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1	The physiology and metabolic properties of a novel, low-abundance <i>Psychrilyobacter</i>
2	species isolated from the anoxic Black Sea shed light on its ecological role
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# Summary

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Members of the Psychrilyobacter spp. of the phylum Fusobacteria have been recently suggested to be amongst the most significant primary degraders of the detrital organic matter in sulfidic marine habitats, despite representing only a small proportion (<0.1%) of the microbial community. In this study, we have isolated a previously uncultured *Psychrilyobacter* species (strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5; *Psychrilyobacter* piezotolerans sp. nov.) from the sulfidic waters (i.e., 2,000 m depth) of the Black Sea and investigated its physiology and genomic capability in order to better understand potential ecological adaptation strategies. P. piezotolerans utilized a broad range of organic substituents (carbohydrates and proteins) and, remarkably, grew at sulfide concentrations up to 32 mM. These flexible physiological properties were supported by the presence of the respective metabolic pathways in the genomes of both strains. Growth at varying hydrostatic pressure (0.1-50 MPa) was sustained by modifying its membrane lipid composition. Thus, we have isolated a novel member of the "rare biosphere", which endures the extreme conditions and may play a significant role in the degradation of detrital organic matter sinking into the sulfidic waters of the Black Sea.

#### Introduction

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The existence of the "rare biosphere" (Sogin et al., 2006) still remains an incompletely understood phenomenon in microbial ecology, partly due to the limited knowledge of the physiology of the microbes present in low abundance. As an example, free-living *Psychrilyobacter* spp. of the phylum *Fusobacteria* have been recently reported to be present in extremely low abundance (i.e., representing <0.1% of the microbial community) in subarctic marine sediments but have been proven to be amongst the most important degraders (i.e., 10 % of the total) of the protein component of the detrital organic matter of this system (Müller et al., 2018; Pelikan et al., 2020), and also in anoxic tidal flat sediments (Graue et al., 2012). Psychrilyobacter spp. 16S rRNA gene sequences have also reported to be under detection level in the subsurface waters of the Gulf of Mexico but became abundant (~40%) after the Deepwater Horizon oil spill, probably due to the potential capacity of the members of this genus for hydrocarbon degradation under anoxic conditions (Gutierrez et al., 2016). Some of these studies applied methods beyond 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing e.g., ecophysiological analyses based on stable-isotope probing and metagenomics. Nevertheless, little is known about the physiology and adaptation strategies of these members of the Fusobacteria phylum as part of the "rare biosphere" in marine habitats".

In this study, we have examined the distribution and abundance of fusobacterial members in the Black Sea water column. The Black Sea is the largest permanent anoxic basin on Earth, with a maximum depth of approximately 2,200 meters. The Black Sea deep waters (> 2,000 m) are characterized recalcitrant nutrient conditions (i.e., the presence of difficult to degrade sulfurized dissolved organic matters; Gomez-Saez *et al.*,

2021), elevated hydrostatic pressure and high sulfide concentration (400 μM; Volkov and Neretin, 2007), conditions which are expected to harbor microorganisms adapted to deal with those conditions (e.g., Vetriani *et al.*, 2003; Wakeham *et al.*, 2003; Lin *et al.*, 2006; Leloup *et al.*, 2007; Wakeham *et al.*, 2007; Henkel *et al.*, 2019; Suominen *et al.*, 2021a; Suominen *et al.*, 2021b; Yadav *et al.*, 2020). Here, we have successfully enriched members of the genus *Psychrilyobacter* (up to 58% of the total microbial community) of the phylum *Fusobacteria* and isolated two representative strains (*Psychrilyobacter* sp. strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5) from the deep sulfidic waters of the Black Sea (i.e., 2,000 m depth). To elucidate their role in the sulfidic waters of the Black Sea, we investigated the genome sequences of the isolated strains, and tested their physiology and adaptation strategies by mimicking the *in situ* physicochemical conditions (i.e., elevated hydrostatic pressure, high sulfide concentration). Our study demonstrates the successful enrichment and isolation of a novel member (*Psychrilyobacter piezotolerans*) of the "rare biosphere" and sheds light onto its potential ecological relevance in sulfidic marine habitats.

#### **Results and Discussion**

# Distribution and ecology of Fusobacteria in the Black Sea water column

Overall, 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing analysis revealed that *Fusobacteria*-affiliated sequences were present in low abundance in the Black Sea water column, representing <0.01% of all 16S rRNA gene sequences identified throughout the water column (Fig. 1C). Estimated fusobacterial 16S rRNA gene copy numbers ranged between 0.4-5.0 x 10<sup>3</sup> L<sup>-1</sup> in the Black Sea water column in the 50- 2,000 m depth range, with the lowest estimated abundances at 50 m (Fig. 1B). The highest estimated abundance of both *Fusobacteria* and *Psychrilyobacter* 16S rRNA gene sequences was

detected at 120-150 m depth within the chemocline. This zone could be most favorable for these microorganisms due to the suboxic-anoxic conditions, availability of various nutrients [e.g.,  $NH_4^+$  (~14  $\mu$ M),  $PO_4^{3-}$  (~5.5  $\mu$ M; Fig. 1A), presence of dissolved organic carbon (~200 µM; Suominen et al., 2021b), and relatively low hydrostatic pressure (1.2-1.5 MPa). Phylogenetic analysis, based on the 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequences attributed to Fusobacteria recovered from the Black Sea water column, revealed that they represent seven putative clades within this phylum (Fig. 1C). Sequences of most of these operational taxonomic units (OTUs) [(i.e., those falling in clade V (SD5<sup>T</sup>, BL5 and closely related sequences) and VI (Leptotrichiaceae-related sequences)] were distributed throughout the water column (Fig. 1B). However, 16S rRNA gene sequences of a few taxa within the phylum Fusobacteria, like Cetobacterium (clade III), were only detected at 2,000 m. Sequences affiliated to *Psychrilyobacter*, the most abundant group within Fusobacteria (i.e., representing 60-100% of all fusobacterial 16S rRNA gene sequences; Fig. 1B), were encountered in waters ranging from 50 to 2,000 m. The presence of the Psychrilyobacter 16S rRNA gene sequences in the oxic zone (50 m; O<sub>2</sub> concentration 121 µM) is intriguing, since members of the phylum Fusobacteria have been described to be strict anaerobes (Janssen and Liesack, 1995; Brune et al., 2002; Hofstad, 2006; Zhao et al., 2009).

### Enrichment and isolation of *Psychrilyobacter* spp.

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The 16S rRNA gene composition of enrichments grown in media BS1, BS2 and BS3 (containing cellulose and tryptone as nutrient sources) revealed that sequences affiliated to the *Psychrilyobacter* genus represented 32-58% of the total microbial community (Supplementary Fig. 1) with a high density of rod to oval shaped cells (Fig.

2). Repeated streaking resulted in the isolation of two bacterial strains, designated SD5<sup>T</sup> (type strain, T, characterized based on a polyphasic taxonomic approach) and BL5. As *Psychrilyobacter* 16S rRNA gene sequences had been detected in the oxic and suboxic zones of the Black Sea (Fig. 1B), the isolated strains were tested for growth under aerobic and microaerophilic conditions but turned out to be strict anaerobes. Both strains were non-spore forming bacteria and showed negative reaction for oxidase and catalase activities, in agreement with their anaerobic lifestyle. Their 16S rRNA gene sequences were identical and they shared 100% similarity with 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequences of *Psychrilyobacter* (considering the ca. 300 bp fragment used for the 16S rRNA gene amplicon analysis) obtained from various depth of the Black Sea waters (Fig. 1).

# General genomic features and phylogenetic affiliation of strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5

Whole genome sequencing of the strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5 yielded genomes of 3,358,809 bp and 3,344,081 bp in length, respectively, which were almost complete (98.88%) and free of contamination (Supplementary Table S1). The G+C mol% of the SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5 was 33.85% and 33.83%, respectively. No CRISPR repeats, signatures of viral infection (Sorek *et al.*, 2008), were identified. Viral lysis of bacteria depends on the encounter possibilities, which are fewer for low abundant microbial taxa (Wilcox and Fuhrman, 1994). Hence, the absence of CRISPR repeats indicates that *Psychrilyobacter* spp. are probably not affected by viral predation due to their extremely low abundance in the Black Sea water column.

The phylogenomic analysis based on the concatenation of 49 marker genes (Fig. 3; see supplementary information for methods) showed that both strains clustered with *Psychrilyobacter atlanticus* DSM 19335<sup>T</sup>. In addition, they showed 99.5% 16S

rRNA gene sequence similarity with *Psychrilyobacter atlanticus* DSM 19335<sup>T</sup>. However, average nucleotide identity (ANI) and digital DNA-DNA hybridization (DDH) between *Psychrilyobacter atlanticus* DSM 19335<sup>T</sup> and strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5 were only 86.6% and 32.9%, respectively (Supplementary Table S3), suggesting that both strains belong to a novel species in the genus *Psychrilyobacter* of the phylum *Fusobacteria*.

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Members of the phylum Fusobacteria are adapted to two contrasting lifestyles i.e., free-living and host associated. Our genome-based phylogeny separates these two types to some extent (Fig. 3): strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5, which are adapted to a free-living lifestyle, are more closely related to other fusobacteria with a free-living lifestyle. However, previous 16S rRNA gene-based studies indicated that their closest phylogenetic neighbors are associated with various marine organisms that do possess a host-associated lifestyle (Li et al., 2012; Bik et al., 2016; Lai et al., 2020; Nelson et al., 2013; Fernandez-Piquer et al., 2012; Palmer et al., 1994; Eisenberg et al., 2016; Aronson et al., 2017; Friel et al., 2020). For example, Psychrilyobacter spp. are reported as the most abundant bacteria in pacific oysters and gut of the Antarctic seals (Nelson et al., 2013; Fernandez-Piquer et al., 2012). Indeed, the size of the genomes of strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5 is larger (ca. 3.35 Mb; Supplementary Table S1) than that of their host-associated phylogenetic neighbors (ca. 2.3 Mb). They also possessed relatively higher genomic G+C content, a greater gene repertoire and a higher number of tRNAs (Supplementary Table S1). Such genomic properties are often possessed by free-living bacteria in comparison to their host-associated stages (Moran and Plague, 2004; Moran and Wernegreen, 2000; Moya et al., 2008; Merhej et al., 2009; Klasson and Andersson, 2004; Wernegreen, 2005) supporting their free-living lifestyle. Moreover, it is still possible to observe genomic traits of their potential host-associated ancestor, such as putative virulence factors (Supplementary Fig. 2) and the isoprenoid MEP/DOXP pathway, which has been previously related to pathogenicity (Sarowska *et al.*, 2019) and intracellular survival (Shin *et al.*, 2006; Begley *et al.*, 2004), respectively. Hence, we assume that these strains also have the potential to colonize higher organisms in a host-associated lifestyle.

#### **Physiology**

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Strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5 hydrolyzed complex polysaccharides such as cellulose, chitin, salicin and starch, and grew anaerobically by fermenting a wide range of various carbon sources (Supplementary Table S4). Among all carbon sources tested for growth, pyruvate was utilized preferably by both strains (Supplementary Table S4). They hydrolyzed proteins and grew well by fermenting various amino acids, i.e., threonine, lysine, glutamate, and aspartate (Supplementary Table S4). The range of compounds that can support growth of the novel isolates is very broad which includes various organic substituents derived from biogenic remains (Supplementary Table S4). Their growth was also improved by acetate which indicates its utilization as carbon and energy source. Considering both the physiology and genomic signatures, it is likely that their capacity to hydrolyze and ferment a wide range of carbohydrates and amino acids allows them to use the detrital organic matter sinking through the sulfidic waters (Diercks and Asper, 1997). This is supported by their high abundance in the nutrient-rich medium mimicking the insitu physicochemical conditions (Supplementary Fig. 2). Our results further support that Psychrilyobacter spp. could be important detrital organic matter degraders along with other anaerobic bacteria in sulfidic marine sediments (Graue et al., 2012; Müller et al., 2018; Pelikan et al., 2020).

We tested our strains for growth at sulfide concentration ranging from 0.1-40 mM. Interestingly, both strains were able to grow at sulfide concentrations up to 32 mM at pH 7.0, which is 80-fold the natural concentration found in the Black Sea deep waters (i.e., 400 μM). To the best of our knowledge, growth at such high sulfide concentration has not been reported for any organisms. At lower (<4 mM) sulfide concentration, the cells appeared as chains of rods (0.6-0.7 x 4.0-6.0 μm), but at higher (>4 mM) sulfide concentration few cells appeared spherical with 0.8-0.9 μm in diameter (Figs. 2A-D). They also showed the presence of sulfur granules in the cell (e.g., Fig. 2C). At 32 mM sulfide concentration, both strains grew in chains of brightly shining cells because of the presence of refractive sulfur granules (Fig. 2E). Growth of both strains was relatively slower in the presence of higher (>7 mM) sulfide concentration and the doubling time extended from 2-3 h at optimal conditions to up to 5-7 h (Fig. 4A).

Strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5 were able to grow up to 50 MPa of hydrostatic pressure under strict anaerobic conditions. However, growth slowed down at elevated hydrostatic pressure (>20 MPa). Addition of glutamate (0.01%) to the growth medium slightly increased growth at elevated hydrostatic pressure (30 MPa; Fig. 4). This is expected since glutamate functions as one of the most prominent compatible solutes under stress conditions (Csonka, 1989). Glutamate has been previously reported as a "piezolite" in *Desulfovibrio hydrothermalis*, where it significantly improved the growth at elevated hydrostatic pressure (Amrani *et al.*, 2014). In addition, glutamate allows enzymes to function efficiently (Brown, 1990; Walker and van der Donk, 2016), eventually protecting macromolecular structures to maintain metabolic functions at elevated hydrostatic pressure (Welsh, 2000; Bhaganna *et al.*, 2010).

We also investigated the effect of elevated hydrostatic pressure on the composition of the cell membrane core lipid (CL) and intact polar lipid (IPL) composition of strain SD5<sup>T</sup>. Overall, the core lipid distribution was similar between the strains grown at 0.1 and 20 MPa but changed significantly for the strain grown at 30 MPa. In the cultures grown at 0.1 and 20 MPa, the relative abundance of unsaturated fatty acids (not including hydroxy fatty acids) was 30 and 35%, respectively (Table 1), while at 30 MPa this had increased to 56%. Similarly, earlier studies have also reported a prominent correlation between growth at elevated hydrostatic pressure and increase of the unsaturated fatty acid content (Yadav et al., 2020, Allen et al., 1999; Grossi et al., 2010). Another observed change in the core lipid distribution was that the abundance of hydroxy fatty acids, probably derived from Lipid A in the lipopolysaccharides (LPS) layer; it decreased with increasing pressure (Table 1). The total hydroxy fatty acids decreased from 18 to 14 to 10% as growth pressure increased from 0.1 to 20 to 30 MPa. Likewise, a decrease in the relative abundance of hydroxy fatty acids has been observed in Profundimonas piezophila grown at elevated hydrostatic pressure (Cao et al., 2014). Alterations in the relative abundance of hydroxy fatty acids are expected to change cell membrane properties by affecting the polarity of core lipids (Nichols et al., 2004). However, there are no detailed studies available related with the physical role of hydroxy fatty acids in the adaptation of cellular membranes under elevated hydrostatic pressure. An increase in hydroxy fatty acids has been observed in psychrophilic bacteria upon cold adaptation (Bale et al., 2019). Consequently, it could be hypothesized that a decrease in the relative abundance of hydroxy acids could be induce by elevated hydrostatic pressure, while an increase in the membrane unsaturated fatty acids is an adaptation to conditions

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in the strains under study here. This change agrees with the fact that polyunsaturated fatty acids chain implement a more expanded conformation with lower melting temperatures than their saturated counterparts allowing the cell membrane flexibility at higher hydrostatic pressure (Hazel *et al.*, 1990).

A notable change of the IPL head group composition with increasing pressure was observed between 20 MPa and 30 MPa (Table 2). Of the IPL headgroups, the largest change was in the relative abundance of phosphatidylglycerol (PG), which was 19 and 24% at 0.1 and 20 MPa, respectively but 51% at 30 MPa (Table 2). The largest concomitant decrease was in the cardiolipins (including lyso-cardiolipins): from 38 and 45% at 0.1 and 20 MPa, respectively, to 22% at 30 MPa (Table 2). This shift may be an adaptive process relating to membrane fluidity at elevated hydrostatic pressure. To date, there are no other reports of such specific membrane adaption under high hydrostatic pressure in piezophilic bacteria. The nitrogen-containing headgroup PC also decreased in relative abundance (Supplementary Table 2) with increasing pressure (17.8, 6.0 and 7.6 % at 0.1, 20 and 30 MPa, respectively). An increase in PG relative to PE with increasing pressure has been previously observed in the piezo-sensitive bacterium, Vibrio sp. strain LT25 (Mangelsdorf et al., 2005) and in Desulfovibrio indonesiensis strain P23 at certain temperatures (Fichtel et al., 2015). Conversely, PG was reported to decrease relative to PE with increasing pressure, for the piezophilic bacterial strains 16C1 and 2D2 (Yano et al., 1998).

#### Metabolism based on genomic analysis

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Genomes of both strains contained genes related to aerotolerance (i.e., superoxide reductase, ruberythrin and thioredoxin reductase; Fig. 5), which might be an adaptation to

survive in oxic and suboxic zone of the Black Sea. They utilized a wide range of carbon and nitrogen sources which is supported by the presence of various genes in the genomes (Fig. 5; Supplementary Table S2). Genes encoding enzymes involved in glucose fermentation, i.e., production of acetate, ethanol, lactate, formate, hydrogen and carbon dioxide (Fig. 5; Supplementary Table S2), and acetate utilization were identified. The presence of seven putative [FeFe]-hydrogenase genes involved in the generation of H<sub>2</sub> during carbohydrate and protein fermentations in various microorganisms were also annotated (Greening *et al.*, 2016; Wolf *et al.*, 2016). This is further supported by the presence of pyruvate-formate lyase and pyruvate-ferredoxin oxidoreductase genes in the genomes (Fig. 5; Supplementary Table S2).

The two known genes for sulfide oxidation i.e., sulfide-quinone-oxidoreductase (sqr) and flavocytochrome c sulfide dehydrogenase were not detected in the genomes. However, sulfide oxidation may be catalyzed by some unclassified flavoproteins encoded by the genomes. We could detect seven gene copies coding for rhodanese (EC 2.8.1.1; Fig. 6; Supplementary Table S2), which are involved in sulfur trafficking and oxidation in bacteria (Dahl, 2017; Koch and Dahl, 2018). Rhodanese cleaves the S-S bond present in thiosulfate, producing sulfur and sulfite (Dahl, 2017; Koch and Dahl, 2018). A complete set of genes encoding the enzymes involved in the heterodisulfide reductase (HDR) system (Fig. 5; Supplementary Table S2), acting as an elemental sulfur oxidation enzyme in the cytoplasmic space of bacteria and archaea (Wang et al., 2019), was also identified. Their presence suggests the involvement in sulfur metabolism and potentially in the alleviation of sulfidic toxicity in the *Psychrilyobacter* spp. at elevated sulfide concentrations.

We also observed the presence of the genes encoding enzymes in the glutamine synthetase (GS) and glutamate synthase (GOGAT) pathway, and glutamate and glutamine transporters in the genomes of the strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5 (Fig. 5; Supplementary Table S2). These genes have been reported to aid in the osmoregulation and survival mechanisms in piezophilic bacteria (Csonka, 1989; Kang and Hwang, 2018). Therefore, the GS/GOGAT pathway and glutamate transporters (Fig. 5) might be involved in the cell internalization of extracellular glutamate and other solutes in *Psychrilyobacter* strains to survive at elevated hydrostatic pressures in the deep sulfidic waters of the Black Sea.

All genes involved in 2-*C*-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate/1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate (MEP/DOXP) pathway of isoprenoid biosynthesis were identified in the genomes of the strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5 (Fig. 5; Supplementary Table S1-S2). We could only detect the phosphomevalonate decarboxylase coding gene of the mevalonate pathway for isoprenoid biosynthesis. Nevertheless, growth of both strains in the medium amended with either/both fosmidomycin [a pathway inhibitor of 2-*C*-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) pathway] and simvastatin (a pathway inhibitor of mevalonate pathway) suggested that both MEP and mevalonate isoprenoid biosynthetic pathways were functional. Hence, the evidence for the presence and potential functionality of both isoprenoid biosynthetic pathways in these strains is enigmatic and requires further study to validate their role.

#### **Conclusions**

Psychrilyobacter spp. typically belong to the "rare biosphere" in marine environments but incubation studies have identified them to be major degraders of

organic matter in sulfidic marine sediments. Here, we isolated two representative strains of *Psychrilyobacter*, which are adapted to both elevated hydrostatic pressure and the high sulfide concentrations of the Black Sea deep water column. Their ability to use a variety of organic substituents and adaptations to various environmental stressors help them to endure with the conditions of the Black Sea. This demonstrates the versatile metabolic potential of a member of the "rare biosphere", which harbors adaptable strategies to deal with various environmental stressors. However, despite these versatile traits, *Psychrilyobacter* spp. remains a quantitatively minor member of the microbial community of the Black Sea for unknown reasons. Incubation studies may therefore provide a quantitatively unrealistic view of the microbes involved in anaerobic organic matter degradation. Overall, our study evidently suggests that a collective approach i.e., the stimulations by organic rich substances, enrichments and isolation in conjunction with culture-independent methods, are required to unravel the ecological relevance of free-living *Fusobacteria* in sulfidic marine habitats.

## Description of *Psychrilyobacter piezotolerans* sp. nov.

Psychrilyobacter piezotolerans (pie.zo.to'le.rans. Gr. v. piezo to press; L. part. adj. tolerans tolerating, N.L. part. adj. piezotolerans tolerating high hydrostatic pressure).

Properties: Cells are motile and rod (0.6-0.7 x 3-6 μm) shaped. Cell shape change from rod to spherical shape (diameter, 1.1-1.2) under higher sulfide concentration (>4 mM). Cells stain Gram-negative and are obligate anaerobes. Growth occurs between pH 6.5-8.8 (optimum 7.0-8.0). Tolerates up to 5.5% NaCl with optimum growth at 2-3%. Optimum growth occurs at 20-25°C (range 4-35 °C). Glutamate supports the growth at higher hydrostatic pressure. Pyruvate is preferred carbon source for the growth. Yeast extract is

required for growth. Dominant fatty acids (>10%) are:  $C_{16:0}$ ,  $C_{16:1}$   $\omega$ 9C and  $C_{14:0}$ . Fatty acids in moderate abundance (4-10%) are:  $\beta$ -OH  $C_{12:0}$  and  $\beta$ -OH  $C_{16:0}$ . Phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), phosphatidylglycerol (PG), cardiolipins and lyso-PE are major polar lipids. G+C content is 33.8%. Type strain is SD5<sup>T</sup> (JCM 32482<sup>T</sup>= KCTC 15663<sup>T</sup>).

#### **Author Contributions**

SY, LV and JSSD designed the study. SY performed most of the laboratory work and data analysis; MK and NB performed the fatty acid and intact polar lipid analysis; SY, LV and JSSD wrote the manuscript.

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## **Conflict of interest statement**

339 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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		BL5	P. atlanticus		$SD5^{T}$		
		0.1 MPa	JCM 14977 <sup>T</sup>	0.1 MPa	20 MPa	30 MPa	
CLs	C <sub>11:0</sub>	-	0.5	-	-		
	$C_{12:0}$	1.1	0.6	1.4	1.4		
	$C_{12:1}$	-	0.2	-	-	-	
	$C_{13:0}$	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.6	
	$C_{14:1} \omega 6C$	-	-	-	-	0.9	
	$C_{14:1} \omega 7C$	0.6	-	0.6	0.9		
	$C_{14:1} \omega 9C$	0.9	-	1.1	0.9	0.7	
	$C_{14:0}$	10.9	7.5	10.6	8.7	6.4	
	$C_{15:1} \omega 7C$	0.1	-	0.1	0.2	8.1	
	$C_{15:1}$ $\omega 9C$	2.2	-	2.2	4.7	0.5	
	$C_{15:0}$	1.4	2.2	1.5	2.0	2.9	
	$C_{16:1} \omega 9C$	23.0	23.1	23.1	22.9	36.7	
	$C_{16:1} \omega 11C$	0.5	-	0.2	0.4	1.1	
	$C_{16:0}$	36.0	41.5	36.7	34.2	18.4	
	$C_{17:1} \omega 9C$	0.5	0.9	0.4	1.4	1.4	
	$C_{17:1} \omega 11C$	0.5	1.2	0.5	1.4	3.3	
	$C_{17:0}$	1.2	2.5	1.1	2.9	1.9	
	$C_{18:1} \omega 9C$	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.4	2.0	
	$C_{18:1} \omega 11C$	1.3	1.9	0.9	1.6	1.5	
	$C_{18:1} \omega 13C$	-	-	0.3	-		
	$C_{18:0}$	1.5	1.6	0.9	2.0	2.7	
	Σ saturated FAs	52.4	56.6	52.6	51.7	32.9	
	$\Sigma$ unsaturated FAs	30.0	27.8	29.6	34.8	56.2	
Hydroxy FAs	β-OH C <sub>10:0</sub>	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.5	-	
	$\beta$ -OH C <sub>11:0</sub>	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.2	
	β-OH C <sub>12:1</sub>	0.4	-	0.7	0.4	0.4	
	β-OH C <sub>12:0</sub>	5.3	3.6	5.7	4.1	1.7	
	β-OH C <sub>13:0</sub>	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	
	β-OH C <sub>14:0</sub>	3.0	1.8	2.5	1.7	2.3	
	β-OH C <sub>15:0</sub>	0.4	0.9	0.4	0.5	0.8	
	β-OH C <sub>16:1</sub>	0.2	-	0.3	0.2	0.8	
	β-OH C <sub>16:0</sub>	4.9	5.1	4.8	3.5	2.3	
	β-OH C <sub>17:0</sub>	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.4	
	β-OH C <sub>18:0</sub>	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.1	-	
	3-Methoxy $C_{11:0}$	0.1	-	1.1	0.1	-	
	3-Methoxy C <sub>12:0</sub>	1.1	-	0.8	1.0	-	
	Di-hydroxy FAs	0.6	_		0.3	_	

_	Σ hydroxy FAs	17.7	14.1	18.2	13.9	9.7
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**Table 2:** The relative abundance of the intact polar lipids, grouped by headgroup. PEs, phosphatidylethanolamine; PGs, phosphatidylglycerol; PCs, phosphatidylcholine. The acyl moieties of the most abundant species of each polar head group are given.

Polar head group	Acyl moieties of abundant species	SD5 <sup>T</sup> (0.1 MPa)	SD5 <sup>T</sup> (20 MPa)	SD5 <sup>T</sup> (30 MPa)	BL5
PEs	C <sub>16:0</sub> , C <sub>12:0</sub>	2122 00)			
120	$C_{16:1}, C_{14:0}$	14.7	15.9	15.1	13.8
	$C_{16:1}, C_{16:0}$				
	$C_{16:0}, C_{16:0}$				
PGs	$C_{16:0}, C_{15:1}$				
	$C_{16:1}, C_{14:0}$	18.6	24.4	50.8	18.4
	$C_{16:1}, C_{16:0}$				
	$C_{16:1}, C_{16:1}$				
PCs	$C_{16:1}, C_{18:1}$				
	$C_{16:1}, C_{16:0}$	17.8	6.0	7.6	18.2
	$C_{16:1}, C_{16:1}$				
Cardiolipins	$C_{16:0}, C_{16:1}, C_{16:0}, C_{12:0}$				
	$C_{16:0}, C_{16:1}, C_{16:1}, C_{14:0}$	23.7	28.6	18.7	21.2
	$C_{16:0}, C_{16:1}, C_{16:0}, C_{15:1}$				
	$C_{16:0}, C_{16:1}, C_{16:1}, C_{16:0}$				
Lyso PEs	C <sub>16:0</sub>	11.2	9.0	4.2	11.7
Lyso PCs	$C_{16:0}$	-	-	-	3.8
	$C_{18:0}$				
Lyso	$C_{16:0}, C_{16:1}, C_{16:0}$	13.9	16.2	3.6	12.9
Cardiolipins	$C_{16:0}, C_{16:1}, C_{16:1}$				

# Figure legends

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Fig. 1: Fusobacteria in the Black Sea. (A) Water column concentration profiles of oxygen, PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>, HS<sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in the center of the gyre of the western basin (42) 53.78' N 30 40.72') of the Black Sea (data from Sollai et al., 2019 and Suominen et al., 2021a). (B) Estimated abundance (expressed as the number of 16S rRNA gene copies L<sup>-1</sup>) of the members of the phylum Fusobacterial and Psychrilyobacter spp. in the Black Sea water column. Data were obtained by sampling with Niskin bottles, filtration, DNA extraction, 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing and quantitative PCR, both using the same universal bacterial primers (see Yadav et al., 2020 and Villanueva et al., 2021). Note that the depth axis in (A) and (B) is not to scale. (C) Phylogenetic tree based on partial (~304 bp) 16S rRNA gene sequences obtained from SPM of the the Black Sea water at various depth (50-2000 m) and enrichment cultures. For reference, the full length 16S rRNA gene sequences of various type strains of the fusobacteria and those of the isolated strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5 were used in the construction of the tree. The phylogenetic analysis shows the presence of seven clades within the phylum Fusobacteria in the Black Sea waters. The relative abundance of sequences affiliated with each clade (in % of all recovered 16S rRNA sequences) and their depth distribution is listed in parentheses. The sequences of the two isolated strains SD5<sup>T</sup>, and BL5 and most of those obtained from the enrichment cultures were affiliated with clade V. The tree was constructed by the neighbor-joining method and rooted by using the Streptobacillus felis 131000547<sup>T</sup> (HG421076) 16S rRNA gene sequence as an outgroup. Numbers at nodes represent bootstrap values (based on 1,000 resamplings). The length of the bar indicates two nucleotide substitutions per 100 nucleotides.

- **Fig. 2:** Cell morphology of strain SD5<sup>T</sup> grown at optimal growth conditions (**A**), at 11 mM (**B, C, D**) and (**E**) 32 mM of sodium sulfide concentration (**C**) Sulfur granules are observed under phase contrast-microscope after 3 days of growth. Error bars refer to the standard error.
- Fig. 3: Phylogenomic tree of strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5, and their nearest phylogenetic neighbors affiliated with the phylum Fusobacteria. The tree was built by the maximum likelihood method using the Species TreeBuilder v.2.1.10 based on highly conserved concatenated protein sequences of 49 core, universal genes defined by COG (Clusters of Orthologous Groups) listed on the KBase server (Arkin et al., 2018). The tree was rooted by using Ancylomarina subtilis FA 102<sup>T</sup> (SHKN01000000) as an outgroup. The genome sequence accession numbers are shown between parentheses. Numbers at nodes represent bootstrap values (1 refers to 1000). The length of the bar indicates two nucleotide substitutions per 10 nucleotides.
  - **Fig. 4:** Doubling time of strain SD5<sup>T</sup> grown at various sulfide concentrations (**A**) and growth at optimal conditions (**B**; 23°C; 0.1 MPa, and pyruvate as carbon source) and (**C**) at 30 MPa with and without the addition of glutamate (other conditions unchanged). Key:  $OD_{600} = optical$  density measured at 600 nm. Error bars refer to the standard error.

**Fig. 5:** Reconstruction of the central metabolic pathway of strain SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5 based on different physiological analyses and by the presence of various genes identified in the genome sequence. Empty boxes indicate missing genes. IPP, isopentenyl pyrophosphate; PP Pathway, pentose phosphate pathway; geranyl-PP, geranyl pyrophosphate; GS, glutamine synthetase; glutamate synthase (GOGAT). Numbers identify genes according to the key in Supplementary Table S2.

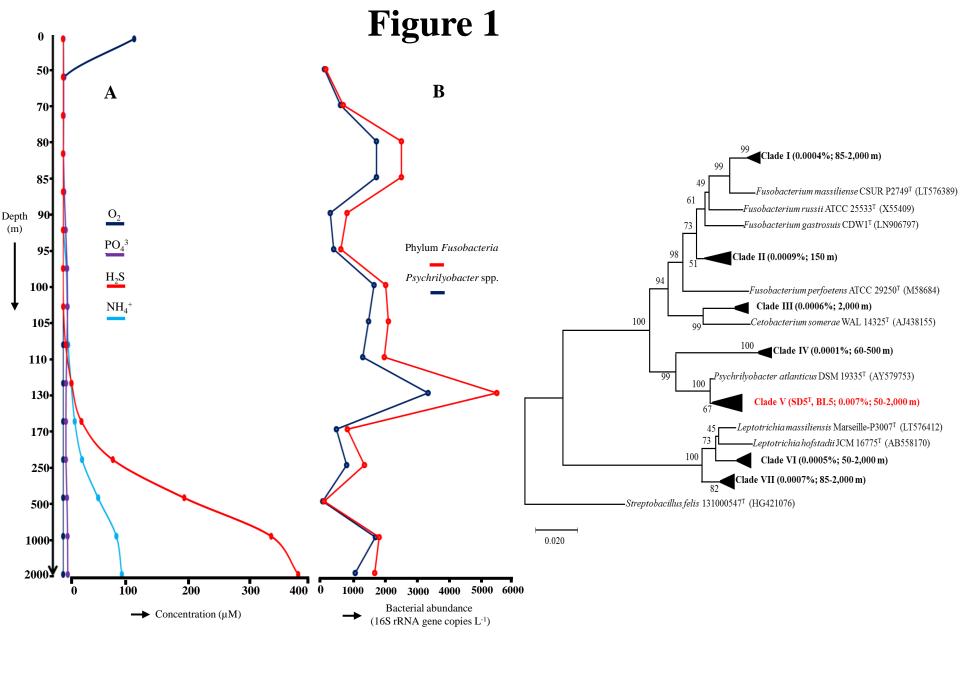
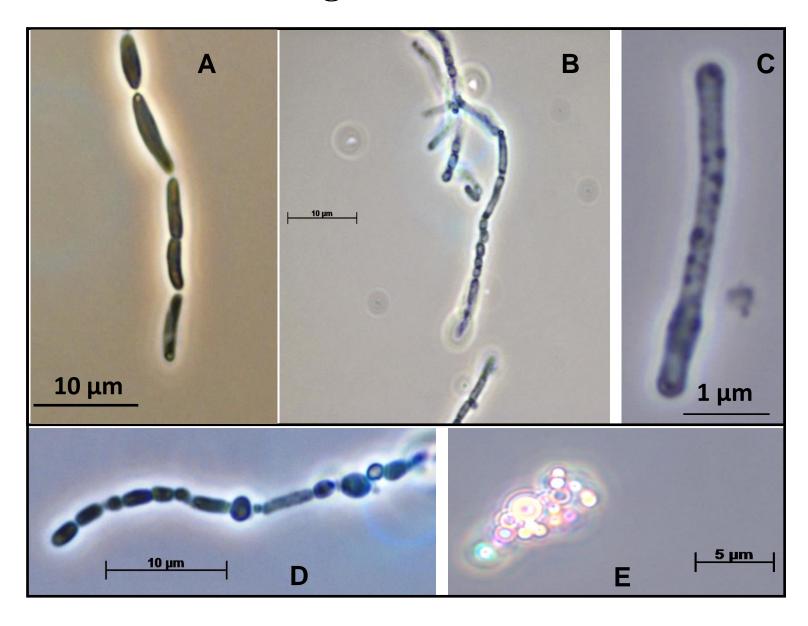
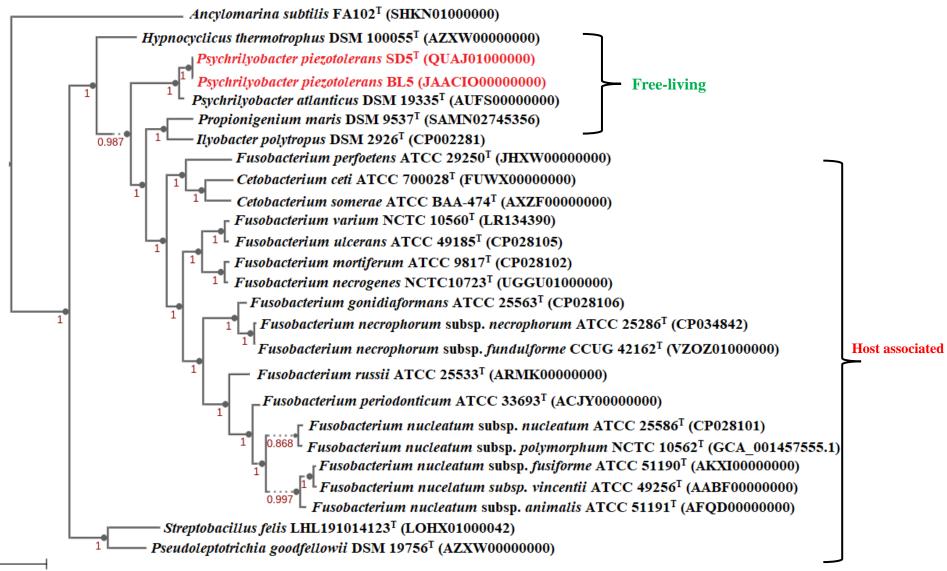


Figure 2

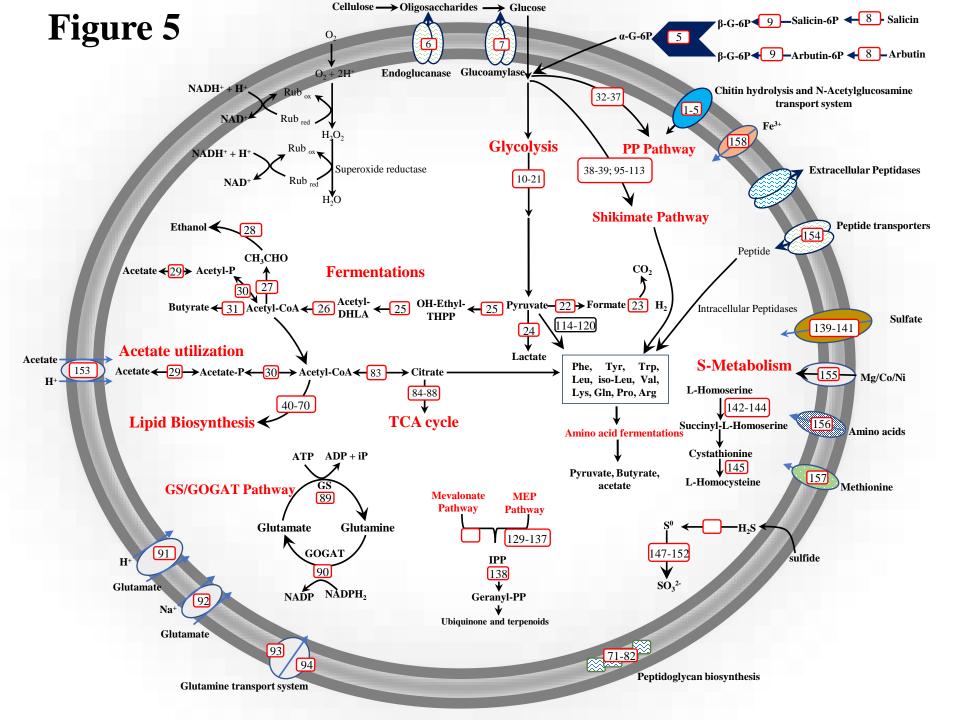


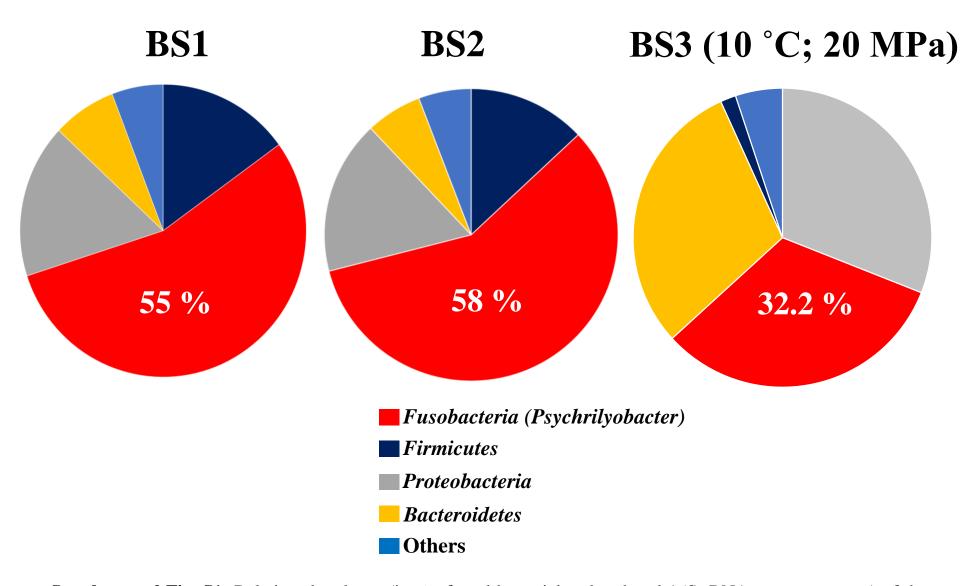
# Figure 3



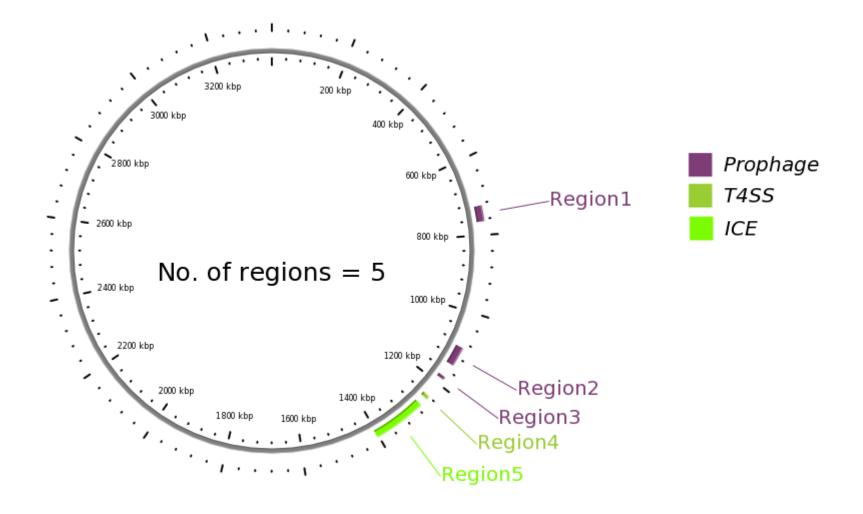
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Figure 4 **(A)** Doubling time (h) 4 Sulfide concentration (mM) 0.35 0.3 0.25  $OD_{600}$ 0.2 **(B)** 0.15 0.1 0.05 **(C)** 0.05 0.04 0.03  $OD_{600}$ 0.02 0.01→ Pyruvate → Pyruvate + 0.01% Glutamate 0 Time (h)





**Supplemental Fig. S1:** Relative abundance (in % of total bacterial and archaeal 16S rRNA gene sequences) of the *Psychrilyobacter* spp. and the composition of the rest of the microbial community in the enrichments using the growth media BS1, BS2 and BS3.



**Supplemental Fig. S2:** Putative virulence related regions identified in the genomes of strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5.

The physiology and metabolic properties of a novel, low-abundance Psychrilyobacter

species isolated from the anoxic Black Sea shed light on its ecological role

Running title: Physiology of a novel *Psychrilyobacter* sp.

Keywords: Fusobacteria; Psychrilyobacter; Black Sea; Piezotolerance; Energy metabolism

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#### **Experimental procedures**

# Sampling sites, 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing and quantification

A sampling survey was conducted to collect water from the Black Sea in 2017 and 2018 on board of the R/V Pelagia as described elsewhere (Yadav et al., 2020). The study site was located at 42° 53.78' N 30° 40.72' E in the center of the gyre of the western basin. Water was collected with Niskin bottles under N<sub>2</sub> overpressure as described earlier (Yadav et al., 2020). To analyze the total prokaryotic diversity, DNA was extracted from both the water column from the Black Sea in-situ and from the enrichment cultures themselves, and further amplified for 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing as described earlier (Yadav et al., 2020). 16S rRNA gene amplicon data were analyzed by the Cascabel pipeline (Asbun et al., 2020) as described earlier (Yadav et al., 2020). Reads attributed to the Fusobacteria in the environmental samples and in the water sample kept in the lab to start enrichments were extracted by using Qiime (Caporaso et al., 2010) and, together with the 16S rRNA gene sequence of the isolated strain, used to construct a phylogenetic tree by using MEGA X as described earlier (Subhash et al., 2013). 16S rRNA gene copies were quantified using qPCR with the same primer pair as used for amplicon sequencing (515F, 806RB) as described earlier (van Grinsven et al., 2020). We estimated the absolute abundance of *Psychrilyobacter* spp. and other members of the phylum Fusobacteria by multiplying the total concentration of 16S rRNA gene copies per liter obtained by qPCR by the fractional abundance of Fusobacteria.

#### **Enrichment and isolation**

Black Sea water collected during the 2017 and 2018 cruise was used for the subsequent enrichments in two different growth media. Growth medium 1 (BS1) contained (g L<sup>-1</sup>, pH 7.0) cellulose (2.0); tryptone (2.0); yeast extract (1.0); CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (1.0), NaCl (20.0), MgCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O (3.6), MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O (4.3), KCl (0.5), Na<sub>2</sub>S.9H<sub>2</sub>O (100 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). Growth medium 2 (BS2) was prepared by diluting the medium BS1 for 10 times except for NaCl and Na<sub>2</sub>S.9H<sub>2</sub>O. Growth

medium 3 (BS3) was prepared by adding the sterilized Black Sea water (100 ml L<sup>-1</sup>) in the BS2 with 400 μM of sulfide concentration to mimic the semi-natural compositions of the Black Sea. All medium components were sterilized by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 min. MgCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O and CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O were added from separately autoclaved stocks to prevent precipitation. All substrates were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany). Enrichments were carried out in 110-mL serum bottles containing 50 mL of medium as described earlier (Yadav *et al.*, 2020). Enrichments at elevated hydrostatic pressure (i.e., 20 MPa) were kept in a high-pressure cultivation device as described earlier (Yadav *et al.*, 2020).

### Genome sequencing, assembly, annotations, and phylogenetic analysis

Genomic DNA was isolated by the method of Marmur (1961) from pure cultures of the strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5. Sequencing of the genome of both strains (SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5) were performed at the CGEB-IMR (Dalhousie University, Canada), using an Illumina MiSeq (Illumina Inc) platform. Assembly of the raw sequencing data was performed by using the assembly PATRIC (Pathosystems Integration service at Resource Center: https://www.patricbrc.org/) server. Genome completeness was contamination were estimated by CheckM (Parks et al., 2015). Annotation of the assembled data was performed on prokka pipeline (Seemann, 2014) available on the DOE systems biology knowledgebase (KBase; Arkin the Subsystem al., 2018), Rapid Annotation Using Technology (RAST; http://rast.nmpdr.org/rast.cgi; Brettin et al., 2015) and PATRIC (Pathosystems Resource Integration Center; https://www.patricbrc.org/; Wattam et al., 2017). BlastKOALA tool (Kanehisa et al., 2016) was used for the functional characterization of the genome sequence of strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5. CRISPR arrays were identified with CRT (v. 1.1) (Bland et al., 2007). dbCAN meta server (Zhang et al., 2018) was used to identify the carbohydrate active enzymes in the genome sequence of strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5. Putative virulence factors in the genomes were identified by using the VRprofile (Li et al., 2018). We used Species TreeBuilder v.2.1.10

to construct phylogenetic trees based on a set of 49 core, universal genes defined by COG (Clusters of Orthologous Groups) gene families (Price et al., 2010). Average nucleotide identity (ANI; Goris et al., 2007) and digital DNA-DNA hybridization (DDH; Richter and Rosselló-Móra. 2009) was performed by using the Kostas lab server (http://envemics.ce.gatech.edu/ani/) and genome-to-genome distance calculator (http://ggdc.dsmz.de/; Meier-Kolthoff et al., 2013), respectively. 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing data of the Black Sea water columns are deposited in NCBI as mentioned earlier (Yadav et al., 2020) and under Bioproject number PRJNA662699, PRJNA662698 and PRJNA681484. The NCBI accession number of the draft genome sequence of strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5 are QUAJ00000000 and JAACIO000000000, respectively.

### Morphological, physiological, and biochemical analyses

Morphological properties and other physiological tests such as growth at different temperatures, pH and NaCl were performed as described earlier (Shivani *et al.*, 2015; 2016). Growth on organic substrates (D-glucose, glycerol, cellulose, chitin, cellobiose, sucrose, starch, pyruvate, acetate, L-glutamate and L-aspartic acid and L-lysine) was tested in a minimal medium described previously (Shivani *et al.*, 2015; 2016). For chitin hydrolysis test, colloidal chitin was prepared as described earlier (Berger and Reynolds, 1988; Das *et al.*, 2010). Colloidal chitin was used as the carbon source (0.5 g L<sup>-1</sup>) in a growth medium (g L<sup>-1</sup>, pH 7.0) which contained yeast extract (1.0); CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (1.0), NaCl (20.0), MgCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O (3.6), MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O (4.3), KCl (0.5), and Na<sub>2</sub>S.9H<sub>2</sub>O (100 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). Chitin hydrolysis was concluded as mentioned earlier (Das *et al.*, 2010. Cellulose and starch hydrolysis was performed in the growth medium mentioned above with cellulose and starch as carbon source separately as described earlier (Cappuccino and Sherman, 1999; Shivani *et al.*, 2015; 2016). Fermentation of various carbon sources (glucose, lactate, glycerol, xylose, galactose, cellobiose, maltose, lactose, aspartate, threonine, glutamate, and lysine) were tested as described previously

(Shivani et al., 2015; 2016). For validation of 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate/1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate (MEP/DOXP) and mevalonate pathway of isoprenoid biosynthesis in strain SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5, MEP/DOXP pathway inhibitor (fosmidomycin (50 µg ml<sup>-1</sup>) and mevalonate pathway inhibitor (simvastatin; 50 µg ml<sup>-1</sup>) were used as described earlier (Shivani et al., 2016). Growth at elevated hydrostatic pressure (0.1 MPa-60 MPa) was tested in pressure vessels under strict anaerobic conditions as described previously (Yadav et al., 2020). Sulfide tolerance (0.1-40 mM) test was performed in the liquid medium which contained (g L<sup>-1</sup>, pH 7.0) pyruvate (2.0); tryptone (2.0); yeast extract (1.0); CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (1.0), NaCl (20.0), MgCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O (3.6), MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O (4.3) and KCl (0.5). The sulfide solution was neutralized before adding to the medium as described earlier (Hansen and Veldkamp, 1973). Chemolithoautotrophic and chemolithoheterotrophic growth was tested as described earlier (Takai et al., 2009; Miroshnichenko et al., 2003). Growth on acetate (as a carbon source) and sulfate as terminal electron acceptor was tested in a growth medium which contained (g L<sup>-1</sup>, pH 7.0) acetate (2.0); yeast extract (0.1); CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (1.0), NaCl (20.0), MgCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O (3.6), MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O (4.3); KCl (0.5) and trace elements (1 mL; Stams et al., 1993) as described earlier (Scholten and Stams, 2000). Various biochemical tests (casein hydrolysis, oxidase, and catalase activity) were carried out as described previously (Subhash et al., 2013; Shivani et al., 2015). Other enzymatic activities and biochemical test were determined with API 20 A kit (bioMerieux, France) according to the instructions of the manufacturer.

### Core lipid and intact polar lipid (IPL) analyses

The core lipid of strains SD5<sup>T</sup>, BL5 and *Psychrilyobacter atlanticus* JCM 14977<sup>T</sup> were analyzed on the culture grown in liquid medium with glucose as carbon source. Cells were harvested by centrifugation (5,000 g for 10 min at 25 °C) from late exponential phase of growth and core lipids were released by base hydrolysis and analyzed by gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC/MS), as described previously (van Vliet *et al.*, 2020). Intact polar lipids

(IPLs) were extracted from freeze-dried biomass using a modified Bligh-Dyer procedure and were analyzed by high performance liquid chromatography-ion trap mass spectrometry (HPLC-ITMS) as described previously (Hazel and Williams, 1990).

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**Supplementary Table S1:** Comparative genomic analysis of strains SD5<sup>T</sup>, BL5, and their closest phylogenetic neighbours affiliated with the phylum *Fusobacteria*.

S. No.	Fusobacterial strains	Lifestyle	Genome Size (bp)	Genome Completeness (%)	%Contamination	G+C content	CDS	Proteins with functional assignments	tRNA	rRNA	Hypothetical proteins	CRISPR Repeats	Virulence factors	IPP Pathway	Antibiotic resistance genes	Accession number
1	Strain SD5 <sup>T</sup>	F	3,358,809	98.88	1.12	33.8	3256	2012	61	2	1244	_	3	MEP/mevalonate	33	QUAJ00000000
2	Strain BL5	F	3,344,081	98.88	1.12	33.8	3235	1966	63	2	1269	_	3	MEP/mevalonate	3	JAACIO000000000
3	Psychrilyobacter atlanticus DSM 19335 <sup>T</sup>	F	3,530,952	98.88	2.25	31.9	3347	2115	65	25	1232	-	1	MEP	30	AUFS00000000
4	Propionigenium maris DSM 9537 <sup>T</sup>	F	4,109,009	97.75	4.49	40.8	4115	1945	103	2	2170	-	-	MEP	28	SAMN02745356
5	Ilyobacter polytropus DSM 2926 <sup>T</sup>	F	3,132,314	100	0.00	34.3	3022	2238	79	26	784	-	2	MEP	27	CP002281
6	Fusobacterium mortiferum ATCC 9817 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,716,766	100	0.5	29.2	2664	1859	68	2	805	12	2	MEP	27	CP028102
7	Fusobacterium necrogenes NCTC 10723 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,015,236	100	0.2	29.2	1828	1351	66	13	477	-	-	MEP	26	UGGU01000000
8	Fusobacterium ulcerans ATCC 49185 <sup>T</sup>	Н	3,537,675	100	0.00	30.5	3289	2117	57	14	1172	42	1	MEP	30	CP028105
9	Fusobacterium gonidiaformans ATCC 25563 <sup>T</sup>	Н	1,678,881	100	0.00	32.7	1634	1243	50	12	391	84	1	MEP	24	CP028106
10	Fusobacterium necrophorum subsp. funduliforme CCUG 42162 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,124,940	100	0.00	34.9	2114	1507	50	17	607	43	-	MEP	24	VZOZ01000000
11	Fusobacterium necrophorum subsp. necrophorum ATCC 25286 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,678,415	100	0.00	34.0	2505	1781	51	12	1067	168	-	MEP	24	CP034842
12	Fusobacterium russii ATCC 25533 <sup>T</sup>	Н	1,935,478	98.88	0.00	28.6	1742	1195	41	6	547	-	2	MEP	24	ARMK00000000
13	Cetobacterium ceti ATCC 700028 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,580,907	100	1.12	28.2	2538	1370	86	40	1168	19	3	MEP	27	FUWX00000000
14	Fusobacterium varium NCTC 10560 <sup>T</sup>	Н	3,302,398	98.31	2.25	29.3	3519	2520	58	14	999	58	1	MEP	33	LR134390

15	Cetobacterium somerae ATCC BAA-474 <sup>T</sup>	Н	3,064,648	98.88	0.00	28.6	2850	1685	29	4	1165	-	1	MEP	32	AXZF00000000
16	Fusobacterium periodonticum ATCC 33693 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,615,003	100	1.30	27.4	2453	1469	45	7	984	-	-	MEP	26	ACJY00000000
17	Fusobacterium nucleatum subsp. polymorphum NCTC 10562 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,455,060	100	0.00	27.0	2351	1567	47	15	784	30	3	MEP	24	GCA_001457555.1
18	Fusobacterium perfoetens ATCC 29250 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,102,197	100	0.5	25.9	1944	1238	41	15	706	-	-	MEP	27	JHXW00000000
19	Hypnocyclicus thermotrophus DSM 100055 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,218,931	100	0.00	24.8	2053	1241	61	3	812	44	2	MEP	25	SOBG01000000
20	Fusobacterium nucleatum subsp. nucleatum ATCC 25586 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,180,101	100	0.00	27.1	2065	1593	47	5	472	18	2	MEP	24	CP028101
21	Fusobacterium nucleatum subsp. fusiforme ATCC 51190 <sup>T</sup>	Н	1,837,113	100	0.00	27.2	1723	1328	45	11	395	-	1	MEP	23	AKXI00000000
22	Fusobacterium nucleatum subsp. vincentii ATCC 49256 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,118,259	94.92	1.12	27.3	2296	1600	44	7	696	-	1	MEP	28	AABF00000000
23	Fusobacterium nucleatum subsp. animalis ATCC 51191 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,270,170	94.38	0.56	27.5	2401	1658	42	5	743	-	3	MEP	30	AFQD00000000
24	Pseudoleptotrichia goodfellowii DSM 19756 <sup>T</sup>	Н	2,280,962	100	2.25	31.6	2257	1392	38	7	436	-	2	MEP	20	AZXW00000000
25	Streptobacillus felis LHL191014123 <sup>T</sup>	Н	1,386,907	98.6	0.00	26.3	1406	970	37	2	680	-	2	MEP	24	LOHX01000042

bp, base pair; F, free-living; H, host associated; -, not detected; IPP, isopentenyl pyrophosphate; MEP, 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate.

**Supplementary Table S2:** List of various genes identified in the genome sequence of strains  $SD5^T$  and BL5.

S.No.	Genes								
	Chitin hydrolysis and N-Acetylglucosamine transport								
1	PTS system, N-acetylglucosamine-specific IIA component (EC 2.7.1.69) / PTS								
	system, N-acetylglucosamine-specific IIB component (EC 2.7.1.69) / PTS system,								
	N-acetylglucosamine-specific IIC component (EC 2.7.1.69)								
2	N-Acetyl-D-glucosamine ABC transport system, permease protein 1								
3	N-Acetyl-D-glucosamine ABC transport system, permease protein 2								
4	N-acetylglucosamine-6-phosphate deacetylase (EC 3.5.1.25)								
5	Glucosamine-6-phosphate deaminase (EC 3.5.99.6)								
	Cellulose hydrolysis								
6	Endoglucanase (EC 3.2.1.4)								
7	Glucoamylase (EC 3.2.1.3)								
8	PTS system, sugar-specific IIA component [EC:2.7.1]								
9	6-Phospho-beta-glucosidase [EC:3.2.1.86]								
10	Glucose-6-phosphate isomerase [EC:5.3.1.9]								
	Glycolysis/Glyconeogenesis								
11	Glucokinase [EC:2.7.1.2]								
12	Glucose-6-phosphate isomerase [EC:5.3.1.9]								
13	6-Phosphofructokinase 1 [EC:2.7.1.11]								
14	Fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase, GlpX type (EC 3.1.3.11)								
15	Fructose-bisphosphate aldolase, class II [EC:4.1.2.13]								
16	Triosephosphate isomerase (TIM) [EC:5.3.1.1]								
17	Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase [EC:1.2.1.12]								
18	Phosphoglycerate kinase [EC:2.7.2.3]								
19	2,3-Bisphosphoglycerate-independent phosphoglycerate mutase [EC:5.4.2.12]/								
20	Probable phosphoglycerate mutase [EC:5.4.2.12]								
20	Enolase [EC:4.2.1.11]								
21	Pyruvate kinase [EC:2.7.1.40]								
22	Fermentation								
22	Pyruvate formate-lyase (EC 2.3.1.54)								
23	Formate dehydrogenase chain D (EC 1.2.1.2)								
24	L-lactate dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.2.3)								
25 26	Pyruvate dehydrogenese E1 component [EC:1.2.4.1]								
20	Pyruvate dehydrogenase E2 component (dihydrolipoamide acetyltransferase) [EC:2.3.1.12]								
27	Acetaldehyde dehydrogenase (EC 1.2.1.10)								
28	Alcohol dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1.1)								
29	Acetate kinase (EC 2.7.2.1)								
30	Phosphate acetyltransferase (EC 2.3.1.8)								
31	Butyrate-acetoacetate CoA-transferase subunit A (EC 2.8.3.9)								
31	Pentose phosphate pathway								
32	Glucose-6-phosphate 1-dehydrogenase [EC:1.1.1.49 1.1.1.363]								
33	Glucose-6-phosphate 1-dehydrogenase [EC:1.1.1.49 1.1.1.363]								
34	6-Phosphogluconolactonase [EC:3.1.1.31]								
35	6-Phosphogluconate dehydrogenase [EC:1.1.1.44 1.1.1.343]								
36	Ribose 5-phosphate isomerase A [EC:5.3.1.6]								
37	Ribose-phosphate pyrophosphokinase [EC:2.7.6.1]								
	T T meets the meet seemed								

38	Transketolase [EC:2.2.1.1]							
39	Ribulose-phosphate 3-epimerase [EC:5.1.3.1]							
	Lipid Biosynthesis							
40	Acetyl-CoA carboxylase / biotin carboxylase 1 [EC:6.4.1.2 6.3.4.142.1.3.15]							
41	[Acyl-carrier-protein] S-malonyltransferase [EC:2.3.1.39]							
42	3-Oxoacyl-[acyl-carrier-protein] synthase III [EC:2.3.1.180]							
43	3-Oxoacyl-[acyl-carrier-protein] synthase II [EC:2.3.1.179]							
44	3-Oxoacyl-[acyl-carrier protein] reductase [EC:1.1.1.100]							
45	3-Hydroxyacyl-[acyl-carrier-protein] dehydratase [EC:4.2.1.59]							
46	Enoyl-[acyl-carrier protein] reductase II [EC:1.3.1.9]							
47	Enoyl-[acyl-carrier protein] reductase / trans-2-enoyl-CoA reductase (NAD+) [EC:1.3.1.9 1.3.1.44]							
48	Acyl-[acyl-carrier-protein] desaturase [EC:1.14.19.2 1.14.19.111.14.19.26]							
49	Long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase [EC:6.2.1.3]							
50	acyl-coenzyme A thioesterase 1/2/4 [EC:3.1.2.2]							
	Phosphatidylethanolamine biosynthesis							
51	Phosphatidate cytidylyltransferase [EC:2.7.7.41]							
52	Phosphatidylserine decarboxylase [EC:4.1.1.65]							
53	CDP-diacylglycerolserine O-phosphatidyltransferase [EC:2.7.8.8]							
	Glycerophospholipid metabolism							
54	Glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase [EC:1.1.9.4]							
55	Glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.5.3)							
56	Lipid A biosynthesis lauroyl acyltransferase (EC 2.3.1)							
57	4-Hydroxybutyrate: acetyl-CoA CoA transferase (EC 2.3.1)							
58	1-Acyl-sn-glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase (EC 2.3.1.51)							
59	Phosphatidate cytidylyltransferase (EC 2.7.7.41)							
60	CDP-diacylglycerolserine O-phosphatidyltransferase (EC 2.7.8.8)							
61	CDP-diacylglycerolglycerol-3-phosphate 3-phosphatidyltransferase (EC 2.7.8.5)							
62	Phosphatidylglycerophosphatase A (EC 3.1.3.27)							
63	Cardiolipin synthase (EC 2.7.8) bacterial type ClsA							
64	D-glycero-D-manno-heptose 1,7-bisphosphate phosphatase (EC 3.1.1)							
65	Diacylglycerol kinase (EC 2.7.1.107)							
66	Phosphatidylserine decarboxylase (EC 4.1.1.65)							
67	Lysophospholipase (EC 3.1.1.5); Monoglyceride lipase (EC 3.1.1.23); putative							
68	Glycerophosphoryl diester phosphodiesterase (EC 3.1.4.46)							
69	Ethanolamine ammonia-lyase light chain (EC 4.3.1.7)							
70	Ethanolamine ammonia-lyase heavy chain (EC 4.3.1.7)							
	Peptidoglycan biosynthesis							
71	UDP-N-acetylglucosamine 1-carboxyvinyltransferase (EC 2.5.1.7)							
72	UDP-N-acetylmuramatealanine ligase (EC 6.3.2.8)							
73	UDP-N-acetylmuramoylalanineD-glutamate ligase (EC 6.3.2.9)							
74	UDP-N-acetylmuramoyl-L-alanyl-D-glutamate2,6-diaminopimelate ligase (EC							
	6.3.2.13)							
75	D-alanineD-alanine ligase (EC 6.3.2.4)							
76	UDP-N-acetylmuramoyl-tripeptideD-alanyl-D-alanine ligase (EC 6.3.2.10)							
77	Phospho-N-acetylmuramoyl-pentapeptide-transferase (EC 2.7.8.13)							
78	Undecaprenyl-diphosphatase (EC 3.6.1.27)							
79	UDP-N-acetylglucosamineN-acetylmuramyl-(pentapeptide) pyrophosphoryl							
, ,	undecaprenol N-acetylglucosamine transferase (EC 2.4.1.227)							
80	Lipid carrier: UDP-N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase (EC 2.4.1)							

0.1	M-16
81	Multimodular transpeptidase-transglycosylase (EC 2.4.1.129) (EC 3.4)
82	Peptidoglycan D, D-transpeptidase MrdA (EC 3.4.16.4)
02	Citric acid cycle
83	Citrate synthase (si) (EC 2.3.3.1)
84	Aconitate hydratase (EC 4.2.1.3)
85 85 -	Isocitrate dehydrogenase [NAD] (EC 1.1.1.41)
85a	2-Oxoglutarate ferredoxin oxidoreductase (EC 1.2.7)
86	Succinate dehydrogenase (ubiquinone) flavoprotein subunit [EC:1.3.5.1]
87	Fumarate hydratase (EC 4.2.1.2)
88	Citrate lyase (EC 4.1.3.6)
89	GS-GOGAT Pathway  Clutamete synthese INA DBHI small chair (FC 1 4 1 1 2)
90	Glutamate synthase [NADPH] small chain (EC 1.4.1.13) Glutamine synthetase type III, GlnN (EC 6.3.1.2)
90	Glutammie synthetase type III, Glin (EC 0.3.1.2)  Glutamate symport
91	Proton-glutamate symport protein
92	Sodium-glutamate symport protein
93	
93 94	Putative glutamine transport ATP hinding protein ClaQ (TC 2 A 1 2 2)
94	Glutamine transport ATP-binding protein GlnQ (TC 3.A.1.3.2)  Shikimate Pathway and aromatic acid biosynthesis
95	3-Deoxy-7-phosphoheptulonate synthase [EC:2.5.1.54]
95 96	3-Debydroquinate synthase [EC:4.2.3.4]
90 97	3-Dehydroquinate dehydratase I [EC:4.2.1.10]
98	Shikimate dehydrogenase [EC:1.1.1.25]
99	Shikimate denydrogenase [EC.1.1.1.23] Shikimate kinase [EC:2.7.1.71]
100	3-Phosphoshikimate 1-carboxyvinyltransferase [EC:2.5.1.19]
101	Chorismate synthase [EC:4.2.3.5]
101	Chorismate mutase [EC:5.4.99.5]
103	Aromatic-amino-acid transaminase [EC:2.6.1.57]
103	Prephenate dehydratase [EC:4.2.1.51]
105	Prephenate dehydrogenase [EC:4.2.1.31]
106	Histidinol-phosphate aminotransferase [EC:2.6.1.9]
107	Aromatic-amino-acid transaminase [EC:2.6.1.57]
108	Anthranilate synthase / indole-3-glycerol phosphate synthase [EC:4.1.3.27 4.1.1.48]
109	Anthranilate phosphoribosyltransferase [EC:2.4.2.18]
110	Anthranilate synthase / indole-3-glycerol phosphate synthase /
110	phosphoribosylanthranilate isomerase [EC:4.1.3.27 4.1.1.48 5.3.1.24]
111	Anthranilate synthase / indole-3-glycerol phosphate synthase [EC:4.1.3.27 4.1.1.48]
112	Tryptophan synthase alpha chain [EC:4.2.1.20]
113	Tryptophan synthase beta chain [EC:4.2.1.20]
	Leucine, isoleucine and valine biosynthesis
114	Acetolactate synthase I/II/III large subunit [EC:2.2.1.6]
115	Ketol-acid reductoisomerase [EC:1.1.1.86]
116	Dihydroxy-acid dehydratase [EC:4.2.1.9]
117	Branched-chain amino acid aminotransferase [EC:2.6.1.42]
118	Leucine dehydrogenase [EC:1.4.1.9]
119	2-Isopropylmalate synthase [EC:2.3.3.13]
120	3-Isopropylmalate dehydratase [EC:4.2.1.33]
	Lysine biosynthesis
121	Aspartate kinase [EC:2.7.2.4]
122	Aspartate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase [EC:1.2.1.11]

123	4-Hydroxy-tetrahydrodipicolinate synthase [EC:4.3.3.7]
124	4-Hydroxy-tetrahydrodipicolinate reductase [EC:1.17.1.8]
125	Tetrahydrodipicolinate N-acetyltransferase [EC:2.3.1.89]
126	Aminotransferase [EC:2.6.1]
127	Diaminopimelate epimerase [EC:5.1.1.7]
128	Diaminopimelate decarboxylase [EC:4.1.1.20]
	Terpenoid biosynthetic Pathway
129	1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase [EC:2.2.1.7]
130	1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate reductoisomerase [EC:1.1.1.267]
131	2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate cytidylyltransferase [EC:2.7.7.60]
132	4-diphosphocytidyl-2-C-methyl-D-erythritol kinase [EC:2.7.1.148]
133	2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 2,4-cyclodiphosphate synthase [EC:4.6.1.12]
134	(E)-4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl-diphosphate synthase [EC:1.17.7.11.17.7.3]
135	(E)-4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl-diphosphate synthase [EC:1.17.7.11.17.7.3]
136	4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-en-1-yl diphosphate reductase [EC:1.17.7.4]
137	4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-en-1-yl diphosphate reductase [EC:1.17.7.4]
138	farnesyl diphosphate synthase [EC:2.5.1.1 2.5.1.10]
	Sulfur metabolism
139	Sulfate transporter, CysZ-type
140	Sulfate permease
141	Sulfur carrier protein FdhD
142	Homoserine O-succinyltransferase/O-acetyltransferase [EC:2.3.1.462.3.1.31]
143	Kynurenineoxoglutarate transaminase / cysteine-S-conjugate beta-lyase /
	glutaminephenylpyruvate transaminase [EC:2.6.1.7 4.4.1.13 2.6.1.64]
144	Cysteine desulfurase (EC 2.8.1.7)
145	CoA-disulfide reductase (EC 1.8.1.14) / Disulfide bond regulator
146	Thiosulfate sulfurtransferase, rhodanese (EC 2.8.1.1)
	Heterodisulfide reductase (HDR) system
147	Heterodisulfide reductase, cytochrome reductase subunit
148	heterodisulfide reductase, iron-sulfur binding subunit, putative
149	Heterodisulfide reductase subunit D-like protein
150	Heterodisulfide reductase subunit A-like protein
151	Heterodisulfide reductase subunit C-like protein
152	Heterodisulfide reductase subunit B-like protein
	Transporter related genes
153	Acetate-proton symport
154	Peptide transporter
155	Mg/Co/Ni transporter MgtE / CBS domain protein OppF (TC 3.A.1.5.1)
156	Amino acid ABC transporter, permease protein
157	Methionine transporter MetT
158	Ferric iron ABC transporter, iron-binding protein
159	Oligopeptide transport ATP-binding
160	Spermidine Putrescine ABC transporter permease component PotB (TC 3.A.1.11.1)
161	Sodium-dependent phosphate transporter
162	L-proline glycine betaine binding ABC transporter protein ProX (TC 3.A.1.12.1) / Osmotic adaptation
163	Maltose/maltodextrin ABC transporter, permease protein MalF
164	Vitamin B <sub>12</sub> ABC transporter, B12-binding component BtuF
165	ABC-type transport system, involved in lipoprotein release, permease component
166	NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase subunit 5
	1.121.140.quinone omateureuse sucumit e

167 Putative glutamine transport system permease 168 Ribose ABC transport system, ATP-binding protein RbsA (TC 3.A.1.2.1) Oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein OppF (TC 3.A.1.5.1) 169 Branched-chain amino acid transport system permease protein LivM (TC 3.A.1.4.1) 170 171 Na-K-Cl cotransporter Amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein 172 173 Glycerol-3-phosphate transporter 174 Ribose ABC transport system, permease protein RbsC (TC 3.A.1.2.1) Spermidine Putrescine ABC transporter permease component potC (TC\_3.A.1.11.1) 175 Choline-glycine betaine transporter 176 Maltose/maltodextrin ABC transporter, substrate binding periplasmic protein MalE 177 Magnesium and cobalt transport protein CorA 178 **ATP Synthesis** 179 F-type H+/Na+-transporting ATPase subunit alpha [EC:7.1.2.2 7.2.2.1] F-type H+/Na+-transporting ATPase subunit beta [EC:7.1.2.2 7.2.2.1] 180 181 F-type H+-transporting ATPase subunit delta F-type H+-transporting ATPase subunit epsilon 182 F-type H+-transporting ATPase subunit gamma 183 F-type H+-transporting ATPase subunit a 184 F-type H+-transporting ATPase subunit b 185

## **Oxygen Detoxification**

187 Superoxide reductase (EC 1.15.1.2)

186

#### H<sub>2</sub> production

[FeFe] hydrogenase (EC 1.12.7.2) 2 operons

F-type H+-transporting ATPase subunit c

Periplasmic [FeFe] hydrogenase large subunit (EC 1.12.7.2) 4 operons

#### Amino acid fermentations

hypothetical protein clustered with lysine fermentation genes

Alanine dehydrogenase (EC 1.4.1.1)

Cystathionine beta-lyase (EC 4.4.1.8)

Tryptophanase (EC 4.1.99.1)

# **Membrane Transport**

# ABC transporter oligopeptide (TC 3.A.1.5.1)

Oligopeptide ABC transporter, periplasmic oligopeptide-binding protein OppA (TC 3.A.1.5.1)

Oligopeptide transport system permease protein OppB (TC 3.A.1.5.1)

### ABC transporter dipeptide (TC 3.A.1.5.2)

Dipeptide-binding ABC transporter, periplasmic substrate-binding component (TC 3.A.1.5.2)

#### **Magnesium transport**

Mg(2+) transport ATPase protein C

**Supplementary Table S3:** Average nucleotide identity (ANI) and digital-DDH between strains SD5<sup>T</sup> (1), BL5 (2) and *Psychrilyobacter atlanticus* JCM 14977<sup>T</sup> (3).

Strains		1		2	3		
	ANI	Digital-DDH	ANI	Digital-DDH	ANI	Digital-DDH	
1	100	100	99.9	99.9	86.6	32.9	
2	99.9	99.9	100	100	86.5	32.9	
3	86.6	32.9	86.5	32.9	100	100	

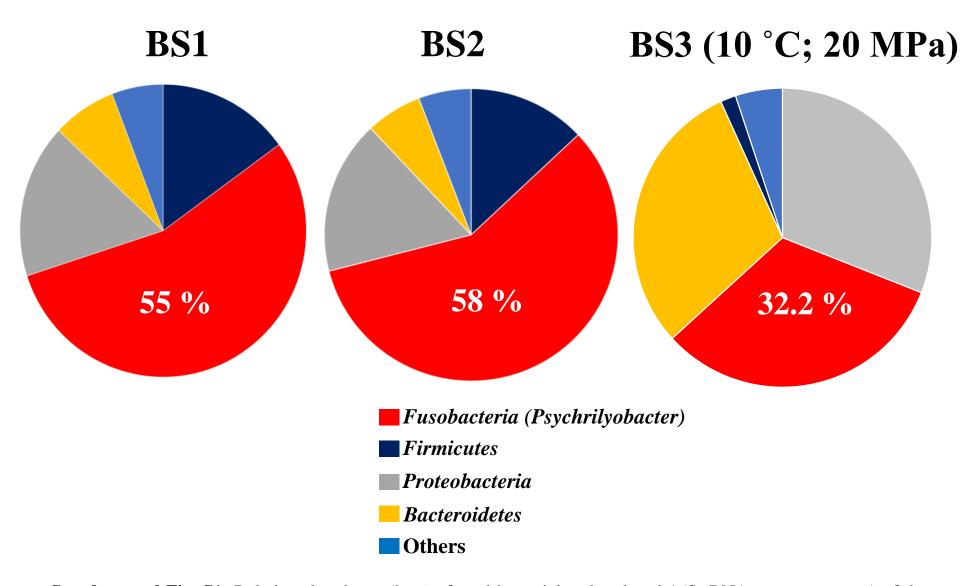
**Supplementary Table S4:** \*Differentiating characteristics between strain SD5<sup>T</sup>, BL5 and *Psychrilyobacter atlanticus* JCM 14977<sup>T</sup>.

Characteristic	SD5 <sup>T</sup>	BL5	P. atlanticus JCM 14977 <sup>T</sup>
Natural Habitat	Marine water	Marine water	Marine sediment
Cell shape	Rod to oval	Rod to oval	short rod
Cell size (μm)	Rod (0.6-0.7x3-6) oval (diameter, 1.1- 1.2)	Rod (0.6- 0.7x3-6) Oval (diameter, 1.1-1.2)	0.5-0.6x0.5-1.0
Growth at 50 MPa	+	+	-
Growth at 32 mM of sulfide concentration	+	+	-
Optimum (range) pH	7.0-8.0 (6.5-8.8)	7.0-8.0 (6.5-8.8)	7.0-7.5 (6.5-9.0)
Optimum	2-3	2-3	1.5-2.5
(range) NaCl (%)	(0.5-5.5)	(0.5-5.5)	(0.5-5.5)
Optimum (range)	23-25	23-25	18-20
temperature (°C)	(4-35)	(4-35)	(4-30)
Hydrolysis of			
Cellulose	+	+	-
Chitin	+	+	-
Starch	+	+	-
Organic substrate utili	zed for growth		
Cellulose	+	+	-
Fumarate	-	-	+
API 20A			
Urease	+	+	-
Gelatin	-	-	+
Esculin	-	-	+
D-Raffinose	-	+	+
G+C (mol %)	33.8	33.8	31.9

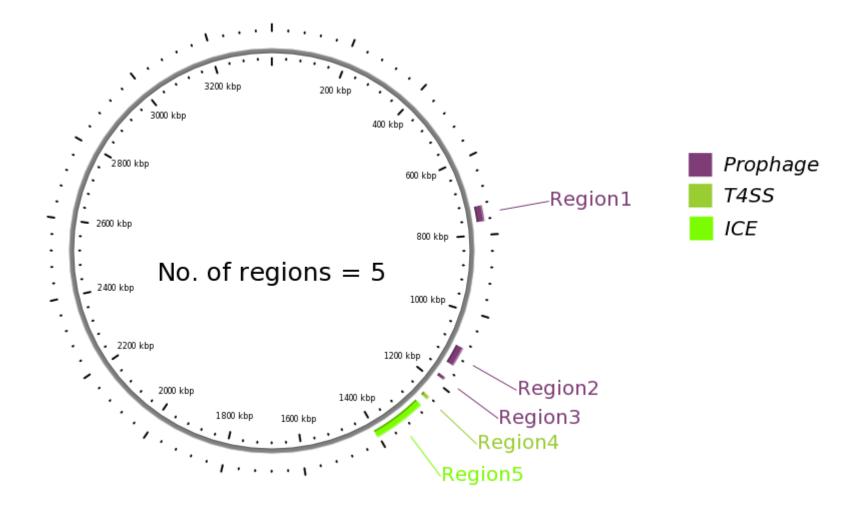
<sup>\*</sup>Data obtained from authors laboratory.

<sup>1,</sup> *Psychrilyobacter piezotolerans* SD5<sup>T</sup>; 2, BL5; 3, *Psychrilyobacter atlanticus* JCM 14977<sup>T</sup>; Both strains are negative for catalase and oxidase activity; Positive for glucose, lactate, glycerol, xylose, galactose, cellobiose, maltose and lactose, aspartate, threonine, glutamate, and lysine fermentation; utilized D-glucose, cellobiose, sucrose, pyruvate, aspartic acid, glutamic acid, L-lysine and acetate; both strains are positive for D-glucose, D-mannitol, D-lactose (bovine origin), D-saccharose (sucrose), D-maltose, salicin, D-xylose, L-arabinose, glycerol, D-cellobiose and D-mannose and negative for D-melezitose,

D-raffinose, D-sorbitol, L-rhamnose, D-trehalose and indole under API A kit test; +, positive/utilized/required; -, negative/not utilized/not required; ND, not determined.



**Supplemental Fig. S1:** Relative abundance (in % of total bacterial and archaeal 16S rRNA gene sequences) of the *Psychrilyobacter* spp. and the composition of the rest of the microbial community in the enrichments using the growth media BS1, BS2 and BS3.



**Supplemental Fig. S2:** Putative virulence related regions identified in the genomes of strains SD5<sup>T</sup> and BL5.