺	1.43
pmoC-amoC	Nitrification	10C ⁺	0.58
pmoC-amoC	Nitrification	13C ⁺	0.53
nirS	Denitrification	15C ⁺	21.77
nirS	Denitrification	10C ⁺	13.20
nirS	Denitrification	13C ⁺	11.63
nrfH	DNRA	15C ⁺	8.21
nrfH	DNRA	10C ⁺	3.10
nrfH	DNRA	13C ⁺	2.64

Supplementary Table 16: MAGs Associated with Secretion System functions Identified by SIMPER analysis on Day 60, Including their taxonomy at the order level and abundance in RPKM.

genome	gene	order	10C ⁺	13C ⁺	15C ⁺
MAG.101	K11004	o_Pseudomonadales	0.87	0.38	0.23
MAG.130	K11004	o_Pseudomonadales	2.67	4.61	1.40
MAG.160	K11004	o_Minwuiiales	0.76	0.06	0.14
MAG.170	K03224	o_Chlamydiales	0.02	0.22	0.95
MAG.18	K11004	o_Pseudomonadales	12.64	0.29	0.08
MAG.213	K11004	o_Pseudomonadales	1.22	0.10	0.13
MAG.223	K03224	o_Geminicoccales	1.23	1.04	0.70
MAG.223	K03219	o_Geminicoccales	1.23	1.04	0.70
MAG.250	K11004	o_Minwuiiales	0.46	0.40	0.49
MAG.26	K11004	o_Chromatiales	0.77	0.90	0.35
MAG.269	K11004	o_Pseudomonadales	0.03	0.06	0.34
MAG.270	K11004	o_Sphingomonadales	0.17	0.40	0.29
MAG.277	K03224	o_Rhodobacterales	0.41	0.78	0.77
MAG.30	K11004	o_Minwuiiales	1.44	0.16	0.23
MAG.321	K11004	o_Rhizobiales	0.00	0.13	1.03
MAG.360	K03224	o_Rhodobacterales	1.58	2.51	0.53
MAG.37	K11004	o_HK1	4.20	3.22	0.90
MAG.47	K11004	o_Competibacterales	0.66	0.96	0.50
MAG.70	K03224	o_Pseudomonadales	0.08	6.20	8.78
MAG.70	K03219	o_Pseudomonadales	0.08	6.20	8.78
MAG.76	K11004	o_Minwuiiales	5.27	1.92	5.46

Appendix

CAMA: coral-associated microbial aggregates.

Symbiocytes: Gastrodermal specialized cells that hold the endosymbiotic algae.

CWC: Cold water corals

Holobionts: The collective genetic composition of organisms that coexist with corals

Metabarcoding: The process of DNA/RNA barcoding, or eDNA/eRNA barcoding, enabling simultaneous identification of multiple taxa within a single sample.

Metagenomics: The study of the genetic material (DNA or RNA) isolated from all organisms present in a complex sample, aimed at understanding both the diversity (structure) and functional capabilities (function) of the microbial community.

Metatranscriptomic: The study involving the extraction and analysis of mRNA from a metagenomic sample (metatranscriptome), providing insights into the regulatory mechanisms and expression profiles of complex microbial communities within the environment.

Metaproteomic: The study of all proteins that are expressed at specific times by organisms within an ecosystem.

ELPs: Eukaryotic-like proteins

RPKM (Reads Per Kilobase per Million): A measurement used to normalize read counts by the length of the genomic region and the total number of sequencing reads.

KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes): A bioinformatics database linking genomic data to biological pathways, enhancing understanding of biological systems and their environmental interactions.

KEGG Pathway: Molecular entities like genes, proteins, and small molecules, along with their interactions, operate within cellular processes or broader biological pathways.

KEGG module: Functional units within a pathway that execute specific biological functions.

CAZy: Database of Carbohydrate-Active enzymes (CAZymes)

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