RESEARCH ARTICLE

Genome analysis of new *Blattabacterium* spp., obligatory endosymbionts of *Periplaneta fuliginosa* and *P. japonica*

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Abstract

The successful adaptation of cockroaches is, in part, dependent of the activity of their obligatory endosymbionts, *Blattabacterium* spp., which are involved in uric acid degradation, nitrogen assimilation and nutrient provisioning. Their strategic localization, within bacterioocytes in the proximities of uric acid storage cells (urocytes), highlights their importance in the recycling of nitrogen from urea and ammonia, end-products not secreted by their host insects. In this study, we present the complete genome sequence of two new *Blattabacterium* spp. from *Periplaneta fuliginosa* (BPfu) and *P. japonica* (BPja), and detailed comparison with other *Blattabacterium* strains from different cockroach species. The genomes of BPfu and BPja show a high degree of stability as showed with other *Blattabacterium* representatives, only presenting a 19-kb fragment inversion between BPja and BPfu. In fact, the phylogenomics showed BPja as an ancestor species of BPfu, BPLAN (*P. americana*) and BBoR (*Blatta orientalis*), in congruence with their host cockroach phylogeny. Their functional profile is similar and closest to the omnivorous strain BBge (*Blattella germanica*). Interesting, BPja possesses the complete set of enzymes involved sulfate assimilatory pathway only found in BBge and BMda (*Mastotermes darwiniensis*). The newly sequenced genomes of BPja and BPfu emphasise the remarkable stability of *Blattabacterium* genomes supported by their long-term coevolution and obligatory lifestyle in their host insect.

Introduction

Considered "living-fossils", cockroaches (order Blattodea) are one of the most primitive insect group, dating back as far as the Late Carboniferous (320 Mya) [1]. They can inhabit a wide range of ecosystems, from tropical forests to deserts, coping with extremes and food scarcity...
by using varied combinations of movement, habitat choice, physiological mechanisms and lifecycle strategies [2]. Cockroaches are mostly considered omnivores or generalists, and are able to select their diet according to their nutrient demands at every stage in their lifecycle [2]. Although set with sophisticated physiological mechanisms to resist and prevail under stressful conditions (more detail in 1), much of these insect’s success is correlated with the close relationships established with their microbiome.

The microbiome of insects comprehends in a consortium of microbial communities colonizing the external and internal body structures, and which are involved in a wide range of important lifestyle functions such as colonization and resistance to parasites and/or pathogens, diet breakdown, nutrient recycling and production of pheromones and/or kairomones [3]. The diversity of these communities is host-dependent and is mainly determined by its habitat, diet, developmental stage and phylogeny [4]. Apart from these microbial inhabitants, primary endosymbionts are particularly interesting since they live solely within specialized host cells, undergo vertical transmission to offspring and contribute extensively for host health and development [5]. These endosymbionts include the most highly constrained, stable and specialized symbioses known in the animal world [5]. Cockroaches harbour the endosymbiont *Blattabacterium* (phylum Bacteriodetes, class Flavobacteria) in their abdominal fat body, inside specialized cells (mycetocytes or bacteriocytes), which are adjacent to urocytes (cells that store uric acid) [6]. Early studies showed that aposymbiotic cockroaches (cockroaches reared with antibiotic-containing food) were less fit than normal cockroaches, showing a smaller size, light color, reduced fecundity and increased development time [7]. These observations emphasized the importance of the endosymbionts to their roach host. *Blattabacterium* spp. are involved in nitrogen recycling from ammonia and urea, and subsequently the provision of essential amino acids and vitamins [8]. In fact, the location of the endosymbionts suggests dynamic metabolic interaction between the bacteriocytes and the urocytes [9].

The host-dependent lifestyle of *Blattabacterium* has effect on their genome composition, size and structure. Till date, several genome sequences of *Blattabacterium* have been annotated from different cockroaches and their phylogenetic closest termites: *Blatella germanica*, BBge [10]; *Periplaneta americana*, BPLAN [8]; Cryptocercus punctulatus, BCpu [11]; *Blaberus giganteus*, BGIGA [12]; Mastoterms darwiniensis, BMda [13]; *Nauphoeta cinerea*, BNCIN [14]; *Blatta orientalis*, BBor [15]; and *Panesthia angustipennis*, BPAA [16]. Here, we present the complete genomes of two *Blattabacterium* spp. isolated from the cosmopolitan *P. fuliginosa* and the endemic *P. japonica*, both cockroaches considered serious pests in Japan with contrasting environmental adaptations, and provide insights into the evolutionary stability of the endosymbionts genomic and metabolic architecture.

**Materials and methods**

**Cockroach strains and rearing**

*Periplaneta fuliginosa* EE and *P. japonica* Miyoshi strains are established in the Hasegawa Laboratory (Chubu University, Japan) since 2013, under the conditions described by Vicente et al. [17].

**Total DNA extraction from fat body tissue and quantification of *Blattabacterium***

One adult male of each cockroach strain was surface-cleaned with 70% EtOH and dissected using sterile forceps and tweezers. The fat body tissue was carefully removed and weighed (*P. fuliginosa* EE fat body weighing = 181.9mg; *P. japonica* Miyoshi fat body weighing = 118.8mg).
Total DNA extraction of fat body tissue was performed using DNeasy Blood & Tissue kit (Qiagen, USA, California) with some modifications to the original manufacturer’s instructions. After weighting, the fat body was transferred into ATL buffer, homogenized with a sterile hand-held homogenizer, and incubated for 1h at 55°C with 20µL of Proteinase K solution (540 units/mL, Wako). The homogenate was filtered through a 0.22µM diameter filter (Millipore) and the filtrate used for DNA extraction (next steps in the kit protocol). The quality and quantity of the DNA samples was measured using NanoVue plus spectrophotometer (GE Healthcare Life Science, USA). DNA samples were stored at -20°C.

Host DNA was extracted from the muscle tissue of each cockroach strain using DNeasy Blood & Tissue kit (Qiagen, USA, California) following the manufacturer’s instructions. The quality and quantity was assessed as above mentioned. The quantification of Blattabacterium sp. in the fat body of each cockroach strain (BPful, Blattabacterium sp. from P. fuliginosa; and BPjap, Blattabacterium sp. from P. japonica) was inferred by the ratio between the DNA host sample and the respective DNA endosymbiont sample. For both, a standard curve (log DNA concentration plotted against Cq-values) was determined by quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) using single copy genes, urease ureA (for Blattabacterium sp.) and wingless wg (for Periplaneta sp.) [18]. The DNA concentrations tested ranged between 0.63-10ng/µL for the endosymbiont, and 2-50ng /µL for the host. ureA primers were designed based on the multiple sequence alignment (MSA) of ureA gene of all Blattabacterium spp. with known genomes (Table 1): universal ureA_for (5’-ATG CAY TTA AMT TYT TAT GAA-3’) and universal ureA_rev (5’-TCA TAT WKY YRT ATT YTC TYT TWC C-3’). MSA was conducted with default parameters in BioEdit version 7.2.5 using ClustalW. wg primers designed for Periplaneta genus were: wg_for (5’-TGG TCT ACT TGG AGC CTT CC-3’) and wg_rev (5’-ATC CAC GCC TAT CGA CGT AT-3’). qPCR was performed using CFX96TM Real-Time (Bio-Rad), and SYBR Premix Ex TaqTM II (Tli RNAse H Plus) kit (Takara Bio Inc., Japan) following the manufacturer’s indications. The thermal cycling conditions were: initial denaturation at 95°C for 30 secs; 39 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for sec, annealing and extension at 60°C for 30 secs; followed by the melting curve. For accuracy, the standard curve was three

Table 1. Characterization of BPfu and BPjqa genomes in comparison with other published Blattabacterium strains.

| Strain       | BPfu | BPfu | BNCIN | BGIGA | BBge | BPLAN | BBor | BPAA | BCpu | Bmda |
|--------------|------|------|-------|-------|------|-------|------|------|------|------|
| Genome size (bp) | 645 082 | 636 644 | 626 627 | 632 588 | 640 335 | 640 442 | 638 184 | 632 490 | 609 561 | 590 554 |
| Plasmids     | 1    | 1    | 1     | 1     | 1    | 1     | 1    | 1    | 1    | 1    |
| Plasmid size (bp) | 4127 | 3781 | 3675  | 3423  | 3485 | 3448  | 3735  | 3816  | 3306  |
| Chromosome size (bp) | 640 955 | 632 863 | 622 952 | 629 165 | 636 850 | 636 994 | 634 449 | 605 745 | 587 248 |
| G + C content (%) | 28.1/30.8 | 27.6/29.7 | 26.2/20.6 | 25.7/30.9 | 27.1/29.8 | 28.2/28.5 | 28.2/30.6 | 26.4/31.9 |
| Total number of genes | 640 | 623  | 627 | 616 | 631 | 634 | 627 | 624 | 589 | 597 |
| Total CDS     | 590 + 6 | 572 + 6 | 581 + 5 | 573 + 4 | 586 + 4 | 587 + 4 | 572 + 7 | 575 + 4 | 545 + 3 | 544 + 4 |
| tRNAs        | 3    | 3    | 3     | 3     | 3    | 3     | 3    | 3    | 3    | 3    |
| tRNAs        | 34   | 34   | 32    | 34    | 34   | 33    | 33   | 33   | 34   | 34   |
| Other ncRNAs | 1    | 0    | 1     | 1     | 3    | 1     | 3    | 3    | 3    | 3    |
| Pseudogenes  | 6    | 8    | 5     | 1     | 1    | 6     | 9    | 9    | 3    | 9    |

Host species abbreviations and accession numbers: BPfu, Periplaneta fuliginosa; BPjap, Periplaneta japonica; BNCIN, Nauphoeta cinereal (NC_022550.1); BGIGA, Blaberus giganteus (NC_017924.1); BBge, Blattella germanica (NC_013454.1); BPLAN, Periplaneta americana (NC_013418.2); BBor, Blatta orientalis (NC_020951.1); BPAA, Panesthia angustipennis (NC_020510.1); BCpu, Cryptocercus punctulatus (NC_016621.1); Bmda, Mastotermes darwiniensis (NC_016146.1). The following features result from the analysis of both bacterial chromosome and plasmids (if present): genome size, number of base pairs, total number of genes, G+C content and total CDS. The asterisk (*) indicates no information given by the authors of the original study [16].

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times repeated and the efficiency calculated using the equation (1) PCR efficiency = \(10^{(-1/S)}\) \times 100, where S is the slope of the standard curve.

### Sequencing, assembly and annotation

Paired-end sequencing libraries were prepared from 100 ng of endosymbiont enriched DNA using the Nextera DNA Library Prep kit (Illumina) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Libraries were sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq sequencer with the v3 kit (301 cycles x 2). The raw sequence data were analysed using the RTA 1.12.4.2 analysis pipeline and were used for genome assembly after removal of adapters, low quality, and duplicate reads to produce a total of 2.5 and 4.2 Gb sequence data for *Blattabacterium* from *P. fuliginosa*; and *P. japonica*, respectively. Illumina sequence reads were assembled using the Platanus assembler version 1.2.4 [19] with options (assembly; -k 91, scaffolding and gapcapping; default parameters). The Platanus assemblies were further improved using MITObim and manually curated using gap5 [20]. The assembled genomes were annotated using the Prokaryotic Genome Annotation System (PROKKA) [21] and the Rapid Annotations using Subsystems Technology (RAST) server [22]. The annotations were, then, manually curated using *in silico* Molecular Cloning software (In-silico biology, https://www.insilicobiology.jp). Raw sequences, genome assembly and gene annotation were deposited in DDBJ (DNA Data Bank of Japan) under Bio-Project PRJDB6862 (*Blattabacterium* sp. *P. japonica*, SAMD00114544 and DRX119986; and *Blattabacterium* sp. *P. fuliginosa*, SAMD00114545 and DRX119985).

### Functional categorization and pathway reconstruction

The protein-coding genes in the genome were subjected to COG analysis using WebMGA [23] and IMG [24]. The COG profile was displayed using the ‘Heatmapper’ web tool [25]. KEGG website, BlastKOALA and KEGG Mapper, was used for metabolic pathway reconstruction [26]. Re-examination and verification of the pathways were performed according to the pathway descriptions in the EcoCyc [27] and MetaCyc [28] databases.

### Results and discussion

To ensure a complete genome coverage of both BPful and BPjap, an estimation of ratio host: endosymbiont DNA from the total fat body DNA was determined using independent standard curves for host (*wg* gene) and endosymbiont (*ureA* gene) (S1 Fig). The ratio of *P. japonica*: BPjap was 1:3 and *P. fuliginosa*: BPful was 1:1.8. These ratios indicated that both endosymbionts genomes were 3x BPjap and 1.18x BPful represented in total host DNA.

### Genome characteristics

The genomes of primary endosymbionts reveal a high degree of stability as a result of convergent patterns of evolution such as genome reduction and AT-richness [5]. The genomes of the newly sequenced *Blattabacterium* genomes from *P. fuliginosa* (BPfu) and *P. japonica* (BPj) also show the same trend in comparison with other *Blattabacterium* (Table 1). The BPfu genome is 645,082 bp in length and is composed of a 640,955 bp chromosome and a 4,127 bp plasmid, with a GC content of 28.1% and 30.8%, respectively. The BPfu chromosome encodes 634 protein-coding genes, including 6 pseudogenes, 3 tRNA genes, 1 ncRNA gene, and 34 tRNA genes assigning all 20 standard amino acids (S2 Table). The pseudogenes were *metG* (methionine-tRNA ligase), *lolD* (outer membrane-specific lipoprotein transporter subunit), *mvaK* (mevalonate kinase), *ygaD* (ABC transporter ATP-binding protein) and two genes coding for hypothetical proteins, and are involved in protein synthesis, lipoprotein translocation,
isoprenoid/sterol synthesis and multidrug export respectively. The BPja genome is 636,644 bp in length consisting of a 632,863 bp chromosome and a 3,781 bp plasmid. The GC content of chromosome and plasmid is 27.6% and 29.7%, respectively. The BPja chromosome encodes 618 protein-coding genes, distributed as follows: 8 pseudogenes, 3 rRNA genes, and 34 tRNA genes assigning all 20 standard amino acids (S3 Table). The BPja pseudogenes were gltX (glutamyl-tRNA synthetase), atpG (ATP synthase, gamma subunit), lolD, dnaN (DNA polymerase III), resP (resolvase) and three genes coding for hypothetical proteins, which are related, respectively, with protein synthesis, ATP synthesis, lipoprotein translocation, DNA synthesis and protein degradation.

Both BPfu and BPja plasmids, named pBPFU1 and pBPJA1, respectively, encode 6 protein-coding genes: nrdB (ribonucleotide-diphosphate reductase subunit beta), dut (deoxyuridine triphosphatase), and four genes coding for hypothetical proteins, which belong to metabolic pathways for DNA replication and nucleotide biosynthesis. The same genes were also identified in BNCIN [14]. In general, the number of genes in the Blattabacterium plasmids varied between 3 to 7 and also share a high identity between Blattabacterium from different host species [14].

Phylogenomics and gene synteny

The phylogenetic analysis between BPfu and BPja and other endosymbiont representatives of phylum Bacteroidetes is presented in Fig 1. Within Flavobacteriales order, all Blattabacterium strains are grouped in the same clade and organized in different three sub-clades. One sub-clade groups BBge and BNCIN, BGIGA and BPAA. Another sub-clade is composed by the Blattabacterium strains from wood-feeding cockroach C. punctulatus (BCpu) and primitive termite M. darwiniensis (BMda). The third and monophyletic sub-clade groups BPja, BPfu, BPLAN and BBor, all Blattabacterium strains from omnivorous and worldwide pest cockroaches. The phylogenies of endosymbionts and their hosts are generally congruent evidenced by their long-term evolution [10, 29–30]. In this study, the topology of this third sub-clade shows BPja as an ancestor species of BPfu, BPLAN and BBor, which was also seen in the topology of their host cockroach [31].

The intragenomic changes are quite rare in most primary endosymbionts [5, 8, 15]. The synteny between all sequenced Blattabacterium genomes (Table 1) is presented in Fig 2. The newly sequenced BPja and BPfu genomes reinforce the remarkable stability, in terms of genome structure and content, of the other Blattabacterium genomes. Only the Blattabacterium BCpu and BMda show more divergence compare to other sequenced Blattabacterium genomes [11, 13, 15]. Within the sub-clade II, one inversion occurred, a 19-kb fragment between BPja and BPfu (Fig 2). In clade III, another inversion occurred between BBor and BCpu (20-kb fragment), already denoted by other authors [11, 13, 15] (Fig 2). Other recombination events, such as the presence of large and repetitive intergenic regions observed in the obligate endosymbiont Portiera from whitefly host (Trialeurodes vaporarium) [32], were absented suggesting the general model for genome evolution of gene inactivation and subsequent loss [33–34].

Functional profile and metabolic pathways

Selective pressure across insect hosts and historical contingencies are responsible by specific changes in gene content and pathways among closest endosymbiont strains [35]. The functional profile of BPja and BPful and the other Blattabacterium strains, categorized in COG, are presented in Fig 3 and S4 Table. Notwithstanding, the clustering diagram with the Capnocytophaga canimorsus as outgroup, shows the functional profile of BPfu and BPja are closer to the
Fig 1. Phylogenomics analysis of 75 Bacteroidetes including Blattabacterium strains.

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pan-genome and the omnivorous strains, BBge, whereas the strains from the two wood-feeding species, BCpu and BMda, cluster with the core genome. Several expected features arose from this analysis, such as the predominance of genes in COG category J (translation) within the core and it is the most represented functional category in the endosymbiont genomes. This was expected as most of the conserved universal COGs are contained within this category [36]. The second most represented functional category, especially in the omnivorous species, contains genes involved in amino acid transport and metabolism (E) and shows the main gap between the wood-feeding species and the others, because it harbours most of the gene losses.
described in these two strains [11, 13]. The exception is in other wood feeding species BPAA which is close to BNCIN and BGIGA as described by Tokuda et al. [16].
Cockroaches are incapable of de novo essential amino acid (EAA) synthesis, relying mostly in their diet and in their \textit{Blattabacterium} endosymbionts \cite{2, 8}. The putative metabolic pathway reconstruction from the genome sequence revealed that both BPja and BPfu have the complete biosynthetic pathways for nine EAA (His, Leu, Ile, Val, Lys, Phe, Thr, Trp and Arg) and six non-EAA (Tyr, Ala, Asp, Cys, Glu and Gly) amino acids (Fig 4). The gene set for Asn and Gln biosynthesis is absent in both strains. Whereas only the terminal step enzyme is missing, in case of Pro and Ser biosynthetic pathways. The comparison of amino acid biosynthetic pathways of BPja and BPfu with the other eight-sequenced \textit{Blattabacterium} genomes \cite{8, 10, 12, 14, 16} revealed that none of these strains are able to synthesize all the amino acids. However, the complete biosynthetic pathways of His, Phe, Tyr, Asp, and Glu are present in all \textit{Blattabacterium} strains. All the strains are capable to synthesize all the EAA, except BCpu and BMda that are unable to synthesize Leu, Ile, Val, Thr and Trp.

Most insect species are unable to use reduced oxidized sulfur compounds and incorporate them into biomolecules, depending thus on their diet or the activity of their endosymbionts \cite{37}. The endosymbiont \textit{Buchnera aphidicola}, the primary endosymbiont of aphids, can assimilate sulfate into sulfur-containing amino acids as Cys or Met \cite{36}. In \textit{Blattabacterium}, only BBge \cite{38, 39} and BMda \cite{15} are able to assimilate sulfate as sulfur donor, possessing a cluster of 7 genes coding for all enzymes involved (cysNDHIJEK), in exception of cysC (5’-phosphosulfate kinase). Likewise, we found that BPfu also possess all genes for sulfate assimilation like BBge and BMda (Fig 5). In contrast, BPja have lost most of the genes of this pathway (cysDCHI).
BPja and BPfu are able synthesize some vitamins and cofactors including riboflavin (vitamin B2), pyridoxine (vitamin B6), folate (vitamin B9) and the cofactors FAD, NADP⁺, Coenzyme A, lipoate, FE-S cluster, molybdopterin (Fig 6). Like other endosymbionts, the missing

Fig 5. The pathway of sulfate assimilation from different Blattabacterium strains. (a). Genes required for sulfur assimilation (b) include cysN and cysD coding for two subunits of sulfate adenylyltransferase; the adenosine 5'-phosphosulphosphate (APS) reductase cysH and the sulfite reductase cysJ. There is a missing step for the conversion of adenosine-5'-phosphosulphate (APS) into 3'-phospho adenosine-5'-phosphosulphate (PAPS). The generated sulfite is reduced to hydrogen sulfide further on assimilated into sulfur-containing amino acids L-cysteine and L-methionine.

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Fig 6. Reconstruction of pathways for biosynthesis of vitamins (a) and cofactors (b) in Periplaneta fuliginosa and P. japonica. Gene names are indicated in coloured rectangles. White rectangles indicate missing genes and circles indicate products.

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enzymes of vitamin and cofactor biosynthesis might compensate from either the host or from co-occurring endosymbionts [40–41].

Conclusions
Aside from their ability to live indoors, *P. japonica* and *P. fuliginosa* are adapted to contrasting environmental conditions being the first native from cooler northern climates and the latter from warmer climates and with low or absent cold-resistance [42–43]. These habitats preferences also impose differences in their diet source, which as in other insect species lead to slight differences in the genome content of their endosymbionts. Although the newly sequenced genomes of BPja and BPful emphasise the remarkable stability of *Blattabacterium* genomes, we were able to detect changes in terms of genome synteny and content. The most surprising result was observed in BPja in the sulfur assimilatory pathway, which is similar to BBge and BMda, endosymbionts of contrasting hosts respectively the cockroach *B. germanica* and termite *M. darwiniensis*.

Supporting information

S1 Fig. Standard curves for qPCR quantification of *Blattabacterium* (ureA) from Periplaneta japonica (a) and *P. fuliginosa* (b); and host (wg) *P. japonica* (c) and *P. fuliginosa* (d). (TIFF)

S1 Table. Predicted genes in the *Blattabacterium* sp. from *Periplaneta fuliginosa* (BPfu) genome. (XLSX)

S2 Table. Predicted genes in the *Blattabacterium* sp. from *Periplaneta japonica* (BPja) genome. (XLSX)

S3 Table. Accession number of all genomes used for phylogenomics analysis. (XLSX)

S4 Table. Protein-coding genes have been assigned COG numbers for all *Blattabacterium* strains. (XLSX)

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